

INTERNATIONAL PROSECUTION SECTION

Doc. No. 1756

31 May 1946

ANALYSIS OF DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE

DESCRIPTION OF ATTACHED DOCUMENT

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A semi-official Jap publication, of "The Foreign Affairs Assn. of Japan," covering many phases of Jap life, such as: Foreign Relations; National Defense; Press and Publications; etc.

Analyst: C.W.J.Phelps

Doc. No. 1756

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864
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GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
INTERNATIONAL PROSECUTION SECTION

JUL 23 1946

23 July 1946

TO: TRANSLATION CONTROL

Attached is Document No. 1756G for Mr. English.

Arrange for translation as follows: Translate from Eng. to Jap. ✓

- a) Heading: Excerpts from "The Japan Year Book, 1941-1942" pp. 233 f. ✓
Then: p. 233: "Revision of the Military Service Law" first 2 paragraphs
p. 234: Subheading "Revision in 1941" and all paragraphs thereunder.
- b) Heading: Excerpts from "The Japan Year Book, 1941-1942" p. 241. ✓
p. 241: "National Defense Security Law" (first 2 paragraphs)

JBA

J. B. A.

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GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
INTERNATIONAL PROSECUTION SECTION

29 July, 1946

TO: DUPLICATION CONTROL

Attached is Document No. 1756 G for English.

Arrange for reproduction of 125 copies in English and 90 copies in Japanese as follows:

E stem - cut portions indicated in
the Japan Year Book by
red circling. (Pages set
out on attached work
order

J stem - Cut attached jap. doc.

90

For heading see
request attached right
under this work sheet.

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EXCERPT FROM "JAPAN YEAR BOOK 1941-42"

CHAPTER XLIII

SOUTH SEA ISLANDS

UNDER JAPAN'S MANDATE

Geographical Features

The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan, numbering over 1,400, with an aggregate area of 2,148.80 square kilometers, are the Mariana, Marshall and Caroline groups, between 131° 10' and 172° 10' of east longitude and between 1° 15' and 20° 32' of north latitude. The Hawaiian Islands are to the east; the Philippines and Celebes to the west; the Bonin Islands to the north, and New Guinea to the south. Only one island among them, i.e. Guam, belongs to the United States.

The Mariana archipelago starts close to the southern end of the Bonin Islands, stretching toward the equator, and the Marshall and Caroline groups extend to the east and west along the equator, forming an inverted letter "T" with the Marianas. About 740 miles south of the Bonin Islands lies Saipan, the largest of the Marianas, and about 180 miles farther south is Truk, one of the largest of the Carolines, which marking the crossing point of the inverted "T", is the center of the mandated territory. The line of 148° east longitude divides the Carolines into the West Carolines, with Palau and Yap, and the East Carolines, with Truk and Ponape. Because of the distances between the islands and the extensive area covered by them, communications are difficult. The fact that each group of isles uses different words peculiar to itself sufficiently demonstrates the degree to which they are separated.

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RETURN TO ROOM 361

Doc- 1756 H-1 ^{94 881}

(英文)
一九四二年
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Kuplan

第四十三章 日本委任統治下ニ於ケル

南洋諸島

(敬 奉)

地 形

日本ニ委任統治サレタル南洋諸島ハ、其ノ數一千四百ヲ越エ、總面積二、一四八。八〇平方浬ニシテ、

「マリアナ」、^{Mariana}「マーシャル」及「カロリン」諸群島ヨリ成リ東經一三一度一〇分乃至一七二度一〇分ノ間、北緯一度一五分乃至二〇度三二分ノ間ニ介在ス。布哇群島ハ其ノ東ニ、^{Philippines}「フィリピン」及「セレベス」^{Celebes}ハ四方ニ、小笠原島ハ北方ニ又「ニューギニア」^{New Guinea}ハ其ノ南方ニ位ス。其ノ中唯「グアム」一島ノミ合衆國ニ屬ス。

「マリアナ」群島ハ小笠原諸島ノ南方ニ近接シ、^{Mariana}「マリアナ」^{Mariana}「マーシャル」及「カロリン」群島ハ赤道ニ沿ヒテ東西ニ延ビ「マリアナ」群島ト共ニ「丁」字ヲ逆サニセル形ヲ成ス。小笠原諸島ノ南方約七四〇浬ノ所ニ「サイパン」^{Saipan}在リ、コレハ「マリアナ」群島中最大ノ島ナリ。又ソレヨリ更ニ約一八〇浬前方ニ「トラツク」^{Truk}アリ。コレハ「カ

Caroline

ロリン「群島ノ最大ノ島ノ一ニシテ頗何丁字形ノ交
 點ニ當リ、委任統治領ノ中心ヲナス。東經一四八度
 ノ線ハ「Caroline」群島ヲ「Palau」及「Yap」
 ヲ含ム西「Caroline」諸島ト「Truk」及「Ponape」
 ベ「ヲ含ム東「Caroline」諸島トニ分ツ。島ト島ト
 ノ距離遠ク又コレ等ノ島々ノ占有スルニ甚大ナル
 タメ、交通ハ困難ナリ。各群島毎ニソレゾレ特有ノ
 異ル言語ヲ使用シ居レル事實ハコレ等ノ島々ノ分散
 シ居ル程度ヲ證明スルニ十分ナリ。

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「一九四一、二年日本年鑑」抜萃

二三三頁「兵役法ノ改正」

一九三九年（昭和十四年）ノ改正

兵役法改正法ガ一九三九年三月八日ニ公布サレタ。
改正條項ニ含まレルノハ、「兵役義務年限規則ノ改正」
「服役終了兵ノ徵集」
「學生ニ對スル徵兵延期並ビニ其ノ徵集方法」
「短期兵役制度ノ廢止」及ビ
「滿洲國官立諸學校日系在學生ニ對スル徵兵延期ノ恩典ノ承認」デアル。

兵役年限ノ改正

新法令ニ依レバ陸軍補充兵役ノ年限ハ、十二年四月ヨリ延長サレ、一方海軍豫備役ノ年限ハ四年カラ五年ニ、同ジク後備役ノ年限ハ五年カラ七年ニ夫々延長サレタ。

二三四頁 一九四一年（昭和十六年）ノ改正

頁ニ改正サレタ兵役法ガ第七十六帝國議會ヲ通過シ一九四一年四月一日ヨリ施行サレタ。

改正要點ハ次ノ如シ。(1)在留地徵集主義ノ採用(2)後備兵役制ノ廢止(3)補充兵ニ對スル教育召集日數ノ延長
(4)現行兵役法ノ規定ニ從ヘバ、新徵集兵ニ對スル則ト

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FILE COPY

テ日本内地ノ、本籍所在地ノ衛戍部隊、若シクハ都合ニ依リ朝鮮、台湾、關東州、支那ノ如キ外地永駐部隊ニ入營スル事ニナツテキル。此ノ際、自ラ將來ヲ開拓セントシテ外地ニ出掛ケタ雄圖アル青年達ガ徵兵検査ト入營トノ爲ニ日本内地ニ歸ラネバナラズ、爲ニ自己ノ雄圖ヲ放棄セシメラレル如キ事情ガ生ズル。本改正ハ此ノ點ニ儘ミ、日本内地以外ノ地ニ於テモ、本籍ノ如何ニ拘ハラズ、青年ヲ其ノ在留地最寄部隊ニ入營セシメ得ンガ爲ニナサレタノデアル。此ノ新規定ハ一九四二年（昭和十七年）ニ徵兵検査ヲ受クベキ青年カラ先ヅ適用サレル。

(2) 舊制度ニ於テハ兵役ヲ三段ニ、即チ現役、豫備役、後備兵役ニ區分シタ。然ルニ、戦時所要兵員ノ増大ト、最近防衛勤務上ノ任務ノ多様化並ニ編制ノ錯雜化トニヨリ、豫備役ト後備兵役ノ區分ハ其ノ意義ヲ消滅シ、國家ハ豫後備兵ノ全員ガ、劣ルコトナキ忠誠心ヲ以テ何時デモ現役ニ列センコトヲ要求シテキルノデアル。ソコデ新法令ニ於テハ現役ヲ服役シタ者ハ凡テ、從來ノ豫備役ト後備兵役ノ期間ヲ合シテ豫備役兵籍ニ編入サレル如ク規定シタ。豫備兵ニ關スル本規定ハ一九四一年四月一日ヨリ施行サレタ。

(3) 軍事技術ノ多方面ニ亘ル軍事訓練及ビ教育ノ進歩

1756G-3

ニ伴ヒ、補充兵ノ教育日數ハ現在ノ一二〇日ヨリ
一八〇日ニ延長サレタ。本規定ハ一九四一年四月
一日ヨリ施行サレタ。

二四一頁「国防保安法」

国防保安法ハ、第七十六帝國議會（一九四〇年十二
月一―一九四一年三月）ニ於テ協賛サレタ最重要法律
ノ一デアリ、一九四一年（昭和十六年）五月十日ヨ
リ施行サレタ。

既ニ軍事上ノ秘密洩洩ヲ警戒スル爲ニハ軍機保護法
ガアリ、國家軍用資源ノ秘密保護ノ爲ニハ軍用資源
秘密保護法ガ施行サレテキルガ、外交、財政、經濟
事項ニ關スル國家ノ最高機密ヲ時ニ保護スベキ法律
ハ未ダ制定サレテキナカツタノデアル。

（以上）

Excerpts from "The Japan Year Book, 1941-1942"

Page 233: "Revision of the Military Service Law"

Revision in 1939

The Law Amending the Military Service Law was promulgated on March 8, 1939. The items of revision include: amendments to the regulations on the term of military service; conscription of ex-service men; postponement of conscription for students and the manner of this conscription; abrogation of the short-term service system; and recognition of the privilege of postponement of conscription for Japanese students in Manchukuo Government schools.

Revision of the Term of Service.

Under the new Law the term of the supplementary reserve service for the Army was lengthened from 12 years and four months, while that of the first reserve service for the Navy was prolonged from four years to five years and that of the second reserve service from five years to seven years.

Page 234: ~~Revision of the Military Service Law~~ in 1941.

Another revised Military Service Law which was passed by the Imperial Diet at its 76th Session was enforced on April 1, 1941.

The main points of revision are (1) the enrolment of new conscripts in overseas districts into the garrisons nearest to their residences, (2) the abrogation of the second reserve service system, and (3) the prolongation of the days of call for the education of the supplementary reservists.

(1) According to the provisions of the existing Military Service Law, new conscripts are enrolled, as a rule, into the armies stationed in areas in Japan proper where they are registered as Japanese subjects, or, into the garrisons in such overseas districts as Chosen, Taiwan, Kwantung or China for convenience. There arise cases where the ambitious young men who have gone out to overseas territories to open a future for themselves have to return to Japan proper for their examination and enrollment and are cut short of their ambition. The revision is therefore made in this respect to cause young men to be enrolled in the armies or garrisons stationed in the regions other than Japan proper without regard to their census registration. The new rule shall be applied first to those young men who are to receive the conscription examination in 1942.

(2) The old system divides those eligible for military service into three categories, namely, the active, the 1st reserve and the second reserve. In view of the increased demands made on armed services in wartime, the increase of different kinds of works and the intricacy of organization in the recent defense services, the demarcation between the first and second reserves has become meaningless, the State requiring all reserve soldiers to appear for active service at any time and in the same spirit of loyalty. And the new law provides that all those who have completed their active service shall be enlisted in the reserve list for the whole length of term formerly divided into the two reserve services. This rule governing the reserve servicemen came into force as from April 1, 1941.

(3) With the progress of military drill and education in many fields of military art, the duration of term for educating the supplementary reservists has been lengthened from the present 120 to 180 days, the rule coming into force from April 1, 1941.

Page 241. National Defense Security Law

The National Defense Security Law is one of the most important legislations which was approved by the 76th session (December 1940-March 1941) of the Imperial Diet and enforced on May 10, 1941.

There is already in operation the Military Secret Protection Law designed to guard against the leakage of military secrets and the Defense Resources Secrets Protection Law to safeguard the secrecy of the defense resources of the country. But, no law specifically intended to protect the highest secrets of the State relating to diplomatic, financial and economic matters had yet been enacted.

1756-C

「日本年鑑、一九四〇（昭和十五年）—一九四二（昭和十七年）」
より抜萃（九三八頁）

「産業振興計画」

「産業振興五ヶ年計画は此の四ヶ年間に実施せられ一九四二（昭和十六年）に終了す。新しい五ヶ年拡張計画が該官廳の間にて計画中なり。」

「第四ヶ年目の成果」

「一九四〇（昭和十五年）年度に於ける五ヶ年計画の遂行に於て責任ある官廳はこの國の複雑なる國際的位置より生じた諸種の困難に遭遇せり。併し乍ら第四年目に得られたる果は前年度より遙に良好なりき。前年度の成果若くは本年及に定められたる目標に比較せる實際の成果に同する。企畫院の報告以下の如し。」

Ex447

No. 1

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「(一) 製鉄及鉱業」

「一九三九(昭和十四年)年度の生産高を百とするは、製鉄
生産一〇四、鋼鉄塊一〇二、鋼鉄一一〇、石炭一〇八、液体燃
料一〇〇。」

「(二) 其の他。鉱物」

「鉛三〇八、亜鉛二二三、銅一九六、軽金属二〇〇、石綿一〇七。」

「(三) 電気」

「電気工業は五、年計画の下に定められたる本年度目標に
到着せり。」

「(四) 農業」

「五、年計画による本年度目標額を一〇〇とするは、高
梁一〇四、白米一三七、大麦一二二、小麦七五、玄米一六。」

No. 2

1756-c

麻一〇、豆九〇、木綿七〇、油原料及大豆八〇、落花生
五〇。

〔五〕植民

本年度目標(百)に比し日本人移民八五、朝鮮人六五、
志願者八〇。植民計画実施以来新しい土地耕作の
ための農民家族数は、以て日本より三万、朝鮮より
二万四千、本國二万、志願者四万、季節的の出
稼二万に達せり。

〔六〕家畜

羊一〇〇、牛八〇、豚九〇。

〔七〕資本の集積

國內、國外に於ける金融市場の不利なる條件に

No. 4

1756-c

「(ハ)交通」

も拘らず、産業拡張に必要なる資金額は順調に
獲得せられ、その中五五パーセントは日本より来此

「運輸通信機関は多くの困難を克服して豫定通り改
良、拡張せられり。」

EXCERPT FROM "THE JAPAN YEAR BOOK, 1941-42",
PAGE 938

"Industrial Development Plan

"The five-year industrial development plan has been carried out last four years and it is to end in 1941. A new five-year expansion plan is under contemplation among competent authorities.

"Results of the Fourth Year. In the execution of the five-year plan in 1940 the responsible authorities met with various difficulties arising out of the complicated international situation of the country. The results reaped in the fourth year, however, were much better than in the preceding year. The reports of the Planning Bureau of the practical results compared with the preceding year or the fixed goal for the year follow:

"(1) Iron and Mining Industries. Taking the production in 1939 as 100 the output of pig iron 104, steel ingot 102, steel 110, coal 108, liquid fuel 100.

"(2) Other minerals. Lead 308, zinc 213, copper 196, light metals 200, asbestos 107.

"(3) Electricity. Electric industries have attained the goal fixed for the year under the five-year program.

"(4) Agriculture. Taking the fixed amount for the year under the five-year program as 100, the crop of kaoliang 104, whitened rice 127, barley 122, wheat 75, rice 116, hemp 100 bean 90, cotton 70, oil materials and soya beans 80, groundnuts 50.

"(5) Colonization. Compared with the goal fixed for the year (100), Japanese immigrants 85, Chosenese immigrants 65, volunteers 80. The number of farming households for cultivating new lands since the beginning of the colonization plan reached 30,000 of such households from Japan, 24,000 from Chosen, 20,000 of the country men, 40,000 of volunteers, and 20,000 of seasonal volunteers.

"(6) Live-stock. Sheep 100, cattle 80, pigs 90.

"(7) Accumulation of Capital. In spite of the unfavorable conditions in the money markets in and out of the country the necessary amount of capital for the expansion of industries has been successfully obtained, 55 per cent of which coming from Japan.

"(8) Communications. Facilities for transportation and communications have been improved and enlarged as planned overcoming many difficulties."

EXCERPT FROM "THE JAPAN YEAR BOOK 1941-42"

(pp 997-998)

COMPREHENSIVE RESULTS OF THE JAPANESE
MILITARY OPERATIONS IN CHINA

During July 1937-June 1941

(Report of the Army Information Section, the Imperial
Headquarters)

1. Estimated number of Chinese killed	2,015,000
The loss of Chinese forces, including death, the wounded, captives, etc.	3,800,000-
The booty:	
Arms	482,257
Tanks, cars, motor-trucks	1,475
Trains, engines, carriages	2,449
Warships and vessels	410
2. Results of Air Forces' Activities, includ- ing Nomonhan Incident:	
Enemy warplanes brought down	1,744
Destroyed on the ground	233
Total loss of the enemy	1,977
3. Losses of the Imperial Army, including Nomonhan Incident:	
Killed	109,250
Lost warplanes	203

EX 276B

1756D

日本軍ノ支那作戰ノ總成果

自一九三七年（昭和十二年）七月
至一九四一年（昭和十六年）六月

（大本營陸軍部報告ノ報告）

一、支那人死者推定數 二〇一五〇〇〇 人

支那軍ノ損害 死傷者捕虜等ヲ含ム 三、八〇〇、〇〇〇 "

戰利品

兵器 四八二、二五七

戰車、車輛、自動貨車 一、四七五

列車、機關車、客車 二、四四九

軍艦及船舶 四一〇

二、空軍ノ活動ノ成果 ノモンハン事件ヲ含ム

擊墜セル敵機 一、七四四 機

地上擊破 二、三三三 "

敵側ノ損害ノ合計 一、九七七 "

三、皇軍ノ損害 ノモンハン事件ヲ含ム

戰死 一〇九、二五〇 人

飛行機ノ損傷 二〇三 機

(Excerpt from The Japan Yearbook, 1941-42, Page 941)

JAPAN'S INVESTMENT IN MANCHOUKUO

Japan's investment in Manchoukuo was estimated to have amounted to about ¥1,700,000,000, before the Manchurian Incident of 1931. According to the South Manchuria Railway Company, the pre-incident investments were distributed as follows: 30 per cent in transportation; 11.6 per cent in finance; 6.7 per cent in commerce; 16.2 per cent in agriculture, forestry and mining; 9.2 per cent in industry; and 26.3 per cent in other enterprises. It is further classified that out of the ¥ 1,700,000,000 investments, ¥837,000,000 took the form of investments in securities and the remaining ¥863,000,000 in limited and unlimited partnership companies and private companies.

Investments in securities before the incident consisted of those in debentures and stocks and loans which may be partially regarded as investments in securities. At the end of 1931, the total investments of Japan in securities relating to Manchuria amounted to ¥837,536,000, of which ¥710,906,000 was connected with the S.M.R.Co. The fact shows Japan's investments in Manchuria before the Incident were almost exclusively limited to the railway company.

To the above huge total were added new investments amounting to ¥2,600,000,000. During the period under review, according to the reports of the Manchurian Affairs Bureau, ¥262,995,000 were added in 1936, ¥341,273,000 in 1937, ¥430,981,000 in 1938, and ¥1,103,713,000 in 1939. The grand total of Japanese investments in Manchuria at the end of 1939 is thus estimated to be around ¥4,739,483,000. The total amount of Japanese investments in the form of shares and bonds in 1940 reached ¥ 2,815,205,000.

JAPANESE INVESTMENTS IN MANCHOUKUO DURING 1940
(In ¥1,000)

	Amount Newly Issued	Conversion	Total	Redemption	Outstanding At the End of the Year
National Bonds.....	200,000	-	200,000	2,000	620,900
Bank Bonds.....	45,000	-	45,000	-	75,000
Company Shares.....	234,000	-	234,000	3,650	734,700
Shares of Japanese companies in Manchoukuo.....	245,000	38,000	283,000	45,545	1,384,605
TOTAL	724,000	38,000	762,000	51,195	2,815,205

EX. 276B

1756B-1

一九四一年（昭和十六年）乃至一九四二年（昭和十七年）「日本年鑑」第九四一頁ヨリ抜萃

日本ノ滿洲國ニ對スル投資

滿洲國ニ於ケル日本ノ投資ハ、一九三一年（昭和六年）ノ滿洲事變前ニハ約一、七〇〇、〇〇〇〇〇圓ニ達スルモノト見積モラレタ。南滿洲鐵道株式會社ノ調査ニ據レバ、此ノ事變前ノ投資ハ次ノ通り自分サレテキル。

運輸事業ニ三〇パーセント、金融事業ニ一七・六パーセント、商業ニ六・七パーセント、農林業及鐵業ニ一六・二パーセント、工業ニ九・二パーセント、其ノ他ノ企業ニ二六・三パーセント、更ニ之ヲ分類スルト、投資額一、七〇〇、〇〇〇〇〇〇圓ノ中、八三七、〇〇〇、〇〇〇圓ハ對證券類、殘餘八六三、〇〇〇、〇〇〇圓ハ對合名及合資會社並ニ個人會社投資ノ形式トナツテキル。事變前ノ證券類ヘノ投資ハ社債、株券並ニ一部分對證券投資トモ認メ得ベキ公債ニ對シテ行ハレタ。一九三三年（昭和六年）末、滿洲國係之證券類ニ對スル日本ノ投資總額ハ八三七、五三六、〇〇〇圓ニ達シ、此ノ中七一〇、九〇六、〇〇〇圓ハ南滿洲鐵道株式會社關係ノモノデアツタ。此ノ事實ハ、事變前ノ日本ノ對滿投資ハ殆ド全部同鐵道會社ニ限定セラ

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レテキタコトヲ示シテキル。

前記迄六ナ投資額ニ對シ、更ニ二、六〇〇、〇〇〇、〇〇〇圓ニ達スル新規投資ガ追加サレタ。對滿事務局ノ報告ニ據レバ、前記ノ當該期間中、一九三六年（昭和十一年）ニハ二六二、九九五、〇〇〇圓ヲ、一九三七年（昭和十二年）ニハ三四一、二七三、〇〇〇圓ヲ、一九三八年（昭和十三年）ニハ四三〇、九八一、〇〇〇圓ヲ、一九三九年（昭和十四年）ニハ一〇三、七一三、〇〇〇圓ヲ、夫々追加サレテキル。斯ノ如ク一九三九年（昭和十四年）末ニ於ケル日本ノ對滿投資總計額ハ大略四、七三九、四八三、〇〇〇圓見當ト見積モラレテキル。一九四〇年（昭和十五年）ニ於ケル株券及債券ノ形式ニヨル日本ノ投資總額ハ二、八一五、二〇五、〇〇〇圓ニ達シタ。

一九四〇年（昭和十五年）中滿洲國ニ於ケル日本ノ投資（單位一、〇〇〇圓）

類別	新發發行高	償 換	合 計	償 却	年末ニ於ケル未決 濟高
國 債	二〇〇、〇〇〇		二〇〇、〇〇〇	二、〇〇〇	六二〇、九〇〇
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在滿洲國 日本會社 社債券	二四五、〇〇〇	三八、〇〇〇	二八三、〇〇〇	四五、五四五	一、三八四、六〇五
合 計	七二四、〇〇〇	三八、〇〇〇	七六二、〇〇〇	三二、一九三	一、六八一五、二〇五

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Esc. 276-A

DOC. NO. 1756

EXCERPTS FROM THE JAPAN YEAR BOOK
1941-42 (p. 1000)

1940:

March 4 - Haichow in Shantung Province occupied by Japanese troops.

March 30 - The Central Government of the Chinese Republic established under Wang Ching-wei at Nanking.

April 4 - The Yunnan Railway attacked by Japanese air units.

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一九四〇（昭和十五年）三月四日

山東省海州ハ日本軍ノ爲ニ占領サル。

一九四〇（昭和十五年）三月三十日

中華民國中央政府ハ南京ニ於テ汪精衛ニヨリ
樹立サル。

一九四〇（昭和十五年）四月四日

雲南鐵道ハ日本空軍ニヨリ攻撃サル。

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(a) "ABROGATION OF THE JAPANESE-NETHERLANDS ARBITRATION TREATY.

* * *

"* * * The Japanese Government informed the Netherlands Government of the abrogation of the treaty on January 12, 1940. * * *" (The Japan Year Book, 1941-1942, page 197.)

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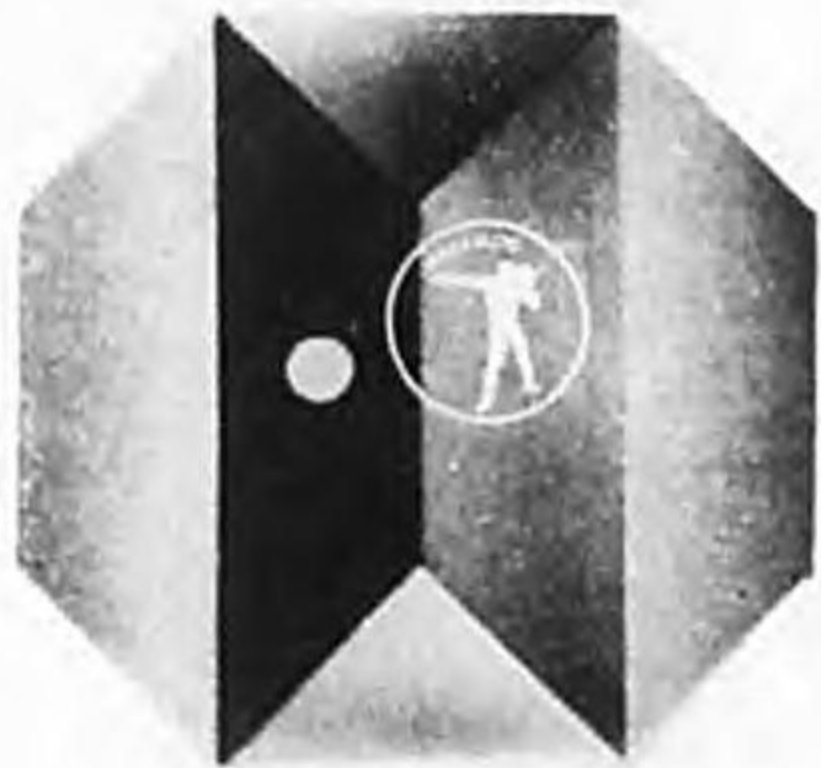
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P R E F A C E

In the compilation of The Japan Year Book, 1941-42, care has been taken to preserve the features which characterized the preceding editions. All the chapters have been gone over thoroughly and revised so as to bring the material up to date and to insure greater balance as between the various sections. In this attempt some sections and even chapters have had to be entirely changed or partly re-written, and a new chapter on principal cities and noted places in Japan is added in the present edition.

Both in selection and classification of material the original plan used in the previous editions of the Year Book has been followed as the most convenient one to present this country as it is before the reader.

The Map of Japan attached to the Year Book has been changed into a small Map of Japan and Manchoukuo, while a new Map of China is attached to the Chapter on China, to facilitate reference to places coming under review.

It is with pleasure that the editor acknowledges with thanks the assistance he has received from many friends, especially from officials of the Government, for material used in the compilation of this book.

Tokyo, October 1941

The Editor

JAPANESE WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Weights

Kan (Kwan)=1,000 mommé	=	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 8.26733 \text{ lb. (Avoir.)} \\ 10.04711 \text{ lb. (Troy)} \end{array} \right\}$	=	3.75000 kilograms
Mommé	=	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0.13228 \text{ oz. (Avoir.)} \\ 0.12057 \text{ oz. (Troy)} \end{array} \right\}$	=	3.75000 grams
Kin=160 mommé	=	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1.32277 \text{ lb. (Avoir.)} \\ 1.60754 \text{ lb. (Troy)} \end{array} \right\}$	=	0.60000 kilogram
Koku (fish)=40 kan				
Metric system,				
Kilogram	=	2.20459 pounds (Avoir.)	=	0.26667 kan
Gram	=	15.43210 grains (Avoir.)	=	0.26667 mommé
Ton	=	1,000 kilograms	=	2,204.6 pounds
Gross ton	=	1,016.064 kilograms	=	2,240 pounds

Measures of Length

Ri=36 cho=2,160 ken	=	2.44030 miles	=	3.92727 kilometers
Ken=6 shaku	=	5.96516 feet	=	1,818.18 meters
Shaku=10 sun	=	0.99419 foot	=	0.30303 meter
Shaku (cloth measure)	=	1.25 shaku		
Tan (a roll of cloth)	=	about 35 shaku		
Metric system,				
Kilometer	=	0.62137 mile	=	3,280 feet 10 inches
	=		=	9.16667 cho

Measures of Surface

Square ri=1,296 cho	=	5.95505 sq. miles	=	15.42347 sq. kilometers
Cho (chobu)=10 tan	=	3,000 tsubo	=	2.45064 acres
Tsubo (bu)	=	3.95369 sq. yards	=	3.30579 centiares
Ko (Formosa)	=	2,934 tsubo		
Metric system,				
Hectare	=	10,000 m ²	=	2.471 acres
Are	=	100 m ²	=	119.6 sq. yards
Sq. kilometer	=	0.386 sq. mile	=	247.10 acres
	=		=	0.06484 sq. ri

Measures of Capacity

Koku=10 to=100 sho=1,000 go	=	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 4.96005 \text{ bushels} \\ 5.11902 \text{ " (U.S.A.)} \\ 47.95389 \text{ gallons (U.S.A.)} \\ 39.6804 \text{ " (British)} \end{array} \right\}$	=	1.80391 hl.
Koku (capacity of vessels)	=	10th of a ton		
Koku (timber)	=	about 1 cubic foot × 10		
Shakujimé (timber)	=	about 1 cubic foot × 12		
Taba (fagot, etc.)	=	about 3 × 6 × 6 feet		
Metric system,				
Hectoliter	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2 \text{ bush., 3.35 pecks (Dry)} \\ 26.42 \text{ gal. (Liquid)} \end{array} \right\}$	=	5.54352 sho	

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MAPS OF JAPAN AND MANCHOUKUO, AND CHINA

IMPERIAL COURT



IMPERIAL COURT

At the heart of the Japanese nation and at the head of the Japanese State is the Emperor,¹ known to the people as the Tenshi, the Son of Heaven, or Tenno, Heavenly King. Though the ancient title Mikado persists in foreign countries, it has lost currency in Japan itself except in poetry or on very formal occasions.

The Imperial Dynasty of Japan is the oldest reigning family in the world, Japanese history dating its earthly origin from 660 B. C. The present Emperor is the 124th of the line.

H.I.M. THE EMPEROR

His Imperial Majesty HIROHITO, Emperor of Japan, 1st son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born in the Aoyama Palace, Tokyo, on April 29, 1901, and shortly afterwards was entrusted for bringing up to the family of Count Kawamura (Sumiyoshi),² a retired Admiral. Upon the Count's death in 1903, the Imperial Prince entered the Imperial Palace, with Marquis Kido (Takamasa) and later Kinsaku Maruo, chamberlain at the Aoyama Palace, in charge of his affairs.

On completion of the elementary course in the Peers' School in 1914, he continued the study of various subjects in a special school instituted for the purpose under Admiral Togo. Ending his special studies in 1921, His Majesty toured Europe, the first Crown Prince to do so.

Because of the Emperor Taisho's illness, he was appointed Regent on November 25, 1921. Marriage to

Princess Nagako took place on January 26, 1924. On the demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25, 1926, he succeeded to the Throne, and the new era was named Shōwa, meaning Light and Peace. Formal enthronement took place in Kyōto on November 10, 1928, and the grand ceremony of making offerings to the Imperial Ancestors was held on November 14 and 15.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS

Her Imperial Majesty NAGAKO, Empress of Japan, was born on March 6, 1903, 3rd child and 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi), in his residence at 1, Roppongi-machi, Azabu-ku, Tokyo. She entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in April 1909, and advanced to the higher course in March 1915. Shortly after becoming Crown Princess-elect on January 17, 1918, she left the Peers' School for Girls and engaged in special study at home. Imperial sanction was given for marriage to the Crown Prince in June of the same year, and their betrothal took place on September 28, 1922. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on the day of the marriage, January 26, 1924, and Empress on December 25, 1926.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS DOWAGER

Her Imperial Majesty SADAHO, the Empress Dowager, was born on June 25, 1884, 4th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michitaka) [Peer]. Her marriage to Crown Prince Yoshihito, later the Emperor Taisho, took place on May 10,

1 For the powers of the Emperor, see Chapter IV, and Articles I—XVII of the Constitution (Appendix).

2 The personal names of members of the Imperial Family and Peers are parenthesized.

1 Prince (Shinno or O) means Prince of the Blood except when the name is followed by the word Peer in brackets, thus [Peer]. For the difference between Shinno and O see the Imperial House Law, Chapter VII, Art. XXXI (Appendix).

1900. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on that day; Empress on July 30, 1912, and Empress Dowager on December 25, 1926.

H.I.H. THE CROWN PRINCE

H.I.H. Prince TSUGU (Akihito) was born on December 23, 1933, and is Heir-Apparent. He entered the elementary department of the Peers' School in April 1940.

OTHER CHILDREN OF THE EMPEROR

H.I.H. Princess TERU (Shigeko) was born on December 6, 1925, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1932, and advanced to the middle school course in 1936.

H.I.H. Princess TAKA (Kazuko) was born on September 30, 1929, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1936.

H.I.H. Princess YORI (Atsuko) was born on March 7, 1931, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1937.

H.I.H. Prince YOSHI (Masahito) was born on November 28, 1935.

H.I.H. Princess SUGA (Takako) was born on March 2, 1939.

BROTHERS OF THE EMPEROR

H.I.H. Prince CHICHIBU (Yasuhiro), Colonel in the Army, was born on June 25, 1902, 2nd son of the late Emperor Taisho. The name Atsu was given to him at first. In 1909, he entered the Peers' School and on completion of the second year of the middle course in 1917 was enrolled in the Central Military Preparatory School. This course he finished in 1920, when he joined the 3rd Infantry Regiment, Azabu-ku, Tokyo, as a first private. Later in the same year, he entered the Military Academy, completing the regular course in 1922.

On attaining his majority in 1922, he took the name Chichibu and by Imperial order founded a new house. He was promoted to the rank of Second Lieutenant, attached to the 3rd Infantry Regiment. After becoming Lieutenant in May 1925, he went abroad, studying at Oxford University until the illness of the Emperor Taisho compelled his return to Japan in January 1927. While in England, he was decorated by the late King George V with the Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order.

Marriage to Miss Setsuko Matsudaira,

born on September 9, 1909, niece of Viscount Morio Matsudaira and 1st daughter of Tsuneko Matsudaira (at present Minister of the Imperial Household), took place on September 28, 1928. The Imperial Prince was promoted to the rank of Captain in 1930 and to that of Major in 1935. After a course in the Military Staff College and a term as Company Commander in the 3rd Infantry Regiment, he was attached to the General Staff, then removed to Hiroaki as Battalion Commander in the 31st Infantry Regiment on August 1, 1935. The Prince and Princess left Yokohama on March 18, for London where they represented the Throne at the Coronation of King George VI of Great Britain, which was held on May 12, 1937, and returned to Tokyo on October 15 by way of Canada. He was promoted to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel in 1939 and Colonel in 1940. His residence is at Omotécho, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H.I.H. Prince TAKAMATSU (Nobuhito), Commander in the Navy, 3rd son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on January 3, 1905. At first he was named Teru. He entered the Peers' School in 1911 and left in 1920 to enroll in the Naval College. On graduation four years later, he was granted the name of Takamatsu and founded a new house to revive that of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, which had become extinct.

In 1925, on appointment as Sub-Lieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy, he was ordered to take up duties aboard the battleship Fuso. Promotion to the rank of Sublieutenant, 1st Class, came in 1927, Lieutenant-Commander in 1935 and Commander in November 1940.

On February 4, 1930, he married Miss Kikuko Tokugawa, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshihisa) [Peer], who was born on December 26, 1911. The mother of the Princess was the 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, whose house Imperial Prince Takamatsu revived. In April of the same year, the Imperial Prince and his consort started on a tour of the world. They returned the courtesies shown by the late King George V of England in sending a mission to Japan to present the Order of the Garter to the Emperor. They returned to Japan in June, 1931, and took up residence in a new house at Takanawa, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

H.I.H. Prince MIKASA (Takahito), Captain in the Army, 4th son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on December 2, 1915, and was named Sumi. He entered the Peers' School in 1922 and left it in 1932 to enter the Military Academy. On graduation from the Academy in June, 1936, he was attached to the 15th Cavalry Regiment, then entered the Military Staff College in December 1940. On attaining his majority in 1935, he was granted the name of Mikasa and founded a new house. The residence is the Aoyama Higashi Palace located in the grounds of the Aoyama Palace.

OTHER PRINCES

KAN-IN. The present and 6th head of the House is H.I.H. Prince Kan-in (Kotohito), Field Marshal, who was born on November 10, 1865, the 16th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kunlié), and adopted in 1867 by the Emperor Komei, the immediate predecessor of the Emperor Meiji. Ordered to France in 1882 for military studies, he remained there until 1891. After participation in the wars with China and Russia, his rise in the Army was rapid, and in 1912 he was appointed General and member of the High Military Council. In 1916, he was ordered to Russia for returning courtesies to the Russian Grand Duke's visit. The Imperial Prince became a Field Marshal in 1919, accompanied the Crown Prince to Europe in 1921 and headed the commission in charge of the Enthronement in 1928. In December, 1931, he was appointed Chief of the General Staff and remained in the office until October 1940.

His consort, H.I.H. Princess Kan-in (Chieko), whom he married in 1891, was born on June 30, 1872, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Sanjo (Sanetomi) [Peer].

The heir is H.I.H. Prince Kan-in (Haruhito), Lieutenant-Colonel in the Army, the 2nd son, who was born on August 3, 1902. He was graduated from the Odawara Middle School in 1921, appointed Lieutenant in 1927, promoted to the rank of Captain in 1932 and in the same year, following a course in the Military Staff College, appointed a member of the Faculty of the Cavalry School. On July 14, 1926, he married Princess Ichijo (Naoko), 4th daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Sanetaru) [Peer], who was born on November 7, 1908.

The House of Kan-in was founded in

1718 by Prince Naohito, a son of the Emperor Higashiyama. The residence is at Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-FUSHIMI. H.I.H. Princess Higashi-Fushimi (Kaneko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Higashi-Fushimi (Yorihito), was born on August 21, 1876, 1st daughter of the late Prince Iwakura (Tomosada) [Peer]. The residence is at Tokiwamatsu-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

FUSHIMI. The 23rd head of the House is H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu), Admiral of the Fleet, who was born on October 16, 1875, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Sadamaru). Ordered to Germany in 1889, he studied there for five years. He was appointed Admiral in 1922, a member of the High Military Council in 1925, Chief of the Naval General Staff in February 1932, Admiral of the Fleet in April of the same year, and left the Naval General Staff office in April 1941.

The consort of the late first son, Tokiko, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Sanetaru) [Peer], was born on June 20, 1902. Their 1st son H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroaki), was born on January 26, 1932. Their first daughter, H.I.H. Princess Fushimi (Mitsuko), was born on July 28, 1929. The third daughter, H.I.H. Princess Fushimi (Ayako) was born on February 11, 1934.

The House of Fushimi was founded by a great-grandchild of the Emperor Gofushimi. The residence is at Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

YAMASHINA. The 3rd head of the House, H.I.H. Prince Yamashina (Takehiko), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy (1st reserve service), was born on February 13, 1898, 1st son of the late Prince Yamashina (Kikumaro). His residence is at Fujimi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The House of Yamashina was founded in 1864 by the late Prince Yamashina (Akira), 1st son of H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Kunlié), who had earlier entered the priesthood and taken the name Kan-shuji.

KAYA. The 2nd head of the House, H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Tsunenori), Major-General, was born on January 27, 1900, 1st son of the founder, the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori). He was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Cavalry in

1920 and Major-General in 1940 and a member of the Faculty of the Staff College. On March 9, 1934, he left Tokyo, with his consort, for a tour round the world and returned to Tokyo on September 18 of the same year.

On May 3, 1921, he married Toshiko, who was born on May 16, 1903, 5th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michizané) [Peer]. They have six children: H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Kuninaga), born on April 21, 1922; H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Harunori), born on July 3, 1926; H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Akinori), born on August 17, 1929; H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Fuminori), born on July 12, 1931, H.I.H. Prince Kaya (Munenori), born on November 24, 1935 and H.I.H. Princess Kaya (Michiko), born on July 29, 1923.

H.I.H. Princess Kaya (Yoshiko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Kaya (Kuninori), was born on December 7, 1865, 1st daughter of the late Marquis Daigo (Tadayori).

The House of Kaya was founded in 1892 by the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori), 2nd son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). The residence is at Sanban-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

KUNI. H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Asahiko), Commander in the Navy, 3rd of the line, was born on February 2, 1901, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi). His consort, H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Tomoko), whom he married on January 26, 1925, was born on May 18, 1907, 3rd daughter of H.I.H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu). They have six children: H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Kuniki), born on March 25, 1929; H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Masako), born on December 8, 1926; H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Asako), born on October 23, 1927; the third daughter, H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Michiko) was born on September 4, 1933; the fourth daughter H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Hidoko) was born on July 21, 1937, and H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Asataké) was born on May 11, 1940.

H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Chikako) consort of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi), mother of H.I.M. the Empress, was born on October 19, 1879, 7th daughter of the late Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer].

H.I.H. Princess Kuni (Shizuko), consort of the late Prince Kuni (Taka) was born on September 25, 1884, 1st daughter of the late Viscount Minasé (Taka-suké). There are two children remaining: H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Iehiko), born

on March 17, 1920; and H.I.H. Prince Kuni (Norihiko), born on November 19, 1922.

The House of Kuni was founded in 1875 by the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko), 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kunilé). The residence is at Miyashiro-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

NASHIMOTO. H.I.H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa), Field Marshal, and Chief Priest of the Grand Shrines of Isé, was born on March 9, 1874, 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko); ordered to inherit the Nashimotos, December 2, 1885; entered Central Military Preparatory School, 1886; graduated from Military Academy, May 27, 1898; Second Lieutenant, January 1899; Captain, March 1901; sent to Europe for study, 1903; returned home and immediately sent to the front in the Russo-Japanese War, 1904; again in Europe for study, August 1906—July 1909; Lieutenant-General and Commander of the 16th Division, August 1917; High Military Councillor, November 1919; General, August 1923; Field Marshal, August 8, 1932; appointed Chief Priest of the Grand Shrines of Isé, October 1937.

His consort, H.I.H. Princess Nashimoto (Itsuko), whom he married on November 28, 1900, was born on February 2, 1882, 2nd daughter of the late Marquis Nabeshima (Naohiro). The residence is at Mitaké-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

ASAKA. H.I.H. Prince Asaka (Yasuhiko), General, was born on October 2, 1887, 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Asaka in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army in 1908, studied in Europe from 1922 to 1925 and is now a member of the High Military Council. The Prince was promoted to the rank of General in August 1939.

There are two children: H.I.H. Prince Asaka (Takahiko), Captain in the Army, 1st son, born on October 8, 1912, and married Chikako, 5th daughter of Count Tōdō (Takatsugu) on December 16, 1938; and H.I.H. Princess Asaka (Kiyoko), 2nd daughter, born on August 2, 1919. The residence is at Shirokané Dai-machi, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-KUNI. H.I.H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Naruhiko), General, was born on

December 3, 1887, 9th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Higashi-Kuni in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Infantry in 1908, studied in France from 1920 to 1927, was given command of the 3rd Infantry Regiment of the Imperial Guard Division in 1928, was promoted to command of the Nagoya Brigade in 1930, Commander of the Fourth Division in 1934; High Military Councillor, 1935, Head of the Military Aviation Bureau, 1937, and again High Military Councillor, 1939. The Prince was promoted to the rank of General in August 1939.

H.I.H. Princess Higashi-Kuni (Toshiko), his consort, whom he married on May 18, 1915, was born on May 11, 1896, 9th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. There are two sons remaining in the House: H.I.H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Morihiro), Captain in the Army, 1st son, born on May 6, 1916; and H.I.H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Toshihiko), 4th son, born on March 24, 1920. The residence is at Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo.

KITASHIRAKAWA. H.I.H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Nagahisa), died in Mongolia on September 4, 1940. His consort, H.I.H. Princess Sachiko, whom he married on April 26, 1935, was born on August 26, 1916, second daughter of Baron Yoshikuni Tokugawa. H.I.H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Michihisa), their first son, was born on May 2, 1937. H.I.H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Hatsuko), their first daughter, was born on November 13, 1939.

H.I.H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Fusako), consort of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), 3rd of the line, was born on January 28, 1890, 7th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. One of her three daughters remains in the House: H.I.H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Taeko), 3rd daughter, born on April 15, 1920.

The House of Kitashirakawa was founded in 1870 by the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Tomonari), 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kunilé). The residence is at Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

TAKEDA. H.I.H. Prince Takéda (Tsunéyoshi), Major in the Army, 2nd of the line, was born on March 4, 1909, only son of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa). He married Miss Mitsuko, 2nd daughter of Prince Sanjo (Kintéru) [Peer], on May 12, 1934. H.I.H.

Prince Takéda (Tsunétada), their first son, was born on October 11, 1940.

The House of Takéda was founded in 1906 by Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa), 1st son of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa). The residence is at Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

Royalty of Chosen

Treatment equal to that accorded members of the Imperial House is given to those of the Royal House of Chosen, and a Civil List of ¥1,800,000 for their maintenance is included in the budget of the Chosen Government-General.

H.H. Prince Ri* (Gin), Lieutenant-General, head of the House of Shotoku-kyu since the death in 1926 of his brother, Prince Ri (Séki), former Emperor, was born on October 20, 1897, 7th son of the late Grand Prince Ri (Kel). He studied at the Peers' School in Tokyo and the Military Academy in preparation for a military career. He was promoted to the rank of Major-General in July 1938, and Lieutenant-General in December 1940.

H.H. Princess Ri (Masako), whom the Prince married in 1920, was born on November 4, 1901, 1st daughter of H.I.H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa). On promotion to the rank of Captain in 1923, the Prince was attached for a time to the Headquarters of the General Staff and in 1927-28 he and Princess Ri made a year's tour of Europe. They have a son Ri (Kyu) who was born on December 29, 1931.

H.H. Princess In, consort of the late Prince Ri (Séki), was born on September 19, 1894, 1st daughter of Marquis In Taku-éi.

In Keijo, the capital of Chosen, the residence of this branch of the Royal House of Chosen is the Garyudo, and in Tokyo its residence is at Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku.

H.H. Prince Ri (Ken), Major in the Army, heir of the retired Prince Ri (Ko), was born on October 28, 1909. On graduation from the Military Academy in 1930, he was appointed Lieutenant in the Cavalry, Captain in 1936, and Major in 1940.

H.H. Princess Ri (Yoshiko), whom Prince Ri (Ken) married in 1931, was born on October 6, 1911, 1st daughter

* The house name of the Chosen Royalty is pronounced "Yi" in Chosen, but here it is given as "Ri" according to Japanese pronunciation.

of Yutaka Matsudaira, of the house of Count Hirohashi. Their first son, Ri (Chu), was born on August 14, 1932, second son Ri (Ki) on March 4, 1935, and the first daughter Ri (Haruko) on December 19, 1938.

H.H. Prince Ri (Ko), 5th son of the late Grand Prince Ri (Kel), father of Prince Ri (Ken), was born on March 30, 1877. His consort, H.H. Princess Kin, whom he married in 1893, was born on December 22, 1880, 1st daughter of the late Baron Kin Shi-éi.

H.H. Prince Ri (Gu), Captain in the Army, 2nd son of Prince Ri (Ko), was born on November 15, 1912, and in 1917 was made successor to the late Prince Ri (Shun), who had died heirless.

H.H. Princess Ri (Sanshu), whom Prince Ri (Gu) married on May 3, 1935,

Name	Princely Father	Year of Change
Marquis Komatsu (Téruhisa)	Late Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1910
Marquis Yamashina (Yoshimaro)	" Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1920
Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1926
Marquis Tsukuba (Fujimaro)	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1928
Count Katsuragi (Shigémaro)	" " " "	1929
Count Higashi-Fushimi (Kunihidé)	" Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	1931
Marquis Otowa (Tadahiko)	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	1936
Count Fushimi (Hirohidé)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1936
Marquis Awata (Akitsuné)	Higashikuni (Naruhiko)	1940

Former Princesses

The following table shows Princesses of the Imperial Family and the Royal

House of Chosen who have married into the families of Peers:

Name	Princely Father	Consort	Year of Marriage
Ayako	Late Kuni (Asahiko)	Late Viscount Takénouchi (Korétada)	1892
Elko	" " "	Viscount Higashizono (Motoharu)	1899
Telko	" Fushimi (Sadamaru)	Marquis Yama-uchi (Toyokagé)	1901
Sadako	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Count Arima (Yoriyasu)	1903
Mitsuko	" " "	Count Kanroji (Osanaga)	1904
Suzuko	" Kuni (Asahiko)	Count Mibu (Motoyoshi)	1906
Takéko	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Viscount Hoshina (Masaaki)	1911
Shigéko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Marquis Kuroda (Nagamichi)	1914
Yukiko	Late Kaya (Kuninori)	Machijiri (Kazumoto)	1915
Hiroko	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	heir of Viscount Count Futara (Yoshinori)	1915
Yukiko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Viscount Ando (Nobuaki)	1915
Yasuko	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	Asano (Nagataké), heir of Marquis	1920
Satoko	" Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	Count Otani (Kocho)	1924
Nobuko	" " "	Sanjō-nishi (Kin-osa),	1924
Noriko	Nashimoto (Morimasa)	heir of Viscount Count Hirohashi (Tadamitsu)	1926
Hanako	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	1926
Tokuko	Late Ri (Kel)	Count So (Takéyuki)	1931
Kikuko	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	Nabeshima (Naoyasu),	1931
Minéko	Late Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	heir of Marquis Taichibana (Tanékatsumi),	1933
		heir of Viscount	

was born on November 11, 1914, granddaughter of Marquis Boku El-ko. They have two sons, Prince Ri (Sei) who was born on April 23, 1936, and Prince Ri (So) who was born on November 9, 1940.

H.H. Princess Ri, consort of the late Prince Ri (Ki), was born on July 10, 1883.

H.H. Princess Kin, consort of the late Prince Ri (Shun), was born on July 8, 1878, 1st daughter of Kin Zai-tel.

Former Princes

In accordance with the Imperial Household Law, Princes of the Imperial Family may be created peers, either by order of the Emperor or by petition, with family names to be granted by the Emperor. The following table shows those living who have renounced membership in the Imperial Family:

Name	Princely Father	Consort	Year of Marriage
Ayako	Late Takéda (Tsunéhisa)	Sano (Tsunémitsu), heir of Count In (Gen-zen)	1934
Shinén	" Ri (Shun)	Viscount Higashizono (Motobumi)	1935
Sawako	" Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Prince Niho (Sukémoto) [Peer]	1939
Kuniko	" Kuni (Taka)		

Palaces, Gardens, etc.

Imperial Palace. The residence of the Emperor covers an area of about 531 acres in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo. Originally built in 1457 by a feudal chieftain, Dokan Ota, who named it Yédo Castle, it became the headquarters of the Tokugawa Shogunate in the 16th century and was greatly extended. With the transfer of the capital from Kyoto to Tokyo in 1869, the second year of the Meiji Restoration, it was selected as the Imperial Residence and renamed Tokyo Castle. Much of it was destroyed in the great fire of 1873. The present palace, built between 1880 and 1888, cost ¥3,068,000. On completion, the name was changed to Kyūjō, or Imperial Palace.

Other Palaces (1) Kyoto Palace. Situated in Kamikyo-ku, Kyoto, it was the Imperial Residence for 1,075 years, from 794 A. D., when the capital was moved from Nara to Kyoto, until 1869, when the seat of government was transferred to Tokyo. In accordance with the Accession Law, the ceremony of ascension to the Throne is always held here. The grounds cover about 220 acres.

(2) Aoyama Palace. Situated in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, the palace was formerly the residence of the Lord of Tamba, but in 1873 the late Empress Dowager Elsho made it her home. Within its grounds is the residence of the Imperial Prince Mikasa.

(3) Oniya Palace. Also within the grounds of the Aoyama Palace, it is the residence of the Empress Dowager, mother of the reigning Emperor.

(4) Shinjuku Imperial Garden. At Naito-Shinjuku-machi, Yotsuya-ku, Tokyo, the garden was originally the site of the residence of the Lord of Takato, Nagano Prefecture, but in 1870 it came under the control of the Imperial Household Ministry and in 1906 was given its present name. Here are held the spring and autumn Imperial garden parties.

(5) Akasaka Detached Palace. On part of the former property of the Lord of Kai, in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, it was made a detached palace in 1872 and became a temporary residence of the Imperial Family from 1873 to 1880 during

the construction of the present Imperial palace. Royal and princely visitors from abroad are guests here while in Tokyo.

(6) Hama Detached Palace. Situated in Tsukiji, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo, its grounds were used by the Shoguns in feudal times for falconry and are now the scene of Imperial duck-hunting parties.

(7) Kasumigaséki Detached Palace. Formerly the residence of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, it is located behind the Foreign Office in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

(8) Katsura Detached Palace. Located at Katsura, Ukyo-ku, Kyoto, it was formerly the residence of Prince Katsura [Katsura-no-miya] and became a detached palace in 1883.

(9) Shugakuin Detached Palace. Widely known for its beautiful garden, it was built by the Tokugawa Shogunate in the reign of the Emperor Gomzuno-ô at what is now Shugakuin, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto, and was made a detached palace in 1883.

(10) Hakoné Detached Palace. On Lake Ashi in the Hakoné region, it was seriously damaged in the 1923 earthquake and has been left unrepared.

(11) Muko Detached Palace. At Suma, Kobé, it became a detached palace in 1908.

(12) Hayama Imperial Villa. Because of its proximity to Tokyo, at Hayama-machi, Kanagawa prefecture, it is a favorite retreat, especially in the winter. Here the Emperor Taisho died in 1926.

(13) Isé Detached Palace. It is located at Doai, Mie Prefecture, specially built for Imperial use on the occasions of His visits to the Grand Shrines of Isé.

(14) Tatéishi Rest-House. It is located at Nishiura-mura, Miura-gun, Kanagawa prefecture.

(15) Numazu Imperial Villa. The palace is at Agehara-machi, Numazu, on Suruga Bay, Shizuoka prefecture.

(16) Nikko Imperial Villa. Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture, is the location.

(17) Tamozawa Imperial Villa. This also is at Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture.

(18) Shlobara Imperial Villa. The palace is at Shlobara-machi, Tochigi prefecture, a district noted for its maples.

(19) Ikao Imperial Estate. This estate or preserve is at Ikao-machi, a mountain resort in Gunma prefecture.

(20) Nasu Imperial Villa. Mountain views are the main attraction of Nasu-mura, Nasu-gun, Tochigi prefecture, where the palace is situated.

(21) Nagara River Preserve. This preserve for ayu lies in Gujo-gun, Mugl-gun and Inaba-gun, Gifu prefecture.

(22) Yédo River Preserve. There are two parts, one in Higashi-Katsushika-gun, Chiba prefecture, and the other in Minami-Saitama-gun and Kita-Katsushika-gun, Saitama prefecture. The preserve abounds in water-hens, herons, snipes, quails, white swans, wild geese, ducks, plovers, pheasants, water-rails, etc.

(23) Jintsu River Preserve. This preserve for trout, salmon and other fish is located in Nei-gun and Kami-Nikawa-gun, Toyama prefecture.

Imperial Household Finance

The Civil List is appropriated by the National Treasury and no approval of the Diet is necessary except when an increase in amount is required. At present, it amounts to ¥4,500,000. The Board of Imperial Auditors is located in the Imperial Household Ministry and its present Director-General is Mr. Michio Kinoshita. Baron Ikki and Count Makino are financial advisers to the Imperial Household.

The total Imperial Household expenditure is estimated at approximately ¥20,000,000 annually and is met by the Civil List, and by receipts from the Imperial forests, Imperial estates and other Imperial property.

The area of the land possessed by the Imperial House was 1,307,652 cho in 1938, details being as follows:

	Area in "cho"
Palace grounds	714
Woodlands	1,262,998
Farms	39,391
House-lots	226
Miscellaneous	4,323
Total	1,307,652

The Naidaijin-fu

The Naidaijin, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, who has been so called from olden times, is a dignitary of the

Imperial Household with the function of keeping the Imperial and State Seals and of administering matters regarding Imperial decrees and documents of the Imperial Household. He is a State functionary of the Shinnin rank, or one appointed directly by the Emperor, and is assisted by three secretaries.

Present Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals is Marquis Kōichi Kido.

The Imperial Household Ministry

The Imperial Household Ministry is divided into eleven principal subsidiary offices, namely, the Secretariat of the Minister, the Board of Chamberlains, the Board of Ceremonies, the Imperial Family and Peerage Board, the Imperial Mausolea Bureau, the Imperial Archives Bureau, the Court Physicians Bureau, the Bureau of the Imperial Table, the Imperial Treasury Bureau, the Maintenance and Works Bureau, and the Imperial Stables Bureau, and is charged with the conduct of affairs pertaining to the Imperial Household. There are, in addition to those above mentioned, such other institutions as are mentioned below coming under the supervision of the Minister of the Imperial Household:

- The Office of H. I. M. the Empress' Household,
- The Office of H. I. M. the Empress Dowager's Household,
- The Board of the Imperial Auditors,
- The Imperial Forests and Estates Board,
- The Imperial Poetry Bureau,
- The Imperial Museums (at Tokyo and Nara),
- The Peers' School,
- The Peers' School for Girls,
- The Temporary Board for the Compilation of the History of the Emperor Meiji.
- The Kyoto-Office of the Imperial Household.

Since 1884, it has been placed outside the pale of the administrative system, so that the Minister is in no way affected by any Cabinet change.

The present and preceding Ministers of the Imperial Household Ministry are:

Name	Time of Appointment
Prince Hirobumi Ito	Dec., 1885
Marquis Hisamoto Hijikata	Sept., 1887
Viscount Mitsuaki Tanaka	Feb., 1898

Name	Time of Appointment
Prince Tomosada Iwakura	June, 1909
Viscount Chiaki Watanabé	April, 1910
Baron Takatada Hatano	April, 1914
Baron Yujiro Nakamura	June, 1920
Count Nobuaki Makino	Feb., 1921
Baron Kitokuro Ikki	Mar., 1925
Kurahéi Yuasa	Mar., 1933
Tsunéo Matsudaira	Mar., 1930

The Privy Council

The Privy Council is a consultative body to advise the Emperor on questions of grave importance. In regard to its organization and function see "the Privy Council" in Chapter IV, Government. The present and preceding presidents of the Privy Council are given below:

Name	Year of Appointment
Count Hirobumi Ito	1888
Count Takato Ohki	1889
Count Hirobumi Ito	1891
Count Takato Ohki	1892
Count Aritomo Yamagata	1893
Count Kiyotaka Kuroda	1895
Marquis Kinmochi Satonji	1900
Marquis Hirobumi Ito	1903
Marquis Aritomo Yamagata	1905
Prince Hirobumi Ito	1909
Viscount Keigo Kiyoura	1909
Viscount Arata Hamao	1922
Baron Nobushigé Hozumi	1924
Dr. Yuzaburo Kuratomi	1925
Baron Kitokuro Ikki	1926
Baron Kichiro Hiranuma	1934
Prince Fumimaro Konoe	1936
Dr. Yoshimichi Hara	1938

The Peerage

The modern system of the Peerage, with its five grades of Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount and Baron, dates from 1884, but prior to this there was a well-established aristocracy. Up to the time of the Meiji Restoration, there were two groups, the Court Nobles, called Kugé, most of whom were descendants of younger sons of Emperors, and the Feudal Lords, called Daimyo or Tonosama, most of whom had attained their standing through military prowess. With the Restoration, these were amalgamated under the name of Kwazoku (Peerage). In 1884, an Imperial edict was issued establishing the five grades of the present Peerage, and to the members of the Kwazoku, were added subjects who had assisted in the work of the Restoration.

In the first list there were 11 Princes, 24 Marquises, 76 Counts, 376 Viscounts and 382 Barons.

When Chosen was annexed in 1910, 76 Chosenese of distinction were selected to become Peers, 6 Marquises, 3 Counts, 22 Viscounts and 45 Barons.

The families of the Peerage stood as follows at the end of 1938:

Grade	Number of Families
Prince	19
Marquis	48
Count	111
Viscount	390
Baron	434
Total	1,002

Decorations

To recognize and reward persons who render distinguished and meritorious services to the State, orders of merit and decorations were created in 1875 and supplemented in later years. The orders of merit, of which there are nine—the Grand Order and numerical orders from 1st to 8th—are only nominal and serve to indicate the class of decoration to which a holder is entitled. The decorations themselves are of 9 kinds:

Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum.

There are two kinds, the Collar of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum and the Grand Cordon of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum, both reserved for those given the Grand Order of Merit. The first, the highest Japanese decoration, is a gold chain or collar from which is hung a small badge representing a chrysanthemum, to which is fastened a large sunburst flanked with chrysanthemum flowers and leaves. The second is marked by the same badges, worn at lower left side at the bottom of a cordon or ribbon of red with purple edges hung from the right shoulder.

Rising Sun and Paulownia. This is a single decoration, combining the devices of two lesser orders, known as the Grand Cordon of the Imperial Order of the Rising Sun with Paulownia Flowers which is awarded only to holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit. From a cordon of red with two white stripes, worn over the right shoulder, resting on lower left side, are suspended a small badge showing paulownia

flowers and leaves and a larger badge, below it, of a double-rayed rising sun flanked with paulownia flowers.

Rising Sun. There are six classes, from the Grand Cordon of the Rising Sun, to which holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit are eligible, to the 6th Class Order of the Rising Sun, which holders of the 6th Class Order of Merit may receive.

Paulownia. Two classes exist, sometimes referred to as the 7th and 8th classes of the Order of the Rising Sun. The Order of the Blue Paulownia is for holders of the 7th Order of Merit, and the Order of the White Paulownia for holders of the 8th Class Order of Merit.

Sacred Treasure. Known as the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure. Of this order there are eight classes. The badge represents the Mirror and Gem of the Imperial Regalia, and the cordon is of light blue with two orange stripes.

Sacred Crown. Its full name is the Imperial Order of the Sacred Crown. The eight classes of this order are bestowed on women only, who were barred from receiving any other decoration until 1919, when they were also made eligible for the Order of the Sacred Treasure. The badge shows the Sacred Crown, with cherry blossoms and bamboo, and the cordon is of yellow with two scarlet stripes.

Golden Kite. Purely a military order, known as the Imperial Military Order of the Golden Kite, this has seven classes. The cordon is green with two white stripes. It carries a life annuity, fixed in 1916 at ¥1,500 for the 1st Class; ¥1,000, 2nd Class; ¥700, 3rd Class; ¥500, 4th Class; ¥350, 5th Class; ¥250, 6th Class, and ¥150, 7th Class. This is granted to the family for one year following the recipient's death, and, if he has died within five years of being decorated, until the end of that period.

Cultural Decoration. Creation of the cultural order to be awarded to those who have made outstanding contributions to science, arts, literature or other fields of culture was announced on February 11, 1937. There are no grades

or classes in the decoration. The device consists of three replicas of the Sacred Jewels, symbolizing philanthropy and virtue, placed in the centre of a white tachibana blossom (a kind of mandarin orange, Citrus tachibana Tanaka), and the decoration is suspended from a light purple ribbon worn around the collar.

Ribands of Honor. The Red Riband is conferred on persons who risk their lives in rescuing others; the Green Riband on those who distinguish themselves for filial piety, feminine virtues, devotion to the aged and loyalty to masters; the Blue Riband on those who aid public and private undertakings by important discoveries or inventions; the Dark Navy Blue Riband on those who contribute money or property for public welfare; and the Yellow Riband, divided into two classes, gold and silver, on persons who help undertakings connected with coast defense.

Holders of any decorations who are sentenced to death, penal servitude or imprisonment for more than three years are deprived of decorations, accompanying diplomas and, if any, annuities. They may also be ordered to surrender them if guilty of acts of dishonour, depending on the circumstances.

Court Rank

Court rank is specially conferred on persons who distinguish themselves in service to the State, peers and their heirs, officials and army and navy officers. There are 16 grades, from the senior grade of the first rank to the junior grade of the eighth rank, and all affairs pertaining to them are administered by the Imperial Family and Peerage Board in the Imperial Household Ministry in accordance with the Court Rank Act, promulgated in 1926.

There were 327,532 holders of Court rank at the end of 1939, divided as follows:

	Senior	Junior
First	—	—
Second	26	76
Third	546	1,019
Fourth	2,325	6,010
Fifth	11,307	14,589
Sixth	17,500	23,023
Seventh	46,303	101,046
Eighth	101,584	2,118

Stick Granted to the Aged

In the 12th century, Toshihara Fujiwara, a Court noble, was granted on the celebration of his 90th birthday a stick for use at Court by the Emperor Gotoba. This honor, known as Kyuchuzue or Hatozue because the stick has a pigeon top, is today bestowed on Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank who have attained the age of 80 in recognition of signal service to the Court and the State, though it is marked by a monetary gift in lieu of an actual stick. Living holders follow:

Count Kiyoura (Keigo)
Baron Kuratomi (Yuzaburo)
Count Kaneko (Kentaro)
Baron Yamamoto (Tatsuo)
Baron Uchiyama (Kojiro)
General Shiba (Goro)
Count Makino (Nobunki)
Admiral Arima (Ryokitsu)
Dr. Mano (Bunji)
Lieut-General Oshima (Kenichi)

Court Artists

For the promotion and encouragement of fine arts, representative artists are chosen by a special committee in the Court and their appointment as Court artists is made by the Minister of the Imperial Household. The artists may produce objects of art for the Court or present opinions upon Imperial enquiries on questions pertaining to arts. The present Court artists are as follows:

Sculptor	Choun Yamazaki
Painters	Seiho Takéuchi
	Gyokudo Kawai
	Taikan Yokoyama
	Yukihiko Yasuda
	Kansetsu Hashimoto
	Keigetsu Kikuchi
	Eisaku Wada
	Takéji Fujishima
Metal Carver	Kamezo Shimizu
Metal Worker	Shushin Katori
Ceramist	Hazan Itaya

State Funerals

The Imperial Ordinance for State Funeral was issued in 1926. According to the Ordinance, the State Funeral is held with distinguished rituals, its expenses being borne by the National Treasury. There are two kinds of State

Funeral, i.e. the one for Imperial Personages and the other for the subjects. The former is still divided into two kinds; the first is called the Grand Funeral and is for the Emperor, the Great Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and the Empress, while the second is called the Imperial Funeral and is for the Crown Prince, the Crown Princess, the Emperor's grandson and his consort, the Regent Imperial Prince or Emperor's daughters or children. Both the Grand and Imperial Funeral services are conducted with special rituals according to the Provisions of the Imperial House Funeral Ordinance.

The State Funeral for the subjects is held in honor of those who rendered distinguished services to the country by the special order of the Emperor and the ritual and order of the Funeral is fixed by the Premier with the Imperial sanction.

State Funerals have been accorded to the following since the beginning of the Meiji Era:

Okubo (Toshimichi)	1869
Prince Iwakura (Tomomi)	[Peer] 1883
Prince Shimazu (Hisamitsu)	[Peer] 1887
Prince Sanjo (Sanetomi)	[Peer] 1891
Prince Arisugawa (Taruhito)	1895
Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1895
Prince Mori (Motonori)	[Peer] 1896
Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi)	[Peer] 1897
Prince Komatsu (Akihiko)	1903
Prince Ito (Hirobumi)	[Peer] 1909
Prince Arisugawa (Takéhito)	1913
Prince Oyama (Iwao)	[Peer] 1916
Grand Prince Ri (Kei)	1919
Prince Yamagata (Aritomo)	[Peer] 1922
Prince Fushimi (Sadanaru)	1923
Marquis Matsukata (Masayoshi)	1924
Prince Ri (Seki)	1926
Marquis Togo (Héihachiro)	1934
Prince Salonji (Kimmochi)	[Peer] 1940

Imperial Interest in Social Work

On various occasions of great importance in the Imperial Household, grants of money are made from the Privy Purse for social welfare, instances of which follow:

Year	Occasion	Purpose or Recipient	Amount in Yen
1897	Empress Dowager Eisho's Funeral—Charity		400,000
1912	Emperor Meiji's Funeral—Charity		1,000,000
1914	Empress Dowager Shoken's Funeral—Charity		600,000
1915	Emperor Taisho's Enthronement—Charity		1,000,000
1924	Prince Regent's Wedding—Promotion of social work —Encouragement for the poor to send children to school		1,000,000
1925	Emperor Taisho's Silver Wedding —Young Men's and Women's Ass'ns —Cultural bodies in the Territories		750,000 250,000
1927	Emperor Taisho's Funeral—Charity		1,500,000
1928	Demise of Princess Hisa, the Emperor's daughter —Protection of the young		50,000
1929	Emperor's Enthronement—Charity		1,500,000
1934	Birth of the Crown Prince, Akihito —Protection of mothers and the young		750,000

Since 1879, it has been the custom of the Imperial House to make monetary contributions when there are floods, fires, railway accidents, violent winds, shipwrecks, earthquakes, famines, volcanic eruptions, mine explosions, etc. Immediately after the great earthquake and fire of 1923, a grant of ¥10,000,000 was made for relief.

A fund of ¥1,500,000 in 1911 for extension of medical treatment to the poor was used to found the Saisai-kai, the Imperial Charity Association. Additional money for this work was included in the grant of ¥3,000,000 in 1932 for relief of the poor, and it was extended to overseas territories by a grant of ¥300,000 to the Overseas Ministry.

With the ¥1,000,000 granted on the occasion of the wedding of the present Emperor was established the Kéifukukai, Beatitude Association, for promotion of social work done by private bodies.

On every Kigensetsu, the anniversary of the foundation of the Empire, which takes place on February 11, Imperial grants are made to public and private social welfare organizations, the number of which now reaches over 800.

In 1932, a grant of ¥1,500,000 was made to the Association for the Promotion of Learning through the Education Minister.

The Empress Dowager is particularly interested in the relief of lepers and in 1930 granted funds to all bodies engaged in this work.

In April 1939, H.I.M. the Empress granted funds to the sum of ¥500,000 for the prevention of tuberculosis and treatment of the patients.

Court Rituals

GRAND RITUALS. The Grand Rituals are those conducted by the

Emperor personally, with Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank in attendance. Brief descriptions follow:

Genshisai, the celebration of the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is performed on January 3 by the Emperor at the Three Shrines in the grounds of the Imperial Palace, the Kashikodokoro, where the Sacred Mirror is installed, the Koréiden, the shrine of the Imperial Ancestors, and the Shinden, the sanctuary of Shinto deities.

Kigensetsusai, to celebrate the ascension to the Throne of the Emperor Jimmu, is performed by the Emperor at the Three Shrines on February 11. In the evening sacred music and dances are given in a pavilion in front of the Koréiden.

Shunki-Koréisai, for the worship of preceding Emperors and Empresses and Princes and Princesses of Imperial lineage, takes place in the Koréiden on the day of the vernal equinox.

Shunki-Shindensai, performed on the same day in the Shinden, is to offer thanks to the Gods of Heaven and Earth for their blessings and to petition for their continuance.

Jimmu-Tennosai, which takes place in the Koréiden, marks the anniversary of the demise of the founder of the country, the Emperor Jimmu, on April 3. To his mausoleum is dispatched on the same day a Court official representing the Emperor to make offerings. At fixed intervals, the Emperor personally conducts the rite at the mausoleum.

Shunki-Koréisai and Shunki-Shindensai are identical in form and purpose with

the vernal equinox rituals but take place on the day of the autumn equinox.

Kannamé-no-Matsuri, the ritual of offering thanks for the harvest and new rice to the soul of the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, which takes place in the Grand Shrines of Isé on October 16 and 17, is duplicated in the Kashikodokoro at the Imperial Palace on October 17.

Ninamé-no-Matsuri, conducted between November 23 and 24, is marked by the Emperor partaking of new rice after offering it to the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, and all the Gods of Heaven and Earth. The same ritual, when performed at the Emperor's enthronement, is called Daijo-sai.

Taisho-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Taisho, H.I.M. the Emperor's father, and is celebrated in the Koréiden on December 25. In the evening, sacred music and dances are performed in a pavilion in front of the shrine. A court official representing the Emperor is sent on the same day to the mausoleum of the Emperor Taisho to make offerings, a rite which the Emperor himself performs at fixed intervals.

ORDINARY RITUALS. These are Court rituals which the Emperor does not conduct personally, but which he attends with the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank.

Saitansai, held at dawn on January 1 at the Three Shrines, is for worship of the Imperial Ancestors and the Gods, offering thanks to them for the grace of Heaven and supplicating for its continuance.

Komei-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Komei, great-grandfather of H.I.M. the Emperor, and is held in the Koréiden on January 30. The rite of presenting offerings at his mausoleum is performed on the same day.

Kinensai, held on February 17 in the Three Shrines, is the ritual of praying for a bountiful harvest and for the continued prosperity and well-being of the Imperial House and the nation. A Court official representing the Emperor is dispatched on the same day to the Grand Shrines of Isé to make offerings, and offerings are also presented at various other shrines.

Ninko-Tennosai, marking the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Ninko, great-great-grandfather of H.I.M. the Emperor, is performed on February 21 in the Koréiden. Offerings are made and a ritual conducted at his mausoleum on the same day.

Tenchosetsusai, held in the Three Shrines on April 29, the birthday of H.I.M. the Emperor, is the ritual of praying for the longevity of His Majesty.

Meiji-Tennosai is observed in the Koréiden on July 30 to mark the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Meiji, grandfather of H.I.M. the Emperor. Offerings are made and a ritual performed at his mausoleum on the same day.

Meijisetsusai is held on November 3 to praise the great achievements of the Emperor Meiji, to remember his high virtues, to invigorate and develop the spirit of the national revival in the Meiji Era and to pray for increased national prosperity.

Kashikodokoro-Mikagura, a sacred dance, is held in the Kashikodokoro in the middle of December. As no definite date is fixed, an auspicious day is named every year by Imperial order.

OTHER RITUALS. The Imperial Court also observes several rituals not specified in the Court Ritual Act:

Shunsai, Tenth-day Ceremony, is held on the 1st, 11th and 21st of every month except January 1, the Emperor observes the ceremony for the Gods more elaborately than on the usual days.

Futsukasai and Mikkasai are performed on January 2 and 3, with the New Year's Day Ceremony. These are observed with specially elaborate rituals.

Joyasai, New Year's Eve Ceremony. At the end of the year the Emperor gives thanks to the Gods for their benevolence throughout the year and prays for blessings in the coming year.

Yo-ori, the rite for purification of the person of the Emperor, is held in the Phoenix Hall of the Imperial Palace on June 30 and December 31.

O-harai, held on the same days as Yo-ori, is a similar rite for the purification of all officials and officers from sins committed unconsciously.

SPECIAL CEREMONIES. Two special ceremonies at the Imperial Court are worthy of note:

Kosho-Hajimé, or the ceremony of delivering lectures in the Court at the beginning of the New Year, takes place in the presence of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and Court dignitaries in the Phoenix Hall. Usually three lecturers are chosen, with three others held in reserve, from the nation's most erudite scholars of Japanese classics, Chinese classics and Western learning to lecture on subjects related to their specialties.

Utakat-Hajimé, or the Imperial New Year Poetry Party, is usually held in the middle of January in the presence

of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and high Court dignitaries. Though long in existence, it became one of the most important annual ceremonies in 1869. A few months in advance, the Imperial Household Minister announces the theme for the waka, or tanka, poems of 31 syllables, to be submitted. For the honour of having a poem read in the ceremony, anyone may compete. In addition to those by subjects, poems by the Emperor and Empress and other members of the Imperial Family are read.

THE 2,600TH ANNIVERSARY OF THE FOUNDING OF THE JAPANESE EMPIRE

The memorable year of the 2,600th Anniversary of the Founding of the Empire of Japan arrived amid a solemn atmosphere at the Kashiwara Shrine dedicated to the First Emperor Jimmu, at the beginning of January 1, 1940, when the chief priest beat on the sacred drum while the devout worshippers gathered together to pay homage before the shrine, the sound of the drum being broadcast all over the country.

Innumerable meetings and memorial functions in celebration of the 26th Centennial of the Empire were held throughout the country starting with the congratulatory salute of the nation toward the Imperial Palace at 9 a.m. on the New Year Day.

On February 11, the Empire Foundation Day, H.I.M. the Emperor graciously granted the following Rescript in regard to this auspicious year:—

Imperial Rescript

(Issued on the 2,600th Empire Anniversary, February 11, 1940)

"In accordance with the Sacred Way of Divine Ancestors, the Emperor Jimmu established the foundation of an unbroken and everlasting lineage of Imperial rulers and began providential administration. His successors have been all benevolent to the people and the people loyal to the rulers. Today the nation greets its 2,600th anniversary.

"On this particularly significant Empire Day under emergency circumstances, Ye, Our subjects, remember the achievements of the

Emperor Jimmu and the vastness of the august will and the profoundness of the Imperial polity. And in complete harmony overcome the present crisis in accordance with national ideal, thereby enhancing the national prestige and living up to the desire of Our Imperial Ancestors."

In the afternoon of the same day a grand festival was held at the Kashiwara Shrine in Nara prefecture, the participants numbering over 700,000.

H.I.M. the Emperor left Tokyo on June 9 for Kyoto from where he made visits to the Grand Shrines of Ise, the Unebi mausoleum of the Emperor Jimmu and the Kashiwara Shrine, and the mausolea of the Emperor Ninko, the Emperor Komei, the Empress Yei-sho, the Emperor Meiji and the Empress Shoken, to pay homage in celebration of this great national event.

Returning to Tokyo on June 13, His Majesty paid homage at the Tama mausoleum of the Emperor Taisho, the Imperial Father, the following day.

On June 26, the Emperor of Manchoukuo visited Japan in order to convey in person Manchoukuo's felicitations to His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, in connection with the 2,600th anniversary.

On July 27, an Imperial Ordinance was issued on the "Memorial Medal of the 2,600th Anniversary" which was to be given to 200,000 officials and ex-officials.

His Majesty the Emperor as Supreme Commander of the Imperial Navy, reviewed the Grand Fleet of more than

100 warships in the Tokyo bay off Yokohama harbor on October 11, as one of the major events commemorating the Anniversary. On the 21st, His Majesty, as Supreme Commander of the Imperial Army, rode the Imperial charger Shirayuki at the Yoyogi parade ground and reviewed His troops commanded by H.I.H. General Prince Asaka.

On November 10, a clear and bright Sunday, the Government observed the grand celebration of the 2,600th anniversary in the pavilion specially built for the occasion in the outer garden of the Imperial Palace, which function was honored by the presence of Their Majesties the Emperor and the Empress and was attended by Government dignitaries and more than 54,800 representatives of various spheres of life, from all parts of the Empire. Premier Prince Konoe read the words of congratulation to Their Majesties on behalf of the 100 million subjects, and His Majesty granted a special rescript for the occasion, expressing the Imperial pleasure at the national celebration and asking the determination of His subjects to enhance the national prestige in this time of world crisis, by making contributions toward the human happiness and enduring peace of the world.

In the afternoon of the following day, the 11th, the Society for the Observance of the 2,600th Anniversary of the Founding of the Japanese Empire held the national celebration banquet in the same pavilion. It was again honored by the presence of Their Majesties the Emperor and the Empress. The meeting was presided over by H.I.H. Prince Takamatsu who took the place of H.I.H. Prince Chichibu, the Honorary President of the Society, who could not be present on account of illness. Their Majesties were pleased to receive the words of congratulation from the Prince and Mr. Joseph Grew, the American Ambassador in his capacity as doyen of the foreign diplomatic corps, and to take the simple dinner with their representative subjects and foreign envoys under the clear autumnal heaven and in the refreshing atmosphere filled with the fragrance of chrysanthemums.

Decree of Amnesty On February 11, the decree of amnesty was issued in commemoration of the Anniversary and 48,000 prisoners were granted re-

lease or remission of their terms of imprisonment, while 180,000 persons were rehabilitated.

Imperial Donation On the same day, the Imperial House granted special gifts to 27 organizations for social education and cultural enterprises, in addition to the usual annual donation to social work, the amount of which reached ¥200,000 for 829 institutions.

Waka of Congratulation The Imperial Poetry Bureau of the Imperial Household Ministry, made a special announcement for accepting the waka on the theme of "Ban Min no Iwai" (The People's Congratulation) and selected 13 out of 12,000 waka presented by the known and unknown poets among the people, for submitting for the Imperial perusal, among the selected waka being one by Seison Ohdate of Kagoshima Prefecture, which may be translated as follows:—

"Listen! Happy voices of praise
and gladness
"From the lips of the people proud
of living
"This Year of Imperial glory
exalted
"Resound all over the country
"Echoing the voices from time
immemorial."

The Society for the Observance of the 2,600th Anniversary announced, in cooperation with the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan, a prize contest for the best congratulatory song in celebration of the year and out of 19,000 compositions submitted the first prize was awarded for the composition which began with the words "In the glorious gleam of the Golden Kite of Nippon."

In commemoration of the Anniversary, innumerable cultural events and art exhibitions were held one after another principally in Tokyo and Osaka. The governments of Germany, Italy, Great Britain, France and Hungary sent musical compositions of congratulation, composed by their greatest musicians.

The Governmental art exhibition was held at Ueno Park, Tokyo, in October, on a much larger scale than the one held annually, including, as it did, all schools of fine art in the country. Together with it, a part of the Imperial treasures kept in the Shoso-in Art Repository at Nara were exhibited at the Imperial Museum at Ueno for the appreciation of the general public for the first time in the past 12 hundred years.

National Memorial Works. The Society for the Observance of the 2,600th Anniversary was organized at the end of 1939 under the auspices of the Government, for which the Imperial House granted a donation of 2 million yen. With the Imperial donation as the nucleus, the Society raised a 10 million yen fund for carrying out a program of memorial works. The six major works planned and executed by the society are:—

(1) Improvement and enlargement of the Kashiwara Shrine and the Uneb North-Eastern Mausoleum where the Emperor Jimmu rests. In cooperation with the society, the Nara prefectural government raised, by the assistance of the Asahi Shimbun, a large fund and established the Kashiwara Dojo, a place for drilling young men, consisting of a stadium, open-air theater, dormitory, lecture hall, library, historical hall, archery range, sumo (Japanese wrestling) field, farming ground and the National Foundation Building. The work was accomplished by the voluntary services of more than one million young men from all parts of the country.

(2) Improvement and enlargement of the Miyazaki Shrine in Kyushu, from where the Emperor Jimmu started out on his expedition to the Main Island.

(3) Investigation and maintenance of memorial places connected with the first Emperor of Nippon.

(4) Improvement of roads to Imperial mausolea in the country.

(5) Establishment of the History Hall. This work was entrusted to the Education Ministry which organized a special commission for the purpose of building the hall in Tokyo with an expenditure of 3 million yen.

(6) Compilation of the cultural history of Nippon.

Local Works in Commemoration of the Year The Imperial Forests and Estates Bureau of the Imperial Household Ministry, scheduled a four-year plan of afforestation in Hokkaido and 19 prefectures by planting 10,245,500 saplings in the mountains of 295 villages.

The city of Tokyo effected various improvements in the plaza of the Im-

perial Palace for the celebrations. The establishment of a central library in Tokyo was also decided to be carried out with an expenditure of 7 million yen.

The Hakko Ichū Monument was erected near the Miyazaki Shrine to immortalize the memory of the achievement of the first Sovereign, the Emperor Jimmu, who had chosen this as the sacred seat of the Imperial headquarters before he started out to the east to accomplish the founding of the Empire in 660 B.C. The expenditure for raising this monument was borne by free contributions from the people, under the sponsorship of the Miyazaki prefectural government and the Osaka Mainichi and Tokyo Nichi-Nichi.

Afforestation, building of memorial halls, schools and various institutions of culture, compilation of local histories, and construction of play-grounds in memory of the historic year were carried out in all prefectures and larger cities.

Historic Events of the Year Two great historic events, which occurred in the 26th Centennial year of Japanese history and enhanced the joyous celebrations of the year, were, (1) The establishment of the National Government of the Republic of China at Nanking on March 30, and the conclusion of a Treaty concerning the Basic Relations between Japan and China on November 30, for the final solution of the present undesirable Sino-Japanese relations; and (2) the conclusion of the Three Power Pact between Japan, Germany and Italy on September 27.

Inauguration of the New National Organization The inauguration of the new national organization, the Imperial Rule Assistance Association in the middle of the year (see Chapter V) may be said to be an outstanding national event of the year representing the will of the people toward making the year the beginning of a new epoch in the history of the country. It was not the result of any one man's or party's ambition but the result of the vision of the entire people toward building a new order in East Asia and their belief in the rôle this Empire must play in the realization of that goal.

CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY

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Position and Extent

The Japanese Empire, wholly within the Asiatic half of the North Pacific, consists of Japan proper and various territories. At the time of the Meiji Restoration, 1868, there were the four large continental islands of Honshu, or Hondo, usually known as the Mainland, Kyushu, Shikoku and Hokkaido, or Ezo, and 4,068 adjacent islands of smaller size. Russia ceded the long chain of islands called the Chishima, or the Kuriles, in 1875. The Ogasawarajima, or Bonin Islands, were formally annexed in 1877, and the Ryukyu, or Loochoo Islands, in 1879, though both groups had been early under Japanese control. All these areas today constitute Japan proper.

The Territories The first territories, Taiwan, or Formosa, with the adjacent islands called the Bokoto, or Pescadores, was ceded by China in 1895 following the Sino-Japanese War. The Russo-Japanese War brought Karafuto, or the southern half of the island of Saghalien, and, in Manchuria, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone which was transferred to Manchoukuo in 1937. Chosen, or Korea, was annexed in 1910. The mandated Caroline, Mariana and Marshall Islands, former German possessions in the South Seas, were received by Japan at the Versailles Peace Conference, 1919. With the exception of the Aleutians, the northern half of Saghalien, the Philippines, North Borneo, Hawaii and a few small scattered islands, including Guam, the Empire spreads over all the islands in the Pacific north of the equator.

The most northern part of the Empire, the island of Aomori in the Chishima, touches 50° 55' N. Lat. The southern extreme is in the mandated Caroline Islands, 1° 01' N. Lat. To the west, the Bokoto extend to 119° 18' E. Long., and to the east, the mandated Marshall Islands reach 172° 10' E. Long.

Length and Width If the South Sea Islands, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the continental peninsula of Chosen are omitted, the Empire is a semi-circle

of islands extending in latitude from 21° 45' N. to 50° 55' N., approximately 3,380 kilometers, and in longitude from 119° 18' E. to 156° 30' E., with a maximum width of about 320 kilometers.

Area

The Home Ministry's revised investigation puts the total area of the Empire at the end of 1938, at 681,012.03 square kilometers, distributed as shown in the following table:

	Area in sq. km.
Grand Total	681,012.03
Japan proper	382,560.83
Honshu	230,549.61
Shikoku	18,771.45
Kyushu	42,078.49
Hokkaido	88,775.04
Ryukyu	2,386.24
Chosen	220,788.44
Taiwan	35,834.35
Bokoto	126.86
Karafuto	36,090.30
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462.45
South Sea Mandated Islands	2,148.80

Of 675,400.78 square kilometers, exclusive of the two territories last named, Japan proper occupies 56.6 per cent of the total area, while Chosen occupies 32.6 per cent, Taiwan 5.3 per cent, and Karafuto 5.3 per cent.

The area of each prefecture in Japan proper arranged in the order of size follows:

AREA OF PREFECTURES (In sq. km.)

		%
1.	Hokkaido	88,775.04 23.2
2.	Iwaté	15,235.31 4.0
3.	Fukushima	13,781.98 3.6
4.	Nagano	13,626.18 3.6
5.	Niigata	12,578.05 3.3
6.	Akita	11,663.94 3.0
7.	Gifu	10,494.73 2.7
8.	Aomori	9,630.92 2.5
9.	Yamagata	9,325.66 2.4
10.	Kagoshima	9,103.81 2.4
11.	Hiroshima	8,438.58 2.2
12.	Hyogo	8,323.37 2.2
13.	Shizuoka	7,769.90 2.0
14.	Miyazaki	7,738.85 2.0
15.	Kumamoto	7,433.41 1.9

16. Miyagi	7,273.36	1.9
17. Kochi	7,103.85	1.8
18. Okayama	7,046.47	1.8
19. Shimané	6,625.46	1.7
20. Tochigi	6,436.59	1.7
21. Gumma	6,335.57	1.7
22. Oita	6,333.87	1.7
23. Ibaraki	6,091.14	1.6
24. Yamaguchi	6,084.49	1.6
25. Mié	5,765.28	1.5
26. Ehime	5,667.42	1.5
27. Aichi	5,084.33	1.3
28. Chiba	5,062.09	1.3
29. Fukuoka	4,943.54	1.3
30. Wakayama	4,718.59	1.2
31. Kyoto	4,621.29	1.2
32. Yamanashi	4,465.87	1.2
33. Fukui	4,264.48	1.1
34. Toyama	4,257.42	1.1
35. Ishikawa	4,192.42	1.1
36. Tokushima	4,143.22	1.1
37. Nagasaki	4,075.98	1.1
38. Shiga	4,050.93	1.0
39. Saltama	3,802.68	1.0
40. Nara	3,693.52	1.0
41. Tottori	3,489.48	0.9
42. Saga	2,449.03	0.6
43. Okinawa	2,386.24	0.6
44. Kanagawa	2,360.80	0.6
45. Tokyo	2,144.80	0.6
46. Kagawa	1,856.96	0.5
47. Osaka	1,813.63	0.5
Total	382,560.83	100.0

Geological Formation

The Japanese Islands lie at the east end of the Eurasia Continent, spreading more than 3,800 kilometers on the Pacific. They are arranged in the form of a festoon or a breakwater for the Continent against the Pacific waves. The numerous islands may be divided into four groups or bows: the Nippon Bow, the Chishima Bow, the Ryukyu Bow and the Ogasawara or Bonin Bow. The Nippon Bow is composed of the Mainland (Main Island) and the small islands around it. The Main Island itself draws an arc, its convex surface projecting into the Pacific and its concave surface facing the Japan Sea, because the whole Nippon Bow was pushed out toward the ocean by a mountain-making process from the side of the Japan Sea. The Nippon Bow again is composed of two mountain systems, with the Fuji volcanic range as the dividing line: they are the Northern range, or the Karafuto mountain system, and the Southern range, or the Kwenlun mountain system.

Recent excavations seem to show that it is almost impossible to find the oldest

rocks in the formation of the Japanese Islands, but it was formerly assumed that gneiss and crystalline schist, which belong to the oldest geological eras, were found in Japan.

Gneiss Distribution Gneiss is distributed mostly in the Nippon Bow and Chosen and cannot be found in the Ryukyu and the Chishima Bows. It runs through the center of the southern half of the Nippon Bow, while in the northern half it may be found in the plateau of Abukuma. In Chosen it is spread over a wide area. Crystalline schist runs generally along the outside of the gneiss system. In the southern part of the Nippon Bow, it starts at the Akalshi range and runs through the Kii range to Shikoku, where it develops in a wide area, taking the place of gneiss; then it crosses the strait to Kyushu and sinks under the Aso volcanic chain to appear again at Nagasaki. In Taiwan it forms the eastern part of the Taiwan mountain range. In the northern half of the Nippon Bow, it appears in the Kanto range and may be found in the Ezo mountain system of Hokkaido and in Karafuto.

Palaeozoic System The Japanese Palaeozoic system is largely aqueous rock, composed mainly of slate, sandstone, silica stone, limestone, grit stone and graywacke, with a compound of such igneous stones as granite and diorite. It is widely distributed and has much to do with the geological formation of Japan. But at the Palaeozoic era the Japanese land lay deep in the waters and did not treasure up coal as did the Palaeozoic stratum of the Continent. The oldest stratum of the Main Island which has been proved with a fossil is the Carboniferous system, and any decision on older beds must remain uncertain until similar proof is available. The Palaeozoic system forms the bones of the big mountain ranges developing at the circumference of the Archæan system of the southern part of the Nippon Bow and is distributed in the Akalshi, Kii, Shikoku and Kyushu mountain ranges. Traces are also visible in the Hida range, Hida plateau, Tamba plateau, Chugoku range and Tsukushi range. In the northern half, it runs through the Kanto, Ashio, Hachimizo, Abukuma and Kitakami ranges to the Ezo range and Karafuto. It can also be seen in Taiwan and Chosen in wide areas.

Mesozoic System The Mesozoic stratum of Japan is composed of stones

similar to those of the earlier stratum. Fossils are sufficiently numerous to assure the era in which it was formed. It appears in the Kii range, the southern part of Shikoku, the Kyushu range and the Taiwan range. In Chosen, it is found in the Keisho district. In the Chugoku district, the western part of the Main Island, it comes to the surface, leading to the belief that the plains of this district were formed in this era.

Neozoic System The Neozoic stratum is composed mainly of aqueous rock and volcanic stones. In this era, the transformation of land and sea was incessant, and volcanic activities were most vigorous, creating most of the present volcanic chains. Through the tertiary and quaternary periods, andesite and basalt were emitted in great volume. Most of the coalfields, oil-fields and metal mines of Japan were formed in the tertiary period. In the diluvial day of the quaternary period, volcanic explosions followed one after another, and the hills by the rivers and the higher plains of the Kanto took their present form. In the alluvial, or the most recent period of the same era, the lowest and the newest beds at rivers, lakes and the sea shore, or sandbanks and sand hills, came into existence. According to the investigation of the Geological Research Office, the areas of rocks of different geological eras in Japan proper are as follows:

	Sq. km.	%
Archæan stratum	14,189	3.50
Palæozoic ..	53,149	12.74
Mesozoic ..	29,844	7.15
Neozoic ..	196,079	49.87
Tertiary vomitted rocks	44,157	10.58
Quaternary vomitted rocks	79,970	19.16
Total	417,358	100.00

Block Movements According to this investigation, two-thirds of the land is of the Neozoic stratum, showing that Japan must have been upheaved upon the surface of the sea in the most recent geological era, and the large volume of vomitted rocks speaks of violent volcanic activities.

In the Palæozoic era, the islands were all hidden under shallow waters. Even the Hida and Akalshi mountain peaks, which form the ridge of the Mainland, are composed of the sediment on the sea-bottom in those days. At the end of this era, the highest mountain ranges

began to expose their heads above the waters. It was a golden age for the Mollusca and fishes, the Amphibia coming to existence at the end of it. In the vegetable kingdom, Cryptogamia grew in great forests which disappeared with the end of the era.

At the Jurassic period of the Mesozoic era, China and most of Chosen appeared upon the surface of the sea, but the land of Japan was still covered with waters, except for the great mountain ranges, which began to show their complete figures. It was the age in which the cycad, the ginkgo and the Coniferae grew in abundance and toward the end of which the latifoliate trees came into existence. In the animal kingdom, the reptiles made great progress, and queer gigantic animals lived everywhere in the sea, in the air and on the land.

When the Neozoic era dawned, Japan became a stage of great block movements of earth, and it was severed from the continent, taking the form of a chain of countless islands. The present location was assumed, although the northern part was a little later than the southern half. The line which connects the islands runs from south to north because the pressure of the block movement was from west to east. As the movements gradually ceased and the dividing lines of land and sea became stationary, the present animals and vegetables began to grow, and finally primitive men appeared.

Relationship with Continent The close connection of the islands with the Continent is supported by considerable evidence. It is asserted by most scholars that they are continental islands, which are usually located near a continent, from which they were severed in the latest geological era. It is clear that the mountain ranges of Japan have a close connection with the Kwenlun mountain system. The north range of the Chinese mountains, after sinking into the sea, appears again in the northern part of Kyushu and reaches the central part of the Main Island, running through the Chugoku district, and the eastern end of the China mountain system reappears in southern Kyushu, from where it reaches to the Akalshi range through Shikoku Island and Wakayama prefecture. It is also known that the sea between the Japanese Islands and the Continent is but 200 meters deep at the maximum from Taiwan to Chosen. That

is, if the waters fell by this distance, the East China Sea, the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Chihli would be dried up, and Kyushu, Shikoku, the Mainland, Hokkaido and Karafuto would be connected by land. In sharp contrast, the sea to the east and south of the islands suddenly becomes as deep as 4,000 metres and even more in some places. These facts prove that the Japanese Islands were once a part of the Continent of Asia.

Japanese animals belong to those species which are included in the old northern division in the animal distribution of the world, and Japanese plants have very close relations with those on the Continent of Asia and are quite different from those of the American Continent. Finally, palaeontology provides further proof that Japan was formerly a part of the Asiatic Continent. In the layers which belong to the tertiary period or the diluvial day of the quaternary period, fossil teeth of elephants are often found, and some are of the same kind as those excavated in the southern districts of China. Thus it may be concluded that the Islands of Japan were connected with the Continent of Asia in a prehistoric but comparatively new geological era.

Natural Features

The mountains of Japan are divided into two great systems, one to the north and the other to the south. The Karafuto system, framing Northern Japan, is composed of the Izo, Kitakami, Abukuma, Kanto and Echigo ranges, arranged from north to south, roughly speaking. Southern Japan is framed by two branches of the Kwantun system, which has its origin in China. One branch first appears in the northern part of Kyushu as the Tsukushi range and then runs to the east, forming the Chugoku range, the Tamba plateau, the Hida plateau and the Kiso range. The other branch appears in the southern part of Kyushu, forming the Kyushu range, from which it runs east, becoming the Shikoku, Kii, Suzuka and Akaishi ranges.

Japanese mountains have characteristic fine creases, cut by the rainfall, which is specially heavy in this country. The Kyushu, Shikoku and Akaishi ranges were formed by the creasing process, such mountains as Fuji, Nasu, Chokai and Kirishima resulted from volcanic activities, and the Kongo, Kasagi, Suzuka and Mahiru mountain ranges

were born in dislocative earthquakes. As for age, the mountains of the Chugoku and Abukuma ranges, with their dull curves, are the oldest; the Shikoku range, the Japan Alps and the Ohu range, or the range in the northeastern Mainland, are rugged and young, and the plains of the Kanto district and Gifu and Aichi prefectures are very young. The combination of these mountains and plains of diverse ages is peculiar to Japan.

Volcanic Chains According to the Geological Research Office, the total number of volcanoes in Japan is 192, of which 58 are active. They may be grouped in 11 chains:

(1) The north Japan inner, or Chokai, volcanic chain, which starts at the southwestern offing of Hokkaido, or Oshima and Ko-jima, and runs through Iwakiyama, Kamuzan, Moriyoshi-yama Chokai-san, ending with Gatsusan.

(2) The south Japan inner, or Hakusan, volcanic chain, extending from Hakusan along the Japan Sea to the west through Daisen, Mitsubeyama, Aono-yama and other smaller volcanoes and then to the Goto Islands of Kyushu.

(3) The Hokkaido volcanic chain, which links such mountains as Hakodate-yama, Komaga-dake, Tarumayé-dake and some islands in the peninsular part of western Hokkaido.

(4) The north Japan central, or Nasu, volcanic chain, including Osore-yama, Hakkoda-san, Towada Lake, Iwaté-yama, Komaga-dake, Kurigoma, Numasawa, Arao, Funagata, Za-oh, Bantai, Azuma, Adatara, Nasu, Nantai, Shirané, Akagi, Haruna, Tsuno-otoshi and Arafuna, which are mostly active volcanoes.

(5) The Hida volcanic chain, composed of the seven volcanoes of Heradake, Taté-yama, Ko-tombi, Washibadake, Iwo-dake, Norikura-dake and Ontaké.

(6) The Mikasa volcanic chain, to the west of the Hida volcanic chain, beginning with Horaiji-san, of Aichi prefecture, and running westward to O-hara-yama, Mikasa-yama, Miminari-yama, Futakami-san and Kabuto-yama of Hyogo prefecture.

(7) The Seto, or Inland Sea, volcanic chain, embracing the old volcanic mountains along the coasts of the Inland Sea and extending to Kyushu, including such mountains as Futako, Kokonoyé, Yufu, Onsen and Tara. The volcanoes are all dormant.

(8) The Ryukyu volcanic chain, starting with the Aso volcano, taking in Kirishima, Sakurajima and Kaimon and extending to the Ryukyu Islands, where it connects Iwojima, Kuchino-Irabé-jima, Kuchinosé, Nakano-jima, Suwanosé, Warutwa-jima, Tori-shima and Aguni-shima.

(9) The amphibolite andesite volcanic chain, which connects Aono-yama of Shimane prefecture and Tokusa of Yamaguchi, appears then in Kinpo-zan and Shiguma-dake near Tokuyama, and Himé-jima of Suo, meets with the Inland Sea chain and runs to Yufu, Kokonoyé and a part of Aso, and extends as far as Luzon Island, sinking to the bottom of the ocean west of the Ryukyu Islands on the way and then running along the eastern coast of Taiwan.

(10) The Fuji volcanic chain, which cuts across the heart of the Main Island from the coast of the Japan Sea to that of the Pacific Ocean, and continues to the Izu, Bonin, Sulphur, Mariana and Caroline Islands, including such mountains as Myoko, Togakushi-yama, Tate-shinayama, Yatsuga-dake, Fuji-san, Hakoné and Amagi on the Main Island.

(11) The Chishima volcanic chain, which comes into Hokkaido from the Chishima, runs along the Ezo mountain system, suddenly turns to the north and seems to disappear in Karafuto.

The Japanese volcanic mountains are composed of four kinds of rocks: pyroxene andesite, amphibolite andesite, bronzite andesite and basalt. Fuji, Iwaki, Chokai, Gatsusan, Nasu, Hakkoda, Iwaté, Bantai, Akagi and Haruna are of pyroxene andesite. In southern Japan, the Kirishima volcanic range is composed of the same rock, which is, indeed, the most widely distributed in the Japanese volcanoes. Amphibolite andesite is discovered in the mountains which belong to the inner volcanic chains—Hakusan, Daisen and Mitsubeyama. It shows itself in Taté-yama, Norikura and Ontaké also, but is most evident in the Kyushu volcanoes. Bronzite andesite is limited to the district of Kinki, near Osaka, and the volcanic mountains and islands in and along the Inland Sea. Basalt is distributed in Chugoku and the northern Kyushu districts, exposing itself at the Basalt Cave of Toyooka, Hyogo prefecture, Oné-shima, Hamada, Hagl, the Aburatani Gulf and Fukué of the Goto Islands.

Seas and Coast-line

With the exception of the northern

frontiers of Chosen and Karafuto, every part of the Empire is surrounded by water. To the east is the Pacific, washing the Chishima, Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, the Ryukyu, Taiwan and the mandated islands north of the equator. Between the Chishima and Karafuto is the Sea of Okhotsk, and between Karafuto and the continent the Gulf of Tartary, known to the Japanese as the Mamiya Straits. The Sea of Japan lies between Honshu and the eastern shore of Chosen. To the west of Chosen is the Yellow Sea, or Hwanghai, opening into the Eastern China Sea, or Tunghai, which touches Kyushu, the Ryukyu and Taiwan. Purely Japanese is the famous Inland Sea, enclosed by Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu.

The Depths The greatest depth yet discovered in these surrounding seas is 9,439 meters, sounded by the warship *Manshu* in 1926 between Honshu and Ogasawara Is. 30° 49' N. Lat. and 142° 18' E. Long. Previously the record was the 8,517 meters of the *Tuscarora Deep*, named for the American warship which made a survey in 1874, sometimes called the Kurile-Japanese Trench, which lies along the Chishima for about 644 kilometers. The other seas are shallower than the Pacific. The Sea of Okhotsk, which is estimated to have an area of 1,527,007.73 square kilometers, has a mean depth of 838 meters. The Sea of Japan, estimated to extend over 1,007,307.41 square kilometers, has a maximum depth of 3,440 meters and a mean depth of 1,350 meters. The Eastern China Sea, except near the Ryukyu and Taiwan, is less deep. With a length of about 354 kilometers and a maximum width of 77 kilometers, the Inland Sea covers 3,430.43 square kilometers and reaches its greatest depth at 124 meters.

The Currents Two ocean currents with important climatic effects are the Kuroshio, meaning black current, which sailors know as the Japan stream, and the Oyashio, meaning main current, which foreigners often call the Kurile stream. The first is warm and the second cold. Arising from the North Equatorial Current north of the Philippines, the Kuroshio flows along the eastern side of Taiwan and the southern islands of the Ryukyu to about 26° N. Lat., where it splits, the main part moving to the eastern coasts of Kyushu, Shikoku and Honshu and then bearing eastward past the Aleutian Islands to the North American coast and the off-

shoot flowing to the west of Kyushu and into the Sea of Japan. Varying in width from 100 to 805 kilometers, depending on the position and the season of the year, it is usually from 5° to 15° C. warmer than the rest of the ocean. The Oyashio originates in the Arctic, washes the eastern shores of the Chishima, Hokkaido and Honshu, meeting the Kuroshio at Kinkazan. From the Sea of Okhotsk, another cold current enters the Sea of Japan through the Gulf of Tartary and flows along the Chosen coast.

Tides Tides in the Japanese Empire show wide variation. High on the shores of the Yellow Sea and the Eastern China Sea, they reach from 10.4 to 10.7 meters at Jinsen, or Chemulpo, Chosen, and 5.5 meters at Milke, Omuta on Tsukushi Bay, Kyushu, but in the Sea of Japan they average little more than 0.6 meter. Along the Sea of Okhotsk, they range from 1.2 to 1.5 meters; along the Pacific coast, from 1.8 to 2.7 meters, and in the Inland Sea, from 1.8 to 4 meters.

Coast-line The coast-line is exceptionally long, being 52,231.787 kilometers for the whole Empire, exclusive of the Kwantung L.T. and the mandated South Sea Islands. - For Japan proper, it is 30,605.458 kilometers, which means a kilometer to every 12.43 square kilometers of area, and for Chosen 18,203.726 kilometers, a kilometer to every 12.12 square kilometers. The shores of the Sea of Japan are comparatively regular, but those on the Pacific are indented with a large number of gulfs, bays and inlets, many of which afford excellent anchorages. Japan proper has more than 1,400 harbors, about half of which are utilized for trading. The best harbors of Chosen are on the Yellow Sea and the Chosen Channel. Hokkaido, Karafuto and Taiwan are less fortunate in capacious shelters for ships.

Mountains

In Japan proper, there are 250 mountains with peaks higher than 2,000 meters above sea level, the highest being the celebrated Mount Fuji, which lifts its white cap sublimely 3,773 meters above the beautiful Suruga Gulf. Chosen has 51 and Taiwan 130 mountains in the same category, but the latter has five peaks higher than Mount Fuji, Nitaka-yama, 3,950 meters, being the highest mountain in the Japanese Empire. The highest mountains in Japan

proper are converged in the central part of the Main Island in the prefectures of Nagano, Toyama, Yamanashi, Shizuoka and Gifu, but there are, of course, many other mountains famous geographically and historically in other parts of the country.

MOUNTAINS (Above 2,500 meters)

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Japan Proper		
Fuji	Shizuoka	3,773
Kita	Yamanashi	3,192
Manodaké	Shizuoka	3,189
Yarigadaké	Nagano	3,180
Akaishi	Nagano	3,120
Okuhotaka	Nagano	3,103
Higashimata	Nagano	3,095
Shirané	Nagano	3,093
Ontaké	Nagano	3,093
Hotaka	Nagano	3,090
Arakawa	Shizuoka	3,083
Shiomi	Shizuoka	3,047
Senjo	Yamanashi	3,033
Minamidaké	Nagano	3,032
Kitahotaka	Gifu	3,032
Notoori	Shizuoka	3,026
Norikura	Gifu	3,026
Hijiri	Shizuoka	3,011
Tsurugi	Toyama	2,998
Tatayama	Toyama	2,992
Sulsho	Toyama	2,977
Komagadaké	Yamanashi	2,966
Marishiten	Gifu	2,959
Shiroma	Toyama	2,933
Yakushi	Toyama	2,926
Goro	Toyama	2,924
Mae-Hotaka	Gifu	2,908
Yari	Toyama	2,903
Akadaké	Nagano	2,900
Kasa	Gifu	2,897
Kashima-Yari	Toyama	2,890
Wakarayama	Toyama	2,885
Mitsudaké	Nagano	2,873
Jodo	Toyama	2,872
Mamaoya	Gifu	2,868
Komori	Shizuoka	2,865
Akaushi	Toyama	2,861
Karakl	Nagano	2,864
Rengé	Nagano	2,860
Sugoroku	Nagano	2,860
Mamako	Gifu	2,858
Misawa	Nagano	2,846
Minami	Nagano	2,842
Ho-o	Yamanashi	2,841
Washiwa	Toyama	2,841
Nakanomata	Toyama	2,840
Nakadaké	Toyama	2,839
Subari	Nagano	2,838
Mitsumata	Nagano	2,835
Yoko	Nagano	2,830

Name	Location	Height (m.)	Name	Location	Height (m.)
Misumi	Nagano	2,830	Nagabéi	Nagano	2,565
Masago	Nagano	2,826	Okaramatsu	Yamanashi	2,555
Ebisu	Gifu	2,823	Itotaké	Nagano	2,554
Osawa	Shizuoka	2,819	Nanakura	Nagano	2,550
Nukido	Gifu	2,812	Asama	Gumma	2,542
Kogochi	Nagano	2,805	Kurohi	Nagano	2,540
Kamikochi	Nagano	2,803	Tatésina	Nagano	2,530
Rengé	Toyama	2,799	Ushikubi	Toyama	2,527
Choko	Yamanashi	2,799	Amikasa	Yamanashi	2,524
Onidaké	Nagano	2,799	Nittadaké	Shizuoka	2,524
Asahi	Nagano	2,786	Maédaké	Nagano	2,520
Gongen	Nagano	2,786	Kohikagé	Nagano	2,505
Takaminé	Yamanashi	2,779	Minoto	Nagano	2,500
Rengé	Niigata	2,769			
Akaiwa	Nagano	2,769	Chosen		
Tsubakuro	Nagano	2,763	Hakuto	Kankyonando	2,744
Yakushi	Yamanashi	2,762	Kanbo-san	Kankyohokudo	2,541
Jonen	Nagano	2,757	Hokusuihaku	Kankyonando	2,522
Tatésawa	Nagano	2,754	Shonichi	Kankyonando	2,506
Yotsutaké	Gifu	2,744			
Iwo	Nagano	2,742	Taiwan		
Shogigashira	Nagano	2,727	Nitaka	Taichushu	3,950
Kotaro	Yamanashi	2,725	Tsugitaka	Taichushu	3,931
Kiso	Nagano	2,721	Shukoan	Karenkocho	3,833
Minamimasago	Nagano	2,710	Maboras	Taichushu	3,806
Akazawa	Nagano	2,706	Nankotaizan	Karenkocho	3,797
Hoélsan	Shizuoka	2,702	Chuosenzan	Karenkocho	3,715
Shisan	Nagano	2,700	Kanzan	Kantocho	3,667
Kitarakawa	Shizuoka	2,698	Taisuikutsu	Taichushu	3,645
Jiji	Nagano	2,697	Kiraishuzan	Karenkocho	3,605
Karamatsu	Nagano	2,696	Tōguntai-san	Taichushu	3,605
Narusawa	Nagano	2,667	Dalsétsu	Taichushu	3,600
Chogataké	Nagano	2,664	Tafhasenzan	Shinchikushu	3,573
Kitanomata	Toyama	2,661	Sétsupō	Takaoshu	3,569
Kamigataké	Toyama	2,661	Takushatai	Taichushu	3,488
Kitami	Nagano	2,658	Tōrantai-san	Taichushu	3,465
Iwagoyazawa	Nagano	2,657	Gōkanzan	Taichushu	3,394
Néishi	Nagano	2,646	Nangyoku	Takaoshu	3,391
Karasawa	Nagano	2,632	To-zan	Shinchikushu	3,390
Hakusan	Ishikawa	2,631	Shinkan	Karenkocho	3,381
Zarugataké	Shizuoka	2,629	Hitsuroku	Karenkocho	3,379
Gakidaké	Nagano	2,627	Tantai-san	Karenkocho	3,371
Minamizawa	Nagano	2,625	Hakkotai-san	Taichushu	3,340
Washitaké	Toyama	2,625	Nansoto	Karenkocho	3,333
Eboshitaké	Nagano	2,621	Nōkōzannanpō	Karenkocho	3,333
Fudosan	Nagano	2,621	Pinnanshuzan	Takaoshu	3,305
Senninyama	Toyama	2,617	Kantakumanzan	Taichushu	3,304
Tobiyama	Toyama	2,614	Kashipanan	Karenkocho	3,294
Otakiyama	Nagano	2,614	Guntai-san	Taichushu	3,292
Koéhyaku	Nagano	2,613	Tarokotai-san	Karenkocho	3,292
Yukikura	Toyama	2,611	Koséki	Takaoshu	3,255
Nokogiri	Nagano	2,605	Nōkō	Karenkocho	3,252
Dainichi	Toyama	2,605	Byobu	Karenkocho	3,234
Chausu	Nagano	2,600	Taihu	Taitocho	3,232
Kimpo	Yamanashi	2,599	Senzan	Karenkocho	3,222
Fudo	Toyama	2,595	Batotsunofu	Taihokushu	3,221
Kokushi	Yamanashi	2,592	Hainotonan	Taitocho	3,175
Hikari	Nagano	2,591	Mabllsan	Taihokushu	3,167
Tsuji	Yamanashi	2,585	Hakuséki	Karenkocho	3,138
Shirané	Tochigi	2,577	Wanoshin	Takaoshu	3,132

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Antogun	Karenkocho	3,089
Rantalzan	Taichushu	3,076
Kanmon	Karenkocho	3,052
Talsékko	Karenkocho	3,048
Kosétsu	Taichushu	3,043
Bokyo	Taichushu	3,028
Unsuí	Kantocho	3,010
Burakusan	Kantocho	2,992
Ronbutan	Karenkocho	2,948
Sékisui	Tainanshu	2,895
Kokolbo	Karenkocho	2,883
Hélgan	Taichushu	2,879
Sékisan	Takaoshu	2,877
Sentogan	Takaoshu	2,862
Rokurin	Taichushu	2,859
Hattsuséki	Taichushu	2,841
Manmen	Takaoshu	2,840
Nantaibu	Kantocho	2,831
Muto	Takaoshu	2,822
Toho	Taichushu	2,809
Surabatan	Takaoshu	2,747
Klnajii	Shinchikushu	2,713
Sékisan	Taichushu	2,694
Sansui	Karenkocho	2,692
Rokujotai	Shinchikushu	2,684
Taito	Taichushu	2,663
Takai	Taihokushu	2,657
Kéinan	Takaoshu	2,642
Sui	Tainanshu	2,627
Futako	Karenkocho	2,577
Kodama	Tainanshu	2,568
Rinparapara	Takaoshu	2,555
Matsuyama	Taichushu	2,551
Gunko	Taichushu	2,532
Tozan	Tainanshu	2,520
Mubéyama	Karenkocho	2,514
Shukusan	Taichushu	2,504

OTHER FAMOUS MOUNTAINS

(Below 2,500 m.)

Oh-u district

Name	Height (m.)
Iwaki-yama ¹	1,625
Hakkoda-yama	1,585
Moriyoshi-yama	1,454
Iwaté-yama	2,041
Komaga-také	1,637
Chokai-san	2,230
Gassan	1,924
Zao-san	1,841
Funagata-yama	1,500
Azuma-san	2,024
Adachitaro-yama	1,700
Bandai-san	1,819
Otakiné-yama	1,193

¹ The suffixes: yama, také, daké, san, zan, miné, and sen—all mean "mountain."

Name	Height (m.)
Nasu-san	1,917
Taishaku-san	2,060
Nantai-san	2,484
Akagi-san	1,828
Haruna-san	1,448
Myogi-san	1,104
Mikuni-yama	1,828
Kobushi-také	2,483
Tanzawa-yama	1,567
Hakoné-yama	1,439
Tsukuba-yama	876

Kinki district (Kyoto, Osaka)

Oé-yama	833
Ibuki-yama	1,377
Hira-také	1,174
Kurama-yama	670
Hiei-san	848
Atago-yama	924
Rokko-san	932
Ikoma-yama	642
Kongo-san	1,112
Sanjo-také	1,720
Odalgahara-san	1,695
Shaka-také	1,800
Koya-san	985

Chugoku district

Kori-yama	1,510
Daisen	1,713
Kanmuri-yama	1,339
Aono-yama	908

Shikoku Island

Tsurugi-yama	1,955
Sasaga-miné	1,860
Ishizuchi-yama	1,921
Onigashiro-yama	1,142

Kyushu district

Tsurumi-yama	1,375
Yufu-také	1,584
Tara-také	983
Aso-san	1,592
Unzen	1,360
Shiraga-yama	1,417
Sakurajima-také	1,118
Kalmon-také	924
Yaé-yama	1,935

Rivers

The Empire is abundantly watered by numerous rivers, usually wide where they empty into the sea, but comparatively short in course and not navigable for many miles inland except by flat-bottomed craft. During the summer rainy season and when the mountain snows melt in the spring, torrents rush

down them, often overflowing and causing damage; during the rest of the year, they dwindle to narrow and shallow streams. If of little use for transportation, they serve as reservoirs from which water is drawn for irrigation and increasingly as sources of electric power.

Total available hydro-electric power of rivers in Japan proper is estimated at 14,090,000 h.p., the power actually developed by the end of 1936 was about 5,039,321 h.p.

The major rivers, with navigable length, follow:

	Navigable Length in	
	Km.	Km.
Honshu		
Shinano	369	283
Toné	322	275
Kitakami	243	232
Kiso	232	86
Mogami	216	196
Tenryu	216	216
Gonokawa	200	153
Abukuma	196	149
Ara	177	89
Aka	169	149
Kumano	161	127
Hidaka	161	134
Fuji	161	70
Ohí	154	86
Ohmono	149	137
Sho	149	55
Ibi	142	35
Yura	141	110
Sagami	141	75
Shikoku		
Yoshino	236	110
Shimanto	177	75
Kyushu		
Chikugo	141	86
Hokkaido		
Ishikari	365	361
Téshio	300	181
Tokachi	196	86
Tokoro	145	—
Karafuto		
Horonai	137	—
Taiwan		
Dakusuíkéi	165	—
Shimotansuíkéi	156	—
Sobunkéi	132	—
Tansuígawa	130	—
Chosen		
Ohryokko	790	698
Rakutoko	525	344
Tomanko	521	85
Kanko	514	330
Daidoko	439	260

	Navigable Length in	
	Km.	Km.
Kinko	401	130
Ringhinko	254	124
Sélsenko	199	152
Réisétko	174	65

Lakes

The Empire contains numerous lakes, especially in Honshu and Hokkaido, remarkable for their beautiful setting rather than extent. The most interesting are those high above sea level, formed in most cases by volcanic eruptions damming the head-waters of rivers.

The major lakes, with their height above sea level, area and depth follow:

	Above Sea		
	Level (m.)	Area (Sq. km.)	Depth (m.)
Honshu			
Eiwako	86.3	716.31	95.0
Hachirogata	0	223.29	4.7
Kasumigaura	2.0	189.17	7.6
Inawashiroko	514.0	104.83	102.0
Nakanoumi	0	101.60	14.0
Shinjiko	1.0	82.32	6.4
Towadako	401.0	78.02	378.0
Hamanako	0	72.04	15.8
Ogaranuma	1.5	62.26	27.0
Kitaura	1.0	39.85	10.0
Imbanuma	2.5	25.95	1.0
Tazawako	250.0	25.65	425.0
Kahokugata	0.8	22.85	2.0
Jusangata	0	20.87	3.0
Ibauchiko	86.3	15.40	3.1
Suwako	759.0	14.45	7.0
Karénuma	—	12.20	3.3
Teganuma	2.5	11.88	2.9
Chuzenjiko	1,271.0	11.29	170.0
Oguraiké	10.0	7.90	1.7
Hirofuchiko	3.0	7.12	2.3
Ashinoko	723.2	7.09	43.5
Kumihamako	0	7.08	20.0
Kyushu			
Ikédako	66.0	10.98	233.0
Hokkaido			
Saromako	0	150.53	19.0
Kutcharoko	120.0	85.54	125.0
Shikotsuko	248.0	76.18	363.0
Toyako	83.0	74.54	183.0
Notoriko	0	58.49	22.0
Furenko	0	52.13	11.0
Abashiriko	0	34.04	17.6
Akkéshikanko	0	31.99	6.9
Mashuko	345.0	20.00	211.5
Tonbétsuko	0	15.00	3.2
Akanko	399.0	12.93	36.6
Karafuto			
Taralkako	0	180.06	1.8

	Above Sea		Depth (m.)
	Level (m.)	Area (Sq. km.)	
Tominaiko	0	168.18	34.0
Tofuchiko	0	40.43	6.4
Kuchishiko	0	34.77	3.7
Waiko	0	34.18	6.4
Chibésanko	0	11.20	7.7
Ontoko	0	7.61	4.6
Taiwan			
Takaokanko	1.2	22.66	1.2
Jitsugótunan	5.2	4.44	5.2
Chosen			
Hiroko	—	13.28	—
Koshihashiko	—	8.27	—
Amaké	—	7.74	—
Choenko	—	7.42	—

Flora

In summer the southern part of Japan experiences tropical weather, while in winter the districts north of the north-eastern provinces are subject to arctic cold. But owing to ample rainfall, the growth of plants in Japan is in general very rich, yet agriculture occupies so large a proportion of area as to restrict not only the natural distribution of flora and fauna, but a scientific study of the subject as well.

The flora of Japan is by most botanists divided into four zones:

- Tropical forest zone, or the banian (*Ficus religiosa*) zone.
- Subtropical forest zone, or the kashi (*Quercus acuta*) zone.
- Temperate forest zone, or the beech-tree (*Fagus Sieboldii*) zone.
- Arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir (*Pinus pumila*) zone.

I. The Tropical Forest Zone The tropical forest zone, or the banian zone, covers those portions of the plain of Taiwan lower than 450 m. above sea level, as well as the Ryukyu, Ogasawara, Sulphur and the South Sea Islands. The aerial roots of the *Ficus religiosa* are not so large as those of the banian in India, but the species grows in abundance and to a great height, sending down its aerial roots into the ground like the tentacles of an octopus. In some parts of Sulphur Islands, the Ryukyu Islands and Taiwan it forms impenetrable forests. The coconut tree is rare but grows well. In Taiwan the pineapple thrives naturally, while the Agave American grows quite tall. The cycad (*Cycas revoluta*), the tree fern (*Cyathea spinulosa*), the coffee plant (*Coffea Arabica*), the gum tree, the orange tree,

the sugarcane, the mangifera (*Mangifera Indica*) and the papaw-tree (*Caria papaya*) grow luxuriantly.

II. The Subtropical Forest Zone The subtropical forest zone, or the oak zone is limited to altitudes of from 450 to 1,800 m. in Taiwan, and as low as sea level in the northern half of the Ryukyu Islands. The plains of Kyushu, Shikoku, that part of the Main Island south of 35 degrees North Latitude, and the southern half of the Chosen peninsula belong to this zone, the temperature here being from 13° to 21° C. (55° to 70° F.), and the altitude below 1,120 m. at Mount Kirishima in Kyushu; 650 m. in the northern part of the same island; 760 m. in Shikoku; 600 m. in Chugoku or west of Kobé; 500 m. in the Tokaido districts; and 460 m. at Tsukuba-yama in the Kanto district.

Plants peculiar to this zone are those which belong to such species as the camphor-tree, the oak, the camellia, and the Ternstroemia Japonica, evergreen and latifoliate. On sandy shores, where the sea wind is strong, the black pine (*Pinus thunbergii*) grows, with spreading, contorted branches, an indispensable element of the Japanese landscape, made familiar to the world through the paintings of Hokusai and Hiroshige. In the southern part of this zone the camphor-tree (*Cinnamomum camphora*) is abundant. The hemp-palm (*Trachycarpus excelsa*), the Nagi (*Podocarpus nagi*), the banana plant (*Musa basjoo*) and the cycad are planted as ornamental trees, and grow to a good size. Agricultural plants in this zone are rice, barley, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the field cabbage (*Brassica campestris*), colza, cotton (*Gossypium herbaceum*), indigo-plant, tea-plant, mulberry-tree, mandarin orange, as well as the sugar-cane and the potato. In this zone there is only one rice crop a year while in the first zone it is harvested twice a year.

III. The Temperate Forest Zone The temperate forest zone, or beech-tree zone, lies north of the 2nd zone in the Main Island, the south-western part of Hokkaido, more than half of its whole area, and in the mountainous portions of Chosen; it begins at 37.5 degrees north latitude at the coast and 35° in the Main Island, and ends at 43.5° in the central part of Hokkaido. The temperature of these areas is from 6° to 13° C. (42°-56° F.). In Taiwan, the mountain valleys

which are between 1,800 and 4,550 m. above sea level belong to this zone, and there grow the cryptomeria, the *Picea jezoensis*, the hemlock and the Taiwan five-leaf pine (*Pinus parviflora*). The representative species of this zone in the Main Island is the beech, but it is almost extinct because of commercial exploitation. In Niigata prefecture grow many species of deciduous latifoliate trees, such as the oak (*Quercus glanduliflora*), the *Quercus crispula* and the horse-chestnut (*Aesculus turbinata*), while among these, in some places are found varieties of acer trees such as the Japanese cypress, the *Chamaecyparis obtusa*, the hatchet leaved arborvitae (*Thujaopsis dolabrata*), the fir (*Abies firma*), the *Tsuga Sieboldii*, the *Abies homolepis*, the Chosen pine (*Pinus koraiensis*), the *Larix kaempferi*, and the luke. The timber line of this zone is 4,550 m. in Taiwan,—Kyushu, Chugoku, Kinki or the Kyoto-Osaka districts have no mountain which rises above this line; 2,060 m. in Shikoku; 1,700-1,760 m. in Shizuoka prefecture; 1,500 m. in Nagano and Yamanashi prefectures; 1,400-1,060 m. in the northern districts of the Main Island; 450 m. in the southern part of Hokkaido, and down to sea level in the center of Hokkaido.

The agricultural plants in this zone are barley, wheat, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the *Panicum frumentaceum* and the peanut. In the north rice is often subject to damage from early frost. The forests in the southern half of this zone are the most beautiful in Japan, especially those sections dominated by trees of the Kiso valley, namely the Japanese cypress, the *Thuja standishii*, the *Thujaopsis dolabrata*, and the *Sciadoptis verticillata*. The cryptomeria forms vast natural forests in Akita prefecture.

IV. The Arctic Forest Zone The arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir zone, occupies the mountain elevations above 4,500 m. in Taiwan, and does not exist in Kyushu, except in small patches above 900 m. on the mountains. In the central part of Japan, Fuji, Ontaké, the Nikko and many other mountains are in this zone, while in Shikoku the belt lies between 1,300 m. to 2,580 m. The *Abies veitchii*, the fir-tree (*Abies sachalinensis*), the hemlock, the *Larix kaempferi*, the *Abies firma*, the yew-tree, the *Alnus firma*, the *Sorbaria randatensis* and the Alpine-rose (*Rhododendron himalayense*) grow in

this zone, but the principal trees differ according to districts. In Taiwan, the *Abies sachalinensis* is the principal tree, the *Abies veitchii* on Kiso, Fuji, the Nikko and other high mountains located within 40 degrees north latitude in the Main Island; the *Abies firma* and the *Larix kaempferi* in the districts further north, and the *Abies sachalinensis* again in Aomori prefecture. In Hokkaido and Karafuto the *Abies sachalinensis* and the spruce (*Picea ajanensis*) grow plentifully, but are not found in the Main Island. In addition, in Karafuto, the larch flourishes, as also does the *Juniperus chinensis* along the seashore.

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Chosen As may be inferred from the geographical relation existing between the continent and the peninsula on the one hand and between the latter and Japan on the other, the flora of the northern part (38°-43° N. Lat.) of the peninsula bears a great resemblance to that of the eastern Asiatic continent, while the flora of the southern part has a close resemblance with that of the western part of the Main Island of Japan.

Dense forests of conifers are frequently seen in the northern districts. *Pinus koraiensis* is a species commonly found there. The flora of the northern half has many northern elements and bears a close relation to the flora of Manchuria and Siberia.

Elements characteristic of northern China are also to be found in the flora of the western part of Chosen. Endemic genera are comparatively few,—a characteristic of continental floras. Among the endemic genera, Hanabusaya Nakai and Chosenia Nakai may be mentioned

	Above Sea Level (m.)	Area (Sq. km.)	Depth (m.)
Tominaiko	0	168.18	34.0
Tofuchiko	0	40.43	6.4
Kuchishiko	0	34.77	3.7
Waiko	0	34.18	6.4
Chibesaniko	0	11.20	7.7
Ontoko	0	7.61	4.6
Taiwan			
Takaokanko	1.2	22.66	1.2
Jitsugotsutan	5.2	4.44	5.2
Chosen			
Hiroko	—	13.28	—
Kashihashiko	—	8.27	—
Amaké	—	7.74	—
Choenko	—	7.42	—

Flora

In summer the southern part of Japan experiences tropical weather, while in winter the districts north of the north-eastern provinces are subject to arctic cold. But owing to ample rainfall, the growth of plants in Japan is in general very rich, yet agriculture occupies so large a proportion of area as to restrict not only the natural distribution of flora and fauna, but a scientific study of the subject as well.

The flora of Japan is by most botanists divided into four zones:

- Tropical forest zone, or the banian (*Ficus retusa*) zone.
- Subtropical forest zone, or the kashi (*Quercus acuta*) zone.
- Temperate forest zone, or the beech-tree (*Fagus Sieboldii*) zone.
- Arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir (*Pinus pumila*) zone.

I. The Tropical Forest Zone The tropical forest zone, or the banian zone, covers those portions of the plain of Taiwan lower than 450 m. above sea level, as well as the Ryukyu, Ogasawara, Sulphur and the South Sea Islands. The aerial roots of the *Ficus retusa* are not so large as those of the banian in India, but the species grows in abundance and to a great height, sending down its aerial roots into the ground like the tentacles of an octopus. In some parts of Sulphur Islands, the Ryukyu Islands and Taiwan it forms impenetrable forests. The coconut tree is rare but grows well. In Taiwan the pineapple thrives naturally, while the Agave American grows quite tall. The cycad (*Cycas revoluta*), the tree fern (*Cyathea spinulosa*), the coffee plant (*Coffea Arabica*), the gum tree, the orange tree,

the sugarcane, the mangifera (*Mangifera Indica*) and the papaw-tree (*Carica papaya*) grow luxuriantly.

II. The Subtropical Forest Zone The subtropical forest zone, or the oak zone is limited to altitudes of from 450 to 1,800 m. in Taiwan, and as low as sea level in the northern half of the Ryukyu Islands. The plains of Kyushu, Shikoku, that part of the Main Island south of 35 degrees North Latitude, and the southern half of the Chosen peninsula belong to this zone, the temperature here being from 13° to 21°C. (55° to 70°F), and the altitude below 1,120 m. at Mount Kirishima in Kyushu; 650 m. in the northern part of the same island; 760 m. in Shikoku, 600 m. in Chugoku or west of Kobé; 500 m. in the Tokaido districts; and 460 m. at Tsukuba-yama in the Kanto district.

Plants peculiar to this zone are those which belong to such species as the camphor-tree, the oak, the camellia, and the Ternstroemia Japonica, evergreen and latifoliate. On sandy shores, where the sea wind is strong, the black pine (*Pinus thunbergii*) grows, with spreading, contorted branches, an indispensable element of the Japanese landscape, made familiar to the world through the paintings of Hokusai and Hiroshige. In the southern part of this zone the camphor-tree (*Cinnamomum camphora*) is abundant. The hemp-palm (*Trachycarpus excolaa*), the Nagi (*Podocarpus nagi*), the banana plant (*Musa basjoo*) and the cycad are planted as ornamental trees, and grow to a good size. Agricultural plants in this zone are rice, barley, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the field cabbage (*Brassica campestris*), volza, cotton (*Gossypium herbaceum*), indigo-plant, tea-plant, mulberry-tree, mandarin orange, as well as the sugar-cane and the potato. In this zone there is only one rice crop a year while in the first zone it is harvested twice a year.

III. The Temperate Forest Zone The temperate forest zone, or beech-tree zone, lies north of the 2nd zone in the Main Island, the south-western part of Hokkaido, more than half of its whole area, and in the mountainous portions of Chosen; it begins at 37.5 degrees north latitude at the coast and 35° in the Main Island, and ends at 43.5° in the central part of Hokkaido. The temperature of these areas is from 6° to 13° C. (42°-56° F.). In Taiwan, the mountain valleys

which are between 1,800 and 4,550 m. above sea level belong to this zone, and there grow the crytomeria, the Picea jezoensis, the hemlock and the Taiwan five-leaf pine (*Pinus parviflora*). The representative species of this zone in the Main Island is the beech, but it is almost extinct because of commercial exploitation. In Niigata prefecture grow many species of deciduous latifoliate trees, such as the oak (*Quercus glandulifera*), the *Quercus crispula* and the horse-chestnut (*Aesculus turbinata*), while among these, in some places are found varieties of acerous trees such as the Japanese cypress, the *Chamaecyparis obtusa*, the hatchet leaved arborvitae (*Thujaopsis dolabrata*), the fir (*Abies firma*), the Tsuga Sieboldii, the *Abies homolepis*, the Chosen pine (*Pinus koraiensis*), the Larix kaempferi, and the like. The timber line of this zone is 4,550 m. in Taiwan,—Kyushu, Chugoku, Kinki or the Kyoto-Osaka districts have no mountain which rises above this line; 2,060 m. in Shikoku; 1,700-1,760 m. in Shizuoka prefecture; 1,500 m. in Nagano and Yamanashi prefectures; 1,400-1,600 m. in the northern districts of the Main Island; 450 m. in the southern part of Hokkaido, and down to sea level in the center of Hokkaido.

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as the most interesting. Both genera are monotypic, the former belonging to the family Campanulacæ, and the latter to the family Saliacæ.

The South Sea Islands *Pamphis acidula*, *Scaevola frutescens* and *Tournefortia argentea* grow on the shore. Coconut palms and screw pines grow among the littoral bushes. *Allophylus timorensis* and *Wedelia biflora* are the most common species and form a dense growth in the interior of the islands. Generally speaking, the flora of the islands is extremely poor as far as the number of species is concerned. This suggests that it is of comparatively recent origin.

Classification For a full classification of nearly 20,000 species of Japanese flora we refer to the "Illustrated Book of Botany" published by a Tokyo Botanical Association.

Fuji, Sakura, Sumiré, Susuki, and Kiku

According to Dr. Makino species of the phanerogamæ alone number from 8,000 to 10,000 in Japan proper. Among this great number of plants, there are many which are specially Japanese and unique in the botanical world. Several of the most prominent of these plants are briefly dealt with in the following paragraphs.

Fuji (*Kraunhia floribunda*) Fuji or wistaria is a plant peculiar to Japan. Chinese wistaria differs from that of Japan, and strangely enough no Chinese wistaria is transplanted in Japan, while it is found in Europe and America. The Chinese wistaria is the so-called *murasaki fuji*, or purple wistaria.

The Japanese wistaria is divided into two species, viz. fuji and yama fuji (*Kraunhia brachybotrya*), or wild wistaria. Both grow in mountains, but are often cultivated in gardens. Yama fuji grows wild in Shikoku, Kyushu, and Chugoku and their vines are sinistral. Its flower is larger in size, but the raceme is short. Some yama fuji found in nurseries have white flowers and are called *shira fuji*, or white wistaria. It is a variety of yama fuji. The ordinary fuji grows wild all over Japan and its vines are dextral. Wistaria found in Nara Park and that in Kasukabé in Saitama prefecture belong to this species. Its flower-clusters sometimes measure several feet long.

Sakura Sakura, or cherry-blossom, is

celebrated in Japan from olden times. Yama-zakura (zakura is the euphonic form of sakura in the compound), (*Prunus serrulata* var. *spontanea*), or wild cherry blossom, is the most important of all species of cherry blossoms.

This species grows in the districts stretching from Kyushu in the south to Kinki (near Kyoto) in the Main Island. Many places which are noted for this sakura are found in the belt lying between these two districts. The most famous of them is Yoshino Yama near Nara.

Certain scientists have attempted to call it *shiro yamazakura*, or white wild cherry, because they have the name of *beni yamazakura*, or red wild cherry, to the other species. But the name *ôyamazakura* (*Prunus serrulata* var. *sachalinensis*) has already been given to this red wild cherry.

Ôyamazakura grows in the mountain districts of the Central provinces, Tohoku, Hokkaido and Karafuto.

The ordinary yamazakura grow in mountains and are planted in public and private gardens or along public roads.

The so-called *satozakura*, or village cherry, does not grow in the mountains. They must have varied from the original yamazakura.

The sakura which is called Yoshino-zakura by florists and is widespread today all over the country with Tokyo as the center, is known as *somei-yoshino* (*Prunus yedoensis*), among botanists. It appeared in Tokyo at the beginning of the Meiji Era. But where florists at Somei got its seedlings is not known. It was about 1872 that they were planted in Ueno Park.

The *somei-yoshino* was found only in Tokyo up till 1902, when it was transplanted elsewhere.

Higan-zakura belongs to a different species. It is divided into two classes in botany. The trunk of one class is large, while that of the other is small. The former is found in Ueno Park, Tokyo, and the latter is rarely seen in the Kanto district.

The small *higan-zakura*, however, is found everywhere in Kansai (West Mainland) district and its blossoms are prettier than the other variety.

The large *higan-zakura* is not found in such great numbers as the other. *Jindai-zakura* of Nagano, and *Ishiwari-zakura* of Iwaté belong to this species. *Shidaré-zakura* (the willow sakura) also

comes from this species and is called *azuma-higan*.

Sumiré (*Viola mandshurica*) The species of *sumiré* is called *viola* in botany and *violet* is the popular English name; while *sumiré* is the popular Japanese name. This name is said to have derived from the carpenter's "sumitsubo" or *sumirô*, or India inkstand made of wood resembling the flower in shape. Hence "sumiré" became gradually "sumiré."

In botany, *sumiré* is restricted to a species with flowers of deep purple-colour. Varieties are *ko-sumiré*, *tsubo-sumiré* (*Viola verecunda*), *tachitsubo-sumiré* (*Viola grypoceras*) *akané-sumiré* (*Viola phalaecarpa*), *ezo-sumiré*, *Ki-sumiré*, *tsukushi-sumiré* (*Viola diffusa*), etc.

In Japan there are more than a hundred species. No other country in the world compares with Japan in this respect.

Susuki (*Miscanthus sinensis*) *Susuki*, or pampass grass is called in some places *kaya*. The tassel-like bunches of its flowers are called "obana," which is included among *Nanakusa*, or seven herbs. (See Chap. XXXVII, Calendar of Annual Events).

The graceful form of *susuki* with *obana* on them has been the subject of many celebrated poems. *Susuki* grows abundantly on mountains and in fields.

Kiku (*Chrysanthemum sinense*) *Kiku* or *chrysanthemum* is a celebrated flower in Japan. It is the national flower and is used as the Imperial crest.

The Chinese *chrysanthemum*, from which the Japanese *kiku* is derived, had been cultivated in China before it was transplanted to Japan.

The scientific name of this flower is *Chrysanthemum sinense*. *Sinense* is the name of the species and means China. *Chrysanthemum sinense* means the Chinese *chrysanthemum* and *Chrysanthemum japonicum*, is the scientific name of the Japanese *chrysanthemum* or *ryûno-giku*. *Chrysanthemum arcticum*, or arctic *chrysanthemum*, is the scientific name for *kohamagiku*.

The *chrysanthemums* which were cultivated by Chinese horticulturists were brought into Japan and grew into countless varieties of the *chrysanthemum* of today. In 1884 it was found by Dr. T. Makino, that the original *Chrysanthemum sinense*, which were thought to have existed only in the old China, grows in Ryukyu Islands, Kyushu, Shikoku and

the part of the Main Island west of Kobé. He gave it the name of *nojigiku* (*Chrysanthemum sinense* var. *japonense*).

Fauna

Japan possesses an exceedingly rich and varied fauna closely related to the adjacent continent and classified into two principal groups, the Palearctic, and the Oriental. Of these the Palearctic elements are chiefly found in the northern territories, such as the Kuriles, Karafuto, Hokkaido, Japan proper, and Chosen, while the Oriental ones range over the islands of Taiwan and Ryukyu.

Because birds and animals can move their habitat it is more difficult to classify them but, in general, Taiwan, the Ryukyu, and the Ogasawara Islands belonging to the so-called Oriental zone, according to the world biological division, and include such tropical animals as the buffalo (*Hubalus bubalis*), the Taiwan leopard (*Felis dardi brachyurus*), the Manis pentadactyla and the big snakes. Tropical insects are found in abundance. In Ryukyu live such rare species as the *Trimeresurus flavoviridis*, a poisonous snake, and the leaf-butterfly (*Kallima inachus formosana*). South of Bird Island, Izu, albatross frequent the blue waters; while in the Ogasawara Islands and southward the Japanese white-eye congregate. On Sulphur Island tropical birds with red tails can often be seen. From Kyushu northward according to the biological theory, extends the Palearctic zone with its fauna of the Temperate zone, specially domestic animals; while the wild animals found are the antelope (*Capricornis crispus*), deer (*Sika nippon*), wild boar (*Sus leucomystax*), bear (*Ursus torquatus japonicus*), fox (*Vulpes vulpes japonicus*), badger (*Nyctereutes procyonoides*), the *Meles anakuma*, the *Martes melampus*, and the squirrel (*Sciurus lls*). Different species of monkeys are also found. Among birds there are the green pheasant (*Phasianus versicolor versicolor*), copper pheasant (*Graphophasianus soemmerringii scientillae*), snowy heron (*Egretta garzetta garzetta*), hawk (*Astus gentilis schvedowi*, etc.); the crow (*Corvus coronoides japonensis*) is most common. In the northeastern districts of the Main Island, and in the high mountains, are found all the birds of the north, and also such arctic rovers as the hare (*Lepus brachyurus brach-*

yurus) and the ptarmigan (*Lagopus mutus japonicus*) both of which become white in winter. In Chosen, the hedgehog (*Erinaceus koreanus*), tiger (*Felis tigris coreensis*), Chosen pheasant (*Phasianus colchicus karpowi*), crane (*Megalonis japonensis*) and the like are seen.

As there is a wide difference between the kinds of animals in the Main Island and Chosen, so also is there quite a difference between those of the Main Island and Hokkaido. In Hokkaido the monkey is no longer seen; the Hokkaido bear (*Ursus arctos yesoensis*) takes the place of the bear (*Ursus torquatus japonicus*); while the species of deer, rat, squirrel and ptarmigan are unlike those of the Main Island.

Karafuto again differs from Hokkaido in its species of animals. The rat, squirrel and the *Ursus arctos yesoensis* are the same, but there are also such species as musk-deer (*Moschus moschiferus parvipes*) and wild cat (*Lynx lynx borealis*), while in winter the tiger comes across the frozen sea from the nearby continent.

Coming to the urodele, there are various species, the majority of them being considered as peculiar and finding their homes in the southern district. Such species are represented by *Hynobius peropus*, which is found at high denburgi, etc. One of the most noteworthy is the giant salamander (*Megalobatrachus japonicus*), which inhabits the cool mountain streams of provinces in Honshu, south of Gifu, and also in Kyushu. As the representative of the northern district may be recorded *Hynobius peropus*, which is found at high altitudes. Extensively distributed in Japan proper are *Diemictylus pyrrhogaster* and *Onychodactylus japonicus*, the former being the commonest of all.

Freshwater fishes are known for their immense variety of species, but many of them appear to be rather limited in distribution. Some are confined to particular river valleys, others inhabit the lakes of a limited district only, while still others are restricted to a comparatively narrow area. Generally speaking, the following species inhabit the southern districts: *Achellognathus limbatus*, *Sarcophilichthys variegatus*, *Opsarichthys uncirostris*, *Zacco temminskii*, *Brittosus kawamebari*, *Steyopterus japonicus*, *Rhinogobius hadropterus*, etc. Ranging over the northern area are found such species as *Oncorhynchus*, *Pseudoperlam-*

pus typus, *Chloea senbae*, etc. Widely spread over Japan proper occurs ayu or *Plecoglossus altivelis*. The river Nagara, in Gifu prefecture, is famous for its fishing with the cormorant.

MARINE FAUNA

Greatly influenced by ocean currents Japanese waters command a very rich and varied marine fauna, there being found two types of animal life, the northern and the southern. Neglecting here some southern and northern elements, which have their northern limits in the Behring Sea and the southern off the Ogasawara group respectively, the following three faunal areas may be more or less clearly recognized, though contiguous zones blend one into the other.

Northern Zone (Chishima to Kinkazan) This district is frankly subarctic, containing animals characteristic of the Behring Sea on the one hand, and of the Okhotsk Sea on the other. Amongst the carnivorous mammals the sea otter (*Enhydra lutris*) is circumpolar in range, being confined to the north of Hokkaido, while the Steller sea lion (*Eumetopias jubata*) and several seals (*Phoca vitulina*, *Ph. fasciata*, etc.) frequent the more southern waters, some of them occasionally appearing in the seas off Hokkaido and Amurland. The northern fur seal (*Callorhynchus ursinus*) which is of economic importance particularly abounds in Kaihyo-to (Seal I.), a small island near Saghalien and also on some islands of the Chishima group.

Turning to cetacea, there are three whalebone whales, such as *Balaena glacialis*, *B. mysticetus*, and *Rhachianectes glaucus*.

Around the Chishima group, Hokkaido, and Saghalien are found in immense quantities fishes like the cod, salmon, and herring.

In comparatively shallower waters are found some ascidians, like *Halocynthia roretzi*, *Chelyosoma siboga*, *Molgula crystallina*, *M. redikorzevi*, etc. The first two are largely eaten in this country. Much less developed here than in the tropics are a number of echinoderms.

Ranging from the Behring Sea to the Japan Sea occurs *Paralithodes camtschatica*. Its famous fishing grounds are the coasts of Kunashir and Saghalien. With this is associated the most edible crab, *Chionectes opilio*.

A large number of molluscs are found in this district, of which the most valuable species are *Ostrea gigas*, *Naetar sachalinensis*, *Pecten yesoensis*, *Ommastrephes sloani pacificus*, etc.

Amongst medusae, such forms as *Halleclystus* spp., *Aurelia limbata*, *Cyanea* spp., *Chrysaora* spp., *Staurophora discaldea*, and *Sarsia* spp. frequent the northern waters.

Middle Zone (Kinkazan to Shimonoseki) In this district the arctic or subarctic overlaps the tropical or subtropical fauna, there being distinguished a great variety of animals. Most of the types characteristically Japanese belong here, abounding in rock pools and about the rocky islands. Setting aside some mammals, northern and southern, some whalebone whales may be recorded here. The blue whale (*Balaenoptera Sieboldi*) which is of wide distribution and of migratory habits, appears off Kinkazan and Hokkaido in summer, and about Shikoku and Kyushu in winter. Swimming in schools in the seas around Japan proper and Hokkaido is found the common finwhale (*Bal. physalus*) which appears in the north in summer, and in the south in winter. The Sei whale (*Bal. borealis*) has a range almost similar to the preceding, extending from the southern Kuriles in the north to as far south as the Goto group. Their famous hunting grounds are off the southern Kuriles, Nemuro in Hokkaido, Kinkazan, the Shionomisaki, the Goto group, and Chosen.

Here intruded from the southern seas are found a few species of reptiles, like *Disteria cyanocincta*, *Hydrus platulus*, *Caretta olivacea*, and *Eretmochelys squamosa* which sometimes extend north up to Hokkaido.

The chief species of fishes, the occurrence of which marks this zone off from the others, may be said to be *Cynias manazo*, *Hyporhamphus sajori*, *Apogon semilineatus*, *Halichoeres poecilopterus*, etc. Some valuable fishes, as the Japanese porgy, bonito and tunny are caught here in immense quantities. Of scombroid fishes, *Scomber japonicus* and *Thunnus orientalis* are found on both sides, the Pacific and the Japan Sea, extending from Saghalien and Hokkaido in the north to the East China Sea in the south. Besides, this district abounds in sardine (*Sardinea melanosticta*), which is replaced in the north by the herring and

in the south by *Etrumeus micropus*. *Engraulis japonicus* also occurs in great abundance, having a range somewhat wider than the sardine. Here it may be noticed that, assuming the Boso peninsula near Tokyo to be a boundary, the species of the northern area gradually drop off, and the species of the southern area become more and more conspicuous. The reverse is true of the southern elements.

Amongst ascidians there are some species like *Halocynthia karasboya*, *Microcosmus hartmeyerii*, *Styela kroboja*, etc.

Echinoderms are plentiful, being comprised of a number of interesting species of *Ophiostiba hidekii*, *Asteroschema japonicum*, brittle-stars, sea-urchins, and sea-cucumbers.

Amongst crustaceans, one of the most notable is a giant crab, *Macrocheira kaempferi*, which appears to be confined to this zone, on the Pacific side. *Neptunus trituberculatus* is also endemic and ranges all around Japan proper. Having a range nearly similar to the giant crab is an edible spiny lobster, *Pallinurus japonicus*. Besides, there is a good catch of penaeid prawns which are decidedly stragglers from the southern zone.

In the Japan Sea the water is by no means simple or isolated, but compound and connected with those of other seas. Of fishes the bonito and *Euthynnus* are scarcely found in the Sea. Some crabs, like *Chionectes opilio*, etc., are of great commercial value and huge quantities are caught. Besides, some shrimps and prawns, belonging to the genera *Pandalus* and *Crangon*, are also found in abundance. Amongst the cephalopods, one of the most notable is an oegopsid, *Watasenia scintillans*, which emits luminescence. It appears abundantly in Toyama Bay, about May. *Ommastrephes sloani pacificus* is thickly and extensively distributed in the Sea, its thickest distribution roughly coinciding with the extension of the Tsushima stream.

Southern Zone The fauna about Kyushu and Shikoku is less characteristically Japanese, having much in common with the neighboring shores of the islands of Ogasawara, Ryukyu, and Taiwan, where there are forms which are almost or quite identical with those met with about the southern islands of Java, Celebes, Borneo, etc.

Exclusive of the hair seal (*Zalophus lobatus*), occasionally appearing in this zone, there can be seen a few species of whalebone whales and toothed whales.

Extensively spread over this zone are some species of reptiles, such as *Laticauda laticaudata*, *L. colubrina*, *Emydocephalus* (*Jimae*), *Distelra melanoccephala*, etc., most of them being found not to range over to the middle zone.

Of fishes there is a number of forms which are of great economic importance. Of scombroid fishes, such forms as *Rastrelliger chrysozonus*, *Grammatoreynus bilineatus*, and *Gymnosarda nuda* which inhabit the tropical seas have their range to Ryukyu; *Acanthocyblum solandri* and *Euthynnus yalto* are spread, on the Pacific side, into the middle zone; and *Katsuwonus pelamis* is of very wide distribution, ranging from Taiwan to Hokkaido, on the Pacific side, and to middle Honshu, on the Japan Sea side, though very few in number. *Cyblum chinense* and *Sarda orientalis* are rather abundant about Kyushu, but they are found in northern Honshu, both off the Pacific and the Japan Sea coasts. Of other important fishes, *Pagrosomus major*, *Eynnus cardinalis* and *Talus tumifrons* are distributed from Taiwan to middle Honshu. Besides, some forms like *Embolichthys mitsukurii*, *Halleboeres opercularis*, *Chaetodon setifer*, *Ch. vagabundus*, and others are found to extend to, or about southern Kyushu;

Kuhlia marginata ranges from the southern seas to Izu, and *Safole toniura* to Misaki.

As they proceed southwards, ascidians seek a lower level of the sea for their habitat. Echinoderms are very much in evidence, presenting a number of species which inhabit the southern tropical seas. Some crabs like *Scylla serrata*, *Neptunus pelagicus* and *Trapezia* extend their range northwards to about Ryukyu and Kyushu.

Ranging from off the Goto group to the Kumano Sea is a famous coral-bed, where there are such forms as *Corallium japonicum*, *C. elatius*, *C. konojoi*, and *C. inutje*. The first two corals are also found forming a bed in the waters near the Ogasawara group, as well as north to Taiwan.

The sponges are very rich and varied. The sponge of some commercial value is represented by *Euspongia irregularis*, which abounds in the southern seas.

Classification. For the classification of more than 20,000 species of animals in Japan see the "Illustrated Book of Japanese Animals," by Mr. S. Uchida and others.

Earthquakes

Italy and Japan are the two countries in the world which are most frequented by earthquakes. But earthquakes are usually harmless, and only 14 major ones are recorded in the past three centuries, the Kanto Earthquake and Fire of 1923 leading the list.

GREAT EARTHQUAKES IN JAPAN

Date	A.D. Japanese Year	Districts	Number of Persons killed
Jan. 31	1605 (Keicho 9)	Pacific coasts from Kyushu to Tokyo Bay	8,800
Sept. 27	1611 (Keicho 16)	Aizu (North east district)	3,700
Dec. 2	1611 (Keicho 16)	North-east and Hokkaido coasts	4,783
Dec. 31	1703 (Genroku 16)	Tokyo and Tokaido district	5,233
Oct. 28	1707 (Kan-éi 4)	Pacific coasts of Central district	4,900
May 21	1792 (Kanséi 4)	Mt. Unzen (Kyushu)	15,200
May 8	1847 (Koka 4)	Nagano and Niigata prefectures	12,000
Dec. 24	1854 (Anséi 1)	Kyushu, Shikoku, Isé	3,000
Nov. 11	1855 (Anséi 2)	Tokyo and vicinity	7,000
Oct. 28	1891 (Meiji 24)	Gifu and Aichi prefectures	7,275
June 15	1896 (Meiji 29)	Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori prefectures	27,122
Sept. 1	1923 (Taisho 12)	Kanto district	44,279
March 7	1927 (Showa 2)	Western Kyoto prefecture	3,017
April 21	1935 (Showa 10)	Shinchiku, Taichu in Taiwan	3,185

CHAPTER II POPULATION

CHAPTER II

POPULATION

General Survey

The outstanding aspects of the population of Japan are that it has virtually trebled in the past 65 years, that the excess of its birth rate over the death rate is one of the highest in the world, and that its density (199 per square kilometer) is such that the land within Japan proper leaves scant room for expansion.

(This chapter deals mainly with the population of Japan proper, because that of each territory is given in its own chapter.)

The fifth quinquennial national census, taken on October 1, 1940, showed a total population for the Empire of 105,226,101 including Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Mandated Islands. Though lack of statistics makes it impossible to trace the growth with any accuracy from early days, it has been variously estimated that in the 7th and 8th centuries the population ranged between 5,000,000 and 8,000,000 or 9,000,000. Figures compiled at regular intervals between 1721 and 1846, despite their understatement of the actual population because of certain known omissions, indicate comparative stability at about 26,000,000 for more than a century preceding the Meiji Restoration.

The first estimate of population after the Restoration, made in 1872, was roughly 33,000,000. By 1889, the total was 40,000,000, and the 50,000,000 mark was passed in Japan proper about 1909. Each decade showed an accelerated increase:

1870-1880	5%	1900-1910	12%
1880-1890	7.6%	1910-1920	13%
1890-1900	10%	1920-1930	15%

This increase, it is to be noted, started with the opening of the country to world commerce and parallel Japanese economic expansion. As means of subsistence gained, so did the size of the population. The death rate did not drop appreciably until recent years, but the birth rate, in contrast with that in other leading nations, became higher, jumping from 17 per 1,000 of population in 1872 to 32.36 per 1,000 in 1930, with a peak of 36.2 in 1920.

But the records of recent years show an adverse tendency in the population of Japan proper, the birth rate falling from 32.36 in 1930 to 30.18 in 1935 according to the census figures. With a total area of 382,560.83 square kilometers, Japan proper has a population density of 199 persons to the square kilometer in 1940.

In 1935 the average number of the members of a household in Japan proper was 5.1. It differs according to districts. In the eastern districts, from Toyama, Nagano to Hokkaido, it was from 5 to 6, the north-eastern prefectures heading the list with their average of 6. In the western districts, that is to say, Ishikawa, Aichi, Kyoto, Osaka, Chugoku (western prefectures of the Main Island), and Shikoku, it was below 5, the lowest being Yamaguchi and Kochi prefectures with 4.6. Classified in accordance with prefectures, those prefectures which have big cities show a much smaller average, Tokyo being 4.8, Osaka 4.6, Kyoto and Hyogo (Kobé) 4.7. This phenomenon is evidently occasioned by the social and economic conditions in city life which necessitate a small-family system.

POPULATION OF THE EMPIRE
According to the Census of October 1, 1930

	Total Population	Male	Female	Popula- tion per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	90,396,043	45,675,654	44,720,389	134	102.1
Japan proper	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850	169	101.0
Chosen	21,058,305	10,763,679	10,294,626	95	104.6
Taiwan	4,592,537	2,353,288	2,239,249	128	105.1

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Karafuto	295,196	168,532	126,664	8	133.1
Kwantung Leased Territory and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,328,011	809,044	518,967	355	155.9
South Sea Mandated Islands	69,626	37,929	31,697	32	119.7

According to the Census of October 1, 1935

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per sq. km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	97,697,555	49,242,822	48,454,733	145	101.6
Japan proper	69,254,148	34,734,133	34,520,015	181	100.0
Chosen	22,899,038	11,662,645	11,236,393	104	103.8
Taiwan	5,212,426	2,659,819	2,552,607	145	104.2
Karafuto	331,943	186,225	145,718	0	127.8
Kwantung Leased Territory and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,656,726	995,447	661,279	441	150.5
South Sea Mandated Islands	102,537	57,333	45,204	48	126.8

ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF OCTOBER 1, 1940

	Total Population	Male	Female	Population per Sq. Km.	Men to 100 Women
Empire	105,226,101	52,896,862	52,329,239	154	101.0
Japan Proper	73,114,308	36,566,010	36,548,297	199	100.0
Chosen	24,326,327	12,266,230	12,060,097	110	101.7
Taiwan	5,872,084	2,970,655	2,901,429	163	102.4
Karafuto	414,891	239,835	175,056	11	137.0
Kwantung Leased Territory	1,367,334	781,592	585,742	406	133.4
South Sea Mandated Islands	131,157	72,540	58,617	61	123.7

Note: Those persons who were in defense services in regions outside the Empire on October 1 are also included in the above figures.

POPULATION ACCORDING TO THE NATIONAL CENSUS OF OCT. 1, 1940

The results of the national census conducted on October 1, 1940 were published by the Cabinet Statistics Bureau on April 18, 1941. According to the report, the total number of people living on that day in Japan proper, Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Mandated Islands, was 105,226,101, consisting of 52,896,862 men and 52,329,239 women; of which those who lived in Japan proper numbered 73,114,308.

Quinquennial Increase The number and rate of increase since the first national census of 1920 are as follows:

Quinquennial Increase of Population

	Oct. 1, 1920	Empire	Japan Proper
1920	77,728,731	55,963,053	
1925	84,278,999	59,736,822	
Number increased	6,550,268	3,773,769	
Rate of increase	8.4%	6.7%	
1930	91,421,410	64,450,005	
Number increased	7,142,411	4,713,183	
Rate of increase	8.5%	7.9%	
1935	98,934,173	69,254,148	
Number increased	7,512,763	4,804,143	
Rate of increase	8.2%	7.5%	
1940	105,226,101	73,114,308	
Number increased	6,291,928	3,860,160	
Rate of increase	6.4%	5.6%	

(Note: For purposes of comparison, the figures are exclusive of the population in the South Manchuria Railway Zone, extinct since 1937.

Both in the actual number and the rate of increase, the last quinquennial census recorded a decrease as compared with former quinquennial figures.

The population of Japan proper in 1940 increased by 3,860,000 as compared with 1935, an increase similar to that of the 5 years between 1920 and 1925 so far as the number is concerned. But it is about one million less than other quinquennial increases, the inevitable effect of the China Affair on the rate of increase and the greater movement of people to the continental countries in recent years.

According to different prefectures, those prefectures which witnessed an increase of population since 1935 are Tokyo, Kyoto, Osaka, Kanagawa, Hyogo, Nagasaki, Niigata, Saitama, Gumma, Chiba, Ibaraki, Tochigi, Nara, Mie, Aichi, Shizuoka, Yamanashi, Gifu, Miyagi, Fukushima, Iwate, Aomori, Yamagata, Akita, Toyama, Hiroshima, Yamaguchi, Wakayama, Ehime, Fukuoka, Saga, Miyazaki and Hokkaido. Of these 33 districts, those which increased more than 10 per cent are Tokyo (number of increase 985,000), Osaka (495,000), Kanagawa (348,000), Hyogo (297,000), Aichi (303,000) and Fukuoka (338,000); they are

prefectures where the largest economic and industrial centers in Japan are situated.

Those prefectures whose population decreased since 1935 are the 14 prefectures of Shiga, Nagano, Fukui, Ishikawa, Tottori, Shimané, Okayama, Tokushima, Kagawa, Kochi, Oita, Kumamoto, Kagoshima and Okinawa, the greatest decrease being witnessed in Ishikawa, Tokushima, Kagawa, Kumamoto and Okinawa. The fact that all of these prefectures which showed a decrease in population are those which lie to the west of Tokyo district is worthy of note. Another noteworthy fact is that the number of prefectures which decreased in population rose from 3 in 1935 to 14 in 1940, perhaps as a result of the greater movement of people within Japan proper and to the continental countries on account of the improvement of transportation facilities and industrial development in such districts as Tokyo, Osaka, Aichi and Fukuoka.

In regard to the six biggest cities in Japan, Tokyo gained the largest number and Yokohama the largest rate of increase during the last 5 years as indicated below:

INCREASE IN THE SIX BIGGEST CITIES 1935—1940

	1935	1940	Number of Increase	Rate of Increase (%)
1. Tokyo	5,875,667	6,778,804	903,137	15.4
2. Osaka	2,989,874	3,252,340	262,466	8.8
3. Nagoya	1,082,816	1,328,084	243,268	22.7
4. Kyoto	1,080,593	1,089,726	9,133	0.8
5. Yokohama	704,290	968,091	263,801	37.5
6. Kobe	912,179	967,234	55,055	6.0

Divided according to rural and urban areas, the aggregate population in the urban area was 27,577,000 and that in the rural area 45,536,000, showing an increase in the population percentage of urban area, from 31.2 per cent in 1935

to 37.7 per cent in 1940, while that of the countryside decreased from 68.8 per cent in 1935 to 62.3 per cent in 1940, the percentages being in reference to the total population of Japan proper.

INCREASE OF POPULATION OF JAPAN SINCE THE FIRST NATIONAL CENSUS OF OCTOBER 1, 1920

Year	Population of Empire Japan Proper	Others	Births	Japan Proper Deaths	Natural Increase
1920	55,963,053	21,025,326	2,025,564	1,422,096	603,468
1925	59,736,822	23,720,107	2,086,091	1,210,706	875,385
1930	64,450,005	28,946,038	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234
1931	65,366,500	25,354,311	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893

Year	Population of Empire		Births	Japan Proper		Natural Increase
	Japan Proper	Others		Deaths		
1932	66,296,000	27,230,234	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398	
1933	67,238,600	27,641,765	2,121,253	1,193,987	927,266	
1934	68,194,900	28,281,415	2,043,783	1,234,684	809,099	
1935	69,254,148	28,443,407	2,190,704	1,161,936	1,028,768	
1936	70,258,200	27,821,464	2,101,969	1,230,378	871,591	
1937	71,252,800	29,602,601	2,180,734	1,207,899	972,835	
1938	72,222,700	30,066,765	1,928,321	1,259,805	668,516	
1939	72,875,800	—	—	—	—	
1940	73,114,308	32,111,793	—	—	—	

Note:—The National Census has been taken five times, quinquennially, since 1920. For intercensal years figures on population are estimates.

PREFECTURAL POPULATIONS

Prefecture From North to South	Area (sq. km.)	Census Population		Population per sq. km.	Census Population on October 1, 1940
		Households on October 1, 1935	Population on October 1, 1935		
Hokkaido	88,775,036	545,387	3,068,282	35	3,272,718
Aomori	9,630,924	161,823	967,120	100	1,000,509
Iwaté	15,235,306	175,051	1,046,111	69	1,095,793
Miyagi	7,273,754	200,142	1,234,801	170	1,271,238
Akita	11,663,861	175,380	1,037,744	89	1,052,275
Yamagata	9,325,757	184,741	1,116,822	120	1,119,338
Fukushima	13,781,613	272,537	1,581,563	115	1,625,521
Ibaraki	6,090,990	287,676	1,548,991	254	1,620,000
Tochigi	6,436,585	213,082	1,195,057	186	1,206,000
Gumma	6,335,823	225,219	1,242,453	196	1,299,027
Saitama	3,802,700	277,548	1,528,854	402	1,608,039
Chiba	5,078,810	293,939	1,546,394	305	1,588,425
Tokyo	2,144,787	1,287,620	6,369,919	2,970	1,354,971
Kanagawa	2,353,484	358,316	1,840,005	782	2,188,974
Nilgata	12,578,050	355,772	1,995,777	159	2,064,402
Toyama	4,257,419	154,911	798,890	188	822,560
Ishikawa	4,197,513	158,110	768,416	183	757,676
Fukui	4,017,969	133,533	646,659	152	643,904
Yamanashi	4,465,866	124,095	646,726	145	663,026
Nagano	13,626,130	332,730	1,714,000	126	1,710,729
Gifu	10,494,701	244,557	1,225,799	117	1,265,024
Shizuoka	7,769,912	348,139	1,939,860	250	2,017,800
Aichi	5,081,142	569,723	2,862,701	563	3,166,592
Mié	5,765,280	239,812	1,174,595	204	1,198,783
Shiga	4,050,929	151,137	711,436	176	703,679
Kyoto	462,196	353,587	1,702,508	368	1,729,993
Osaka	1,813,631	898,059	4,297,174	2,369	4,792,966
Hyogo	8,322,875	611,066	2,923,249	351	3,221,232
Nara	3,688,600	123,886	620,471	168	620,509
Wakayama	4,723,423	184,753	864,087	183	865,074
Tottori	3,489,481	95,080	490,461	141	484,390
Shimané	6,618,042	157,635	747,119	113	740,940
Okayama	7,046,475	281,761	1,332,647	189	1,329,358
Hiroshima	8,436,517	382,243	1,804,916	214	1,869,504
Yamaguchi	6,082,108	259,129	1,190,542	196	1,294,242
Tokushima	4,143,221	145,835	728,748	176	718,717
Kagawa	1,858,730	152,187	748,656	403	730,394
Ehimé	5,667,108	243,083	1,164,898	206	1,178,705
Kochi	7,103,620	156,373	714,980	101	709,286
Fukuoka	4,939,646	533,779	2,755,804	557	3,094,132

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Households	Census	per sq. km. Population	Census
			Population on October 1, 1935		Population on October 1, 1940
Saga	2,443,897	127,717	686,117	280	701,517
Nagasaki	4,075,777	252,998	1,296,883	318	1,370,063
Kumamoto	7,437,723	261,520	1,387,054	186	1,368,179
Oita	6,333,880	195,351	950,458	155	972,975
Miyazaki	7,738,846	158,432	824,431	107	840,357
Kagoshima	9,103,810	332,623	1,591,466	175	1,589,467
Okinawa	2,386,288	126,287	592,404	248	574,579
Total	382,314,390	13,504,364	69,254,148	181	73,114,308

Note:—Figures for the areas of prefectures slightly differ from those given in the Chapter on Geography which were revised after the Census of 1935.

Races of the Japanese Empire

The Japanese What constitutes the main part of the population of the Empire is the Japanese. Their number, according to the latest national census of 1930, reaches to about 64,400,000 (32,350,000 males and 32,050,000 females), most of whom occupy the main group of the Japanese archipelago, although they are also found scattered in almost every part of the Empire.

Of late, constant emigration and immigration are taking place between Chosen and Japan, but the main population of Chosen is Korean and numbers about 22,000,000 in 1938.

The Ainu inhabit Hokkaido, Chishima (the Kuriles) and the Japanese part of Karafuto (Saghalien).

Most of them are found in Hokkaido, especially in the province of Hitaka, their number being 15,867 in 1938. In Karafuto there were 1,274 in 1938; formerly they lived scattered along the sea coasts of Karafuto, but the government policy made a point of collecting them in a few prescribed Ainu villages for the purpose of better protection. Those in Chishima are very few in number. In Hokkaido, as a result of daily contact with the Japanese, they are greatly mixed and are fast changing their customs and manners to accord with the fashion of their Japanese neighbors.

The Gilyaks, whose home is in the Amur region of Siberia, are also found along the Poronai River in the southern part of the Japanese possession in Saghalien. They call themselves "Nickbun" and were reported in 1938 to be 84 in all. Their affinity with other races is not clear, and they are simply classed as one of the palae-Asiatics.

The Orokes, who inhabit the same region in Saghalien as the Gilyaks, are also immigrants from the mainland of

Asia. They are a branch of the Tungusic group, but are said to show a considerable influence of the Ainu, Gilyaks and also of the Russians. The number of the Orokes was 251 in 1938.

The Inhabitants of Taiwan may be roughly divided into two groups, one is chiefly made up of the Chinese immigrants from Kwangtung and Fukien provinces and occupies the lowland districts and the western half of the island their number being estimated at 5,392,806 in 1938; and the other is made up of the wild hill-tribes inhabiting the mountainous eastern half, and is the more aboriginal of the two. These, on the basis of physical anthropology, ethnology and linguistics, are usually subdivided into eight tribes, namely: Taiyal, Seddaka, Saisset, Tsuou, Bunun, Palwan, Ami and Yami. They were estimated to be 152,350 and belong either to the Malay or to the Indonesian family.

The Natives of Micronesia which is under our mandatory administration, consists of innumerable small islands, some of which are uninhabited; hence, the native population is only about 50,000. The natives of Saipan, Palau, Yap, Truk, Ponape, Kusale, Jaluit, etc., constitute the main part of the population. They are usually divided into two ethnic groups. One is known as the Chamorros and is chiefly found in Saipan, although some have emigrated to the islands of Palau and Yap, and comprised 4,036 in all in 1939. The other, commonly known as the Kanakas, and found scattered in almost every island, numbered 47,687 in 1939.

In addition, it may be said that in the Ogasawara group of islands known as the "Bonin" (corruption of "Mujin" or "Bunin"—uninhabited) there are the naturalized descendants of European and American fishermen, Italian, Eng-

	Population in 1935	Population in 1940
111. Iizuka	39,629	46,685
112. Kishiwada	39,097	46,486
113. Seto	57,553	45,775
114. Toyonaka	24,126	45,013
115. Isahaya	—	44,418
116. Hiratsuka	38,348	43,148
117. Niigama	—	42,392
118. Kamaishi	36,230	42,167
119. Kamakura	29,412	40,151
120. Okaya	—	40,033
121. Isezaki	23,588	40,004
122. Kumagaya	37,649	39,412
123. Mihara	21,130	39,072
124. Tokuyama	32,062	38,419
125. Kawagoé	35,192	38,407
126. Noshiro	25,756	37,054
127. Fujisawa	30,184	36,769
128. Obihiro	35,695	36,555
129. Sanjo	34,649	36,541
130. Ishinomaki	33,530	36,442
131. Hikoné	23,366	36,142
132. Tsuruoka	37,224	35,986
133. Ikeda	31,457	35,494
134. Tamano	—	35,467
135. Matsuzaka	35,661	35,391
136. Tsuyama	36,092	35,111
137. Uéda	35,380	35,069
138. Shikama	—	35,061
139. Yamaguchi	34,803	34,579
140. Sendai (Kago- shima Pref.)	33,354	34,289
141. Yatsushiro	—	33,586
142. Kudamatsu	—	33,212
143. Shingu	32,055	32,403
144. Hagi	32,587	32,270
145. Kurashiki	34,716	32,228
146. Sakata	31,866	31,958
147. Fukuchiyama	22,895	31,848
148. Yawatahama	30,500	31,728
149. Tsuruga	26,828	31,346
150. Karatsu	31,058	31,342
151. Takayama	20,145	31,296
152. Tochigi	31,335	31,195
153. Shimabara	21,892	30,411
154. Takada	31,284	30,152
155. Taira	25,741	30,126
156. Nanao	—	29,986
157. Kashiwazaki	25,521	29,567
158. Sumoto	31,565	29,461
159. Nakatsu	30,328	29,414
160. Kainan	29,917	29,091
161. Kuwana	28,366	28,944
162. Tatéyama	20,547	28,591
163. Iida	17,991	28,494
164. Marugamé	29,615	26,928
165. Tajimi	24,695	26,820
166. Atami	17,768	24,477
167. Shuri	19,305	17,537

CITIES IN TERRITORIES

CHOSEN (Korea)

	1935 (Census)	1937 (Estimate)
Keijō (Seoul)	404,206	706,396
Fusan	180,271	211,142
Heijo	172,746	185,419
Talkyu	105,716	110,866
Jinsen (Chemulpo)	80,420	102,473
Kaijo	53,457	50,595
Shingishu	54,317	51,347
Kankyo	52,634	61,430
Gensan	58,409	63,996
Chinnampo	48,314	48,838
Seishin	50,085	66,958
Moppo	59,046	62,457
Masan	29,858	32,411
Kunsan	41,077	42,851
Talden	36,379	40,001
Zenshu	40,593	42,520
Koshu	52,674	57,461
Saishu	36,188	36,260
Konan	39,092	58,077

TAIWAN

	1935 (Census)	1939 (Estimate)
Taihoku	283,085	340,114
Tainan	107,887	131,070
Kiirun	84,650	100,182
Takao	81,582	118,435
Kagl	70,083	90,235
Taichu	63,414	81,614
Shinchiku	54,100	59,983
Shoka	51,152	58,491
Heito	41,715	53,999

KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY

	1930 (Census)	1936 (Estimate)
Dairen (Dalny)	292,552	377,000
Ryojun (Port Arthur)	33,933	35,000

KARAFUTO

Odomari	33,312	46,200
Toyohara	31,648	47,800

Foreign Residents

The number of foreign residents in Japan proper, for the past 5 years has been as follows:

At	Diplomatic and Consu- lar Corps	Total	Male	Female
1934	400	32,641	21,895	10,746
1935	423	38,475	25,766	12,709
1936	422	40,865	27,502	13,363
1937	419	30,838	19,847	10,991
1938	355	28,857	18,364	10,493

Information given with the 1938 figures shows 6,825 foreigners engaged in commerce; 4,011 in professional work; 2,834 studying; 1,190 in mining and manufacturing; 52 in transportation; 15 in agriculture and forestry; 312 in various other occupations, and 13,618 without occupations.

Emigration

Emigration of the Japanese people to foreign countries other than Manchoukuo and China is decreasing in recent years. In 1937 the total number was 10,744, a decrease of 375 or 3.3 per cent from the previous year. Brazil received the largest number as in preceding years with 4,675 or 43 per cent of the total, a decrease of 682 in actual number and 5 per cent in the similar percentage, while Philippines, the second country of destination for Japanese emigrants in the same year, received 3,876 or 36 per cent, gaining 985 and 10 per cent over the previous year.

In 1937 the total number of the Japan-

ese residing in foreign countries, including Manchoukuo and China, was 1,042,972, an increase of 45,859 or 4.6 per cent over the previous year, and in 1938 it increased to 1,059,913, a gain of 16,939 or 1.6 per cent as compared with 1937.

According to the figures for 1937 merchants comprise the largest number among Japanese foreign residents with 110,291 or 10 per cent of the total, farmers come next with 86,755 or 8 per cent, to be followed by those who are at work in public and private offices, industrialists and those who are engaged in transportation business in the order named.

The figures for 1938 show the fact that larger numbers of the Japanese emigrants are destined toward Manchoukuo and China in recent years, with 513,823 or more than 50 per cent residing in these two countries, an increase of 42,483 or 9 per cent over the previous year. It is said that in 1938-1939 this increasing tendency was further accelerated with an increase of 200,000 for China alone.

EMIGRANTS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES

(Manchoukuo and China excluded)

	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Brazil	5,565	15,092	23,299	22,060	5,745	5,357	4,675
Philippines	1,100	747	941	1,544	1,802	2,891	3,876
Peru	299	369	481	473	814	593	166
Canada	106	98	1	105	57	82	109
U.S.S.R.	1,238	1,096	1,095	1,320	322	297	259
Straits Settlements	549	356	322	598	583	534	414
Mexico	283	149	85	80	53	62	65
Argentina	362	239	135	112	201	349	307
Dutch E. Indies	447	533	468	356	389	145	131
Australia	34	92	59	105	92	223	222
Others	392	262	341	434	755	586	520
Total	10,384	19,033	27,317	28,087	10,813	11,119	10,744

JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

	Total	Male	Female
1935	689,818	398,060	291,758
1936	997,115	561,590	435,525
1937	1,042,974	592,216	450,758
1938	1,059,913	598,490	461,423
1939	1,321,395	—	—

	Male	Female
Man. Industry	39,582	2,937
Commerce	86,179	24,112
Transportation	35,158	1,410
Public and private professions	43,273	5,775
Domestic works	6,876	7,732
Other occupations	15,172	3,655
Without occupation	268,181	401,917
Total	592,216	450,758

JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES BY OCCUPATION
October 1, 1937

	Male	Female
Agriculture	83,862	2,893
Fisheries	8,177	129
Mining	5,756	198

JAPANESE RESIDENTS IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES (1939)

Asia	
Manchoukuo	491,947
China & Hongkong	105,902
South Sea Islands	41,950

Other countries	1,524
Total	641,323
North & South America	
North America	264,771
Hawaii	151,199
Canada	23,045
Brazil	199,880
Other countries	36,512
Total	675,407
European countries	2,577
Australia & the others	1,869
Africa	219
Grand total	1,321,395

Population Plan

In order to realize a greater increase of population in Japan proper, competent authorities of the Planning Board, the Welfare Ministry and the Population Commission drafted a population plan and presented it to the Cabinet Meeting on January 22, 1941, and the plan was approved by the Government.

The birth rate of Japan proper was highest in 1920, being 36 births per 1,000 of population, but since then it began to decline to be 27 per 1,000 in 1938. The death rate has decreased from 27 per 1,000 in 1918 to 17 in 1937, but this is not satisfactory as compared with other advanced countries. The population problem, therefore, began to draw a keen attention from the Government and thoughtful individuals. Along with the expansion of Japanese activities in East Asia, Japan has to secure sufficient man power in the years to come by increasing her population, carrying out proper measures for the maintenance and increase of birth rate, and protecting the health of mothers and infants.

The gist of the adopted Population Plan is as follows:

1. **The Goal.** The goal of the population increase plan is to have 100 million people in Japan proper by the end of 1960, aiming at securing the steady increase of population in future, at maintaining the highest birth rate and the best quality in the world, at securing sufficient man power for defense and industrial services, and at a proper distribution of people in East Asia where the Japanese are to lead other races in the area.

2. **Means for Increase.** Within the coming 10 years, the average year of age for marriage should be lowered by 3, aiming at an average number of 5 children for each family. In order to en-

courage the birth rate and achieve an average of 5 children for each family, theories discouraging child bearing shall be stamped out and the love for the old family system shall be fostered; public and private matrimonial agencies shall be strengthened; when necessary wedding expenses shall be advanced; and education in girls' schools shall put more emphasis on matrimonial and maternal subjects. Labor conditions for female laborers shall be so improved that labor will not hinder early marriage or injure the health of young mothers-to-be. Families which have many children shall be commended and given protection and assistance in various ways.

In regard to the decrease of infant mortality, the plan shall aim at prevention of diseases attacking infants, thereby to lower the present death rate in general by 35 per cent within the coming 20 years. The activities of health consultation rooms, nurses, settlements in farming villages shall be enlarged and strengthened; material and food-stuffs necessary for bringing up strong children shall be secured; and a movement for lowering the death rate of infants shall be carried out. All medical facilities connected with the health of infants and mothers shall be improved.

3. **Proper Distribution.** Along with the progress of the Land Planning, a proper distribution of population according to different districts and abilities of individuals shall be made so as to prevent a greater concentration of population in cities, by dispersing factories and schools in country districts. A proper percentage of population in Japan proper shall devote themselves to farming industry so that at least 40 per cent of the population shall remain farmers throughout Japan, Manchoukuo and China.

The measures included in the scheme have already been put into operation since 1940; for instance, the number of borrowers of wedding expenses during 1940 was 1,272 with the aggregate amount of ¥358,981 or on an average ¥280 per couple. The Peoples' Chest is ready to advance up to ¥2,000 per couple. The propaganda for early marriage called forth prompt response from the people and the columns of daily papers are full of articles witnessing the happy results of early marriage blessed with many strong children.

CHAPTER III

OUTLINE OF THE CULTURAL HISTORY OF JAPAN

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Prehistoric Culture

(2,000 B.C.—200 B.C.)

Land and Inhabitants Regarding the origin of this country the mythological legends tell us that ages ago, the first ancestral deity of the Imperial Family gave birth to the Japanese islands. With firm faith in this legend of the origin of this land which has furnished a source of inspiration for their national life, the Japanese people, since the foundation of this Empire, have unswervingly pursued the course of creative development centering around the Imperial Family, with which they have maintained a happy and indivisible relationship.

According to geological, palaeontological and other scientific researches, the islands of Japan once formed a part of the Asiatic continent, but were detached from it some 450,000 years ago.

Since their formation the Japanese islands had been left in an uninhabited condition until about 2,000 B.C. when for the first time some Neolithic tribes (or people in the New Stone Age) using the pottery of the Jomon type, a clay pottery with corded pattern, migrated from the continent into some parts of the islands, gradually extending their influence all over the islands. As to the racial origin of these first inhabitants, it was believed that they belonged to the Palaeo-Ainu stock, but a new theory has been advanced recently according to which the primitive inhabitants were the common ancestors of the Japanese and the Ainu now living in Hokkaido, Saghalien, and the Kurile Islands. In the light of this new theory, it may be concluded that developing from this ethnological prototype this original stock gradually established themselves as a unique mixed race known as Yamato race, by gradually absorbing various ethnological elements immigrating from the Asiatic continent and the South Sea Islands, such as the Ainu, the Mongols, the Hans, the Koreans, the Indonesians, the Negritos, etc.

Relics of the Early Neolithic Culture

The Neolithic tribes coming to these islands in great succession in small groups were a roving people, who moved from one place to another along the coast of the islands in pursuit of fishes and shells. Having no fixed abode, they usually took shelter in mountain grottoes to protect themselves against inclement weather or attack by the enemy. Many relics of these cave dwellings still remain to be seen in various parts of this country, especially in the eastern part of Japan.

In course of time, however, they began to settle down, though temporarily, in such places where fishes and shells were obtained in abundance. They constructed their dwelling places by hollowing out a shallow pit either square or rectangular in shape, on the diluvium of the seashore or coastal isles, planting one pole in the center with four main poles at the corners and several other poles around it, and covered with a roof. The dwelling pits were spacious enough to hold several persons, with a fireplace in the center, and with a ditch dug around it to keep the floor from moisture. The deepest of these dwelling pits reaches one meter, the older ones being deeper and more angular in shape than later ones. The fact that many remains of these dwelling pits crowd together at certain places, suggests that Neolithic people lived a community life on these sites.

Relics of the Later Neolithic Culture But with the approach of the beginning of the Christian era, these Neolithic people penetrated far into the hinterland of the diluvial region, where they took to hunting side by side with fishing. Their dwellings were also removed to plateaux, or the banks of rivers or lakes.

The construction of their dwelling pits also underwent a change. They became shallow, increased in area, and changed from square to round or oval shape. Finally they began to be con-

structed partly or entirely above the ground, with an earthen floor or floor paved with flat stones. The extension of the scope of habitation signifies, on the one hand, an increase in the population of those primitive inhabitants, and on the other, the remarkable progress made in the manner of fishing and hunting which began to be conducted as a joint undertaking by the entire community.

Skeletons, Stone Implements, and Earthenware Pottery. Stone implements and skeletons, usually with the bones of animals, birds and fish and shells, occur in abundance on many sites of those primitive habitations or in the shell mounds in their neighborhood.

More than 1,000 human bones excavated in those Neolithic sites represent the Neolithic people who first migrated into Japan and who constituted the ethnological prototype of the later Japanese and the present Ainu. It is also known from those human remains that the original inhabitants in these islands had some Tungusic strain.

Among the various Neolithic implements, stone arrow heads, stone spears, stone axes, etc. were used in hunting, while stone stinkers, antler harpoons, bone hooks, etc. constituted the fishing tools. Besides these, there were some kitchen utensils such as stone knives, stone clubs, stone plates, stone spoons, etc. as well as some earthenware of various shapes such as bowls, vases, bottles, etc. which were used as containers of food. Most of these stone implements, which belong to the earlier Neolithic phase, were manufactured by chipping, but began to be finely polished in the later Neolithic period. The pottery obtained from Neolithic sites are known as the Jomon type, because of the rope or mat impressions upon the surface or the designs composed of curved lines arranged artistically. These Neolithic pottery vessels were all made by hand, without being turned on the wheel, modelled after bamboo baskets. They were made by shaping clay into the desired form of vessels by hand, or by coiling up a long string of clay into that form, or by piling up many rings of clay into that shape. In other cases, they were made up of many strips of clay. They were dried in the shade and then baked in uncovered furnaces at the maximum temperature of 650 degrees.

Primitive Costumes and Animism. If considered on the basis of clay idols unearthed from Neolithic remains, it seems that the Japanese proper were clad in a two-piece fur dress composed of the upper and lower garments. The upper garment for women opened in front, while the male attire was a shirt-like garment to slip on over the head. However, from the fact that basket-making was already known to the people in those primitive stages, it may be imagined with good reason that they wore clothes made of vegetable fibers woven by themselves.

On the other hand, human remains and clay idols obtained from shell mounds and other Neolithic sites go to show that the primitive people made various personal adornments of shells, horns, teeth, bones, etc. to be worn at the ears, in the hair, around the neck and the arms, or at the waist. In the later periods, however, more advanced adornments such as ear-rings, comma-shaped beads, etc. came to be added to those already existing.

What demands attention in this connection is that just like clay idols, clay tablets, stone idols, stone tablets, stone clubs, etc. those personal adornments possessed a great deal of magical significance peculiar to animism.

There are many evidences to show that the Japanese proper were generally under the influence of animism, but the most remarkable of them all is the fact that without abandoning dead bodies they had the custom of burying them together in one place 2 to 3 feet underneath the ground. Especially noteworthy is the manner of burying them. They are often buried with their knees bent, with a stone held at the breast or abdomen, or with an earthen vessel placed upon the head, which had the animistic significance of preventing the souls from going out from the dead body. Red colored skeletons and relics of fires built by the side of the corpses often occurring in Neolithic remains also suggest some animistic magic.

Maternal Clan Community. It is a noteworthy phenomenon that relics found at Neolithic sites such as dwelling pits, shell mounds and burial mounds, are confined to articles of daily use that are simple and similar in shape and design, and do not include any particular article of luxurious quality or of elaborate design. From this fact it might

be inferred that there prevailed no class distinction among the earliest inhabitants in Japan and that they represented a primitive type of society.

In those primitive times people formed communities called "Uji" (or clan), who under the leadership of the clan elders shared the common economic activities either in production or consumption, while enjoying together the cultural benefits available. They were, however, still in the stage of self-sustaining economy, and barter economy was still unknown among clan groups. Clans were the units of social formation, and were not still divided into families. Marriages were generally consanguineous among the same clan members, and the clansmen's lineages were counted by their maternal line. Thus it may be said that the primitive inhabitants formed many maternal clan communities, which were scattered all over the Japanese islands.

Culture of Ancient Japan

(200 B.C.—531 A.D.)

Age of Traditions. According to the "Nihonshoki" (Japanese Annals), the first book of history compiled by Imperial order in 720 A.D. in the reign of the Empress Genmei, the Japanese islands were unified as far back as 660 B.C. by the first Emperor Jimmu under his rule. But being the record of the remote ages it would be most reasonable to call the period of 1,000 years from the Emperor Jimmu to the Emperor Keitai, who reigned from 507 to 531 A.D., the Age of Traditions.

Ancient Japan during that period still belonged to the Neolithic phase and had hardly entered into the Bronze Age. In the early years of that period the Jomon Neolithic pottery was being used in eastern Japan, while in the western district polished stone implements and the Yayoi Neolithic pottery were prevailing. It was only in the latter half of the period that Japan stepped into the historical period, together with the practice of building sepulchral mounds and the use of iron implements.

Relics of the Early Yayoi-type Culture. About the 3rd century B.C. the Jomon culture was still flourishing on plateaux in eastern Japan, while in western Japan a culture represented by the Yayoi pottery accompanied by bronze utensils made its way from the Asiatic contin-

ent to gradually extend its influence. This Yayoi-type culture may be classified into the two categories: the one accompanied by bronze swords and bronze halberds which flourished in the extensive region covering northern Kyushu, Shikoku and Chugoku with the first named district as its center, and the other characterized by the Dotaku or bronze bells which extended its influence to the Yamato region via the San-in (the part facing the Japan Sea west of Kyoto) and Kinki (Kyoto-Osaka) districts.

The bearers of these two types of culture built their villages in the alluvial lowlands on the seashore or by the rivers, living in pit dwellings or habitations built above the ground. Various remains of this phase of the so-called Yayoi culture are obtained chiefly from large jar coffins, which contain skeletons and some stone implements. The Yayoi pottery, the first product to be manufactured by means of the wheel, is graceful in shape, with a design more elegant than that found on the Jomon pottery. Crude vessels of the Yayoi type were used as pans and kettles for cooking food, while the jars and pots served as food containers.

By this time, a primitive form of agriculture had begun to be conducted, along with hunting and fishing. No wonder that bronze implements newly imported from the continent were utilized for farming, with a greater degree of convenience than the existing stone implements.

Relics of the Later Yayoi-type Culture

With the approach of the Christian era, the villages removed gradually into the hinterland, the bordering regions between the alluvial plains and the diluvial plateaux. In addition to the imported bronze implements, the people in this period had learnt to cast excellent arms as well as some agricultural implements. With these new farming conveniences they had taken to rice cultivation in the terraced paddy-fields on the fan-shaped hillside. Thus the growth of agriculture increased the value of land, converting it into property; while at the same time a strong demand for slaves as suppliers of necessary labor began to be acutely felt by various clan communities so that there was a keen struggle among them in securing laborers.

By and by the Yayoi culture extended

Its influence to the sphere of the Jomon culture in eastern Japan, through the intermediate three districts in the western half of the Main Island and Kwanto, remaining for about one century in each of the districts. Under such circumstances, it was only about the 5th century that the extreme north-eastern district came under the influence of the Yayoi culture and a new culture characterized by the use of iron implements and the construction of sepulchral mounds reached its zenith.

Ancient Culture Characterized by Sepulchral Mounds and Iron Implements It was about the 2nd century that iron implements made their appearance for the first time in northern Kyushu. At the beginning, iron works owed their development to Korea both in the technique of tempering and the supply of ores. But with the discovery of excellent sand iron in the San-in and Chugoku districts, the natives began to make themselves various implements with the domestic material.

The appearance of iron spades and ploughs and other farming tools contributed a great deal towards the development of agriculture. Paddy-field cultivation came to be conducted on a large scale with the employment of cattle; farm products such as beans, barley, millet, barn-yard millet, etc. were raised largely; ponds and canals were dug out to bring the farming area under irrigation; river banks were constructed to avoid the floods; and swamps were dried for arable land.

Against such growing agricultural background powerful clans were brought into existence in the country. Influential clansmen lived in stately houses built on raised floor and grand burial mounds were constructed in honor of the leaders of the clans, and hence this period came to be known as the age of ancient sepulchral mounds, which lasted from the 2nd to the 5th centuries chiefly in western Japan with its centers in the provinces of Chikushi in northern Kyushu, Hyuga in southern Kyushu, Izumo in the San-in district, Kibi in the Chugoku district, Yamato in the Kinki district, etc. Especially in the Yamato region this type of culture attained the height of its development during the 5th century.

The influence of this type of culture made itself felt in eastern Japan much later than in western Japan. The prac-

tice of building burial mounds began to be evident both in the central provinces and the Kwanto district only in the latter part of the 4th century and continued until the 8th century. This custom was very late in reaching the extreme north-eastern districts of Japan, where burial mounds began to be constructed in the 5th century, by which time the practice began to disappear in the Kwanto district.

Food, Clothing, and Habitation of the Ancient Japanese In ancient Japan agriculture formed the islanders' principal industry chiefly devoted to the raising of rice, barley, millet, barn-yard millet and beans, which formed their main foodstuffs. They also grew peaches, nuts, chestnuts, etc. and brewed saké which was their favorite beverage. Although animal meat and fish also supplied them with subsidiary foodstuffs, owing to the geographical conditions of the islands unsuited to cattle raising, the ancient Japanese passed from the age of fishing and hunting directly into the agricultural age, without experiencing a pastoral life.

Bronze and iron tools and articles replaced polished stone implements, while the Haji and the Sue potteries took the place of the Yayoi earthenware as containers of food. The Haji pottery, brown in color, was baked in oxidizing flame in an open kiln, and the Sue pottery, harder and gray in color, was fired in a white heat. Both vessels were made in mass production by means of the wheel, in various shapes and forms according to the purposes which they were intended to serve.

From Haniwa or clay figures excavated from burial mounds, one can know the kind of clothes the ancient Japanese wore. With a striking resemblance to the present Korean costume, the male attire consisted of the upper garment called "so" and the trousers called "hakama"; while the female attire had the skirt called "mo" instead of "hakama." They were generally made of vegetable fiber, though silk fabrics were newly introduced to be worn by the nobles. Personal adornments consisted of jewelled necklaces and brooches as well as gold or copper crowns, belts, bracelets, earrings, etc. In fighting or hunting the warriors went out on horseback, clad in iron armor and wearing an iron helmet, with a straight sword at the waist and bow and arrow in hand.

The dwelling places of the plebeians were usually crude thatched huts; but it is suggested from some ancient clay figures that noblemen's habitations were wooden buildings with raised floor, thatched either with weeds or shingles. In some cases they were imposing two-storied buildings.

Beginning of the Primitive Shintoism In those remote days animism still prevailed as the popular belief side by side with the custom of worshipping powerful natural phenomena. A kind of Shamanism was born out of this belief and a female Shaman prayed to the deities for the welfare of the clan-head and conveyed the divine will to him, thereby adding weight to the authority of the clan-head over his community. Thus was developed the primitive Shintoism partaking many of the Shamanistic characteristics and was followed principally by the aristocratic classes in ancient Japan.

In its most primitive form, Shintoism appeared as the worship of "Uji-gami" or clan deities, which was connected with reverence for the ancestors of the clan-heads. The members of each clan were united in the worship of their own particular god, but as the faith came to be finally embraced by all the inhabitants of the village belonging to the clan, the clan deity became the tutelary deity of the place as well as the guardian god of agriculture, in addition to being regarded as the object of ancestor worship. At this stage of religious development, all affairs of the clan began to be conducted through services to the clan deity, which marked the birth of the unity of religion and politics. Under this system, the political control of a clan-head over the people and land belonging to the clan was considerably strengthened, because it was sanctified by the religious services to the clan god.

There were in those days repeated struggles among different clans, resulting in the conquest or subjection of many weak clans by a few powerful ones. As a result of such clan and tribal fightings, the deities of the vanquished clans were subordinated to the gods of the conquering clans. The repetition of such a process gave rise to the establishment of genealogical relations among the different clan deities, reflecting the status of each clan in relation to another. Thus, the eight million

deities of Japan were gradually systematized into definite genealogical relations centering around the Ama-terasu-O-Mikami.

Primitive Art and Literature Being under the strong influence of animism and Shamanistic belief, the ancient Japanese believed in the presence of souls or spirits within the human body. Acting according to their religious belief that as Heaven was the abode of the deities, Hades was the land of the spirits of the dead, they buried human remains in sepulchral mounds with due ceremony and worshipped them with reverence. Stone chambers, stone coffins and sarcophagi, and such objects as swords, mirrors, jewels, etc., as well as stone figures, stone horses, clay figures, etc. which were buried within the sepulchral mounds, were, therefore, regarded as absolutely pure and extremely sacred, while extraordinary magical significance was attached to the shapes of these articles and the decorations such as the symbols and pictures contained by them. Arms such as swords, armor, bow and arrow, etc. were also revered as the source of magic power, and so was the Dotaku, a kind of musical instrument.

All products of industrial art were therefore valued solely for their magical power, but later they came to be valued for their aesthetic qualities. Among the other phases of the cultural life in ancient Japan, literature, music, and dancing also possessed religious significance. Literature had its genesis in the oracles pronounced by clan priestesses or words sung by the clansmen in praise of gods, which were handed down from generation to generation in the form of ballads. In course of time these ballads were enriched with clan histories, and developed into lyrics and later into epics. Although those lyrics and epics were in the earlier times sung by clansmen themselves, there appeared later a professional singer called "Katari-bé" in each clan, who sang at clan gatherings the annals of the clan, the achievements of gods, the brave deeds of the heroes of victorious battles, etc.

Music and dancing first found their significance as a means of honoring their gods, but later they were performed in celebration of such great occasions of the clan as the harvest or a victory in war. After still further de-

velopment, both these arts finally attained an independent status and began to be practised for pleasure.

Age of the Patriarchal Clan System Clans had by now become divided into classes—the leading classes centering round the clan-heads and the other constituent members of the clans being under their rule. There were also slaves, who were either the common possessions of the clan or the private property of the clan-head.

With the ascendancy of agriculture as the principal industry of the people, drastic changes occurred in the social life. The communal society was now transformed into territorial groups, and the maternal system was replaced by powerful patriarchy, in keeping with the development of private property. Clan fights and struggles continued, however, for some time for the acquisition of land, which opened up a gulf of difference between the rich and the poor among the clans. This finally led to the creation of a new social system called "Kabané," which established the differences of social position for all clans in the country, putting an end to the equality of social status. In the political phase, this took the form of "Uji-Kabané" or a system by which people were divided into distinct classes.

Foundation of the Empire This process of transition is described, though not very clearly, both in the "Nihon-shoki" already referred to and the "Kojiki" (Antiquities) which was completed eight years prior to the Nihon-shoki in 712 A.D. In the reign of the Empress Genmyo. In the light of historical researches, it is reasonable to conclude from Emperor Jimmu's Eastern Expedition and the founding of the Japanese Empire in 660 B.C. that the culture represented by the Yayoi pottery reached the northern districts by about the 1st century, when the inhabitants of northern Kyushu were actively engaged in the importation of the culture of the Han dynasty of China by way of Korea.

The advance of the ancient culture characterized by the use of iron implements and the construction of burial mounds during the period between the 3rd and the 4th century, corresponds to the active process of national unification represented by the dispatch of the four generals by the Emperor Sujin

(88 A.D.) to repress the incursions of the barbarous tribes, the expeditions conducted by the Emperor Keiko (71-131 A.D.) etc. From the 4th to the 5th century, Japan dispatched large forces to subjugate the Korean kingdoms, while it was busily occupied in absorbing the continental architecture, sculpture, painting, textile and dyeing industries, and other phases of cultural life, by maintaining close relations with the Wei and Chin dynasties in North China and the Sung, the Ch'i, the Liang, and the Chen dynasties in South China. This fact is not only referred to in the Kojiki and the Nihon-shoki, but also definitely mentioned in the ancient Chinese historical records. Moreover, the fact is eloquently endorsed by the various articles such as mirrors, swords, etc. found in the ancient burial mounds.

The period from the 5th to the 6th century witnessed the construction of magnificent sepulchral mounds in the Nara region, the practice gradually extending to northern provinces. This represents the completion of the national unification by the Imperial Family as well as the extension of the Imperial rule to northern districts.

Asuka Period (532-700 A.D.)

By the 6th century A.D. Japanese social and economic conditions were well suited for the introduction and appreciation of the Chinese civilization of the brilliant ages of the Sui and Tang dynasties.

Political Events With religion, other things such as painting, sculpture and architecture were gradually introduced and in the sixth century Prince Shoto-ku-Taishi, striving for the promotion of learning, religion and art, tried his best to make a radical improvement in the state administration and in the social life of the people. His work was a forerunner of the Taika Reformation.

In the meantime, there arose troubles among the clans which had power in the Government, their conflict becoming greater with the advancement of civilization. Two of the most important of these clans, Soga and Mononobé, came into violent collision over the question of adopting Buddhism as the national religion. The former finally got the upper hand, but so abused its power that

it stirred up the opposition of Kamatari Fujiwara, a loyal subject, and Prince Naka-no-Ohyé, who later became the Emperor Tenji. The Soga power was suppressed in the year 645; this was the first step toward the Taika Reformation.

As a natural development land became divided among the Imperial house, the clans and the temples. The Imperial estates were obtained in various ways, and consisted of, first, land owned ever since the time of the Emperor Jimmu; secondly, land newly cultivated by the farmers who served the august family; thirdly, estates presented by local nobles; and fourthly, memorial lands for the dead members of the Imperial family.

Clans owned their estates, either by natural right, conquest or as prizes for merit. Shinto shrines and Buddhist temples also possessed their own glebes, given them by nobles as offerings. The patriarchs or clan heads in the country districts began to possess a great number of people and large estates and enrich themselves by the labor of their serfs. Their wealth gave them influence and power and they became local lords. The clan system allowed high officials of the Court and the powerful families in the provinces to exercise almost absolute power over their own territories. The emperors ruled the people indirectly, all the official positions being hereditary. This system gave birth to several political vices or abuses, and the Imperial authority became much reduced. The excesses of the Soga clan showed clearly the injurious effect of this system, and the necessity of ending it quickly.

Social classes The aristocrats of this period were the clan heads, an idea of whose life may be formed from the luxurious felices found in their large tombs or mounds in the district around Nara and Kyoto. Next came the direct subjects of the Imperial House whose occupation was mainly agriculture. The third class, which was the largest and constituted the main productive element of the nation, consisted of the subjects of the local clan heads. They worked for their respective clans at making clothes, ceramics, brewing, the manufacture of lacquer goods, furniture making, etc., besides being farmers, fishermen and hunters. The lowest class of people

was that of the "yakko" or serfs who served in the lowest kind of occupation for the aristocrats. They were often presented to shrines and temples as slaves. The slaves in Japan originated in captives taken from Ezo and Korea, and to them were later added those who had sold themselves for monetary reasons. Once enslaved, their social status remained unchanged unless emancipation came through the benevolence of their lords or paid for by themselves or some other people. The number of slaves, however, was rather insignificant.

The Taika (Talkwa) Reformation

When the Soga family were destroyed, the Emperor Kotoku started a plan for a reformation, appointing the Crown Prince Naka-no-Ohyé to the head of the council which was composed of Kamatari Fujiwara, Kurahashimaro Abé and other great scholars of the time. The Crown Prince, with Kamatari as his right hand man, studied the Chinese system of government and made plans for a revolutionary change of politics for the welfare of the people. In the summer of 1305 from Jimmu (645 A.D.), he introduced from China the system of "nengo" or year-names, and called the period Taika or "Great Reformation." This was indeed only seven days after the death of Soga. The Taika Reformation was the first of the three great changes that Japan has experienced in politics since the founding of the nation. The second was the establishment of the Shogunate at Kamakura, 1192, and the third was the Meiji Restoration, 1868. In the second year of Taika the Imperial Edict of the Reformation was proclaimed. Some of its provisions were as follows:

(1) To bring all the private lands into public possession; (2) to divide the confiscated lands among the people, taking a census and fixing reasonable taxes; (3) to fix divisions of Kuni, Gun and Ri for the convenience of administration, putting officials in each division.

These changes were practically carried out, and the clan system was entirely broken, thus bringing about a centralization of political power according to the Chinese pattern.

A Premature Trial The Taika Reformation, however, could hardly be considered as reformation of a government which had already been well organized, but rather as an attempt at the

formation of a real central government. Corruption within the old clan system had made a purging of the social and political system of the country urgent. Chinese cultural and political influence which stimulated the longing in the hearts of the authorities for the construction of a shapely government was a second cause of the reform. Unity and centralization of administration was completely exemplified by their big neighbor, and the young minds of the Japanese officials and nobles, entirely caught by its brilliancy, were rather too impatient to make fuller investigations on the adaptability of Chinese institutions to Japan and the Japanese of the day. The Taika Reformation, therefore, was hardly a success so far as its economic system was concerned.

Its Lasting Merit But the fundamental and imperishable meaning of the Taika Reformation is that it was the first systematic organization of the Central Government and the establishment of the spirit of national unity.

It was in this age that the whole of Japan was united into one. The Ezo tribes in Hokkaido Island and the inhabitants of the southern islands came to pay homage to the Central Government, and Buddhism was propagated among the northern islanders and the Kyūshū tribes in the south as a cultural enterprise of the Government.

Taiho Law (Taiho-ritsu-ryo) After half a century, or in 701, the Taiho Law, which completed the work of the Taika Reformation, especially in the organization of the Government, was promulgated. The construction of the Daijokan (the Great Government), which was regulated in the Taiho Law, and revised once in 718, was the form of central government which continued till the Meiji Restoration, when it was revived in power and called the Dajokan. The Government consisted of the Daijo Daijin, the Sa (left) Daijin, the U (right) Daijin, four Dai Nagon, three Sho Nagon, four secretaries, ten scribes, three Sa-benkan, and three U-benkan.

The Daijo Daijin was the tutor and personal counsellor to the Emperor, and had no fixed office. In view of the importance of the position it was not filled when no suitable man was to be found. The Sa Daijin was the prime minister and controlled all the adminis-

trative offices and might over-rule the decisions of the Danjodai (a kind of court of administrative litigation).

The U Daijin took the work of the Sa Daijin in his absence and his responsibility was the same as that of the Sa Daijin. The Dai Nagon acted as counsellors in national affairs with the three Daijin just mentioned and assisted them, directly reported all political affairs of importance to the Emperor, handed Imperial orders to the departments, and performed the offices of Imperial attendants. The Sho Nagon administered affairs of minor importance, the secretaries and scribes administered the business concerning public documents and Imperial edicts, etc. The Sa (left) Benkan administered the following four departments: the central, the ritual, the administrative, and the civil. The U (right) Benkan administered the other four departments: the military, the judicial, the treasury, and the Imperial House. That is to say, the practical administration of the eight departments was executed by the Left and Right Benkan in accordance with the decisions and directions of the three Daijin and four Dai Nagon.

Learning and Religion A century around the Taika Reformation was the period when the Government was busy also in the study of Chinese literature, importation of continental culture, and compilation and promulgation of new laws. It was an age of laying foundations for the future progress of Japanese civilization. This study of continental cultures did not stop with that of China, but ancient nations west of China became tutors of the Japanese. Among the treasures which were accumulated by the Emperor Shomu (724-749 A.D.) and kept in the Shōso-in Museum at Nara, there are many art products of Rome and Persia. The area represented by the treasures practically covers all the civilized countries of the Orient and a large portion of the Western world.

Systematic education of the young began with the building of Horyūji temple (see Chapter XXVIII). With the compilation of the Nihonshoki and Kojiki, Shintōism was formulated as the national religion. On the other hand Buddhism was eagerly taken into the lives of the upper class people who had power to assimilate it.

Nara Period

(710-793 A.D.)

Golden Age of Buddhism After the Taika Reformation in 646, the Government rather avoided the trouble of intercourse with the Korean Peninsula and concentrated their power on the better administration of home affairs, encouraging intercourse with China in order to bring Chinese civilization more into Japanese life, and 60 years later founded the city of Nara as the capital, in Chinese style. For 70 years following its founding, it was an age of imitating Chinese things. Buddhism won the faith of all classes of the people and developed and expanded among them with great rapidity. This was the golden age for Buddhist fine arts, existing specimens of which make today the international treasures of old Buddhism. The nation was prosperous and the people enjoyed a happy life such as they had never known before.

Throughout most of the 8th century Nara was the Imperial capital and towards the end of it Japanese civilization, favored by peaceful social conditions, began to assume its own form and characteristics. The Japanese poetry, waka, took a definite style and the range of subjects handled in the poems came to include all phases of life and nature as seen in the Manyōshū collection of waka of this period (See Chapter XXXIV).

The use of abbreviated forms of Chinese characters began in this period for the convenience of copying books, in an age without much printing, although block-printing was introduced from China by 770 A.D., and prepared a way to the invention of Kana characters in the following Heian period.

Division of the Rich and the Poor As mentioned above, the economic plan of the Taika Reformation soon began to collapse. It was not, however, a return to the old patriarchal system but an advance to feudalism.

The even distribution of land under the Taika Reformation proved in practice insufficient and many farmers were compelled to obtain more land by cultivation of waste areas or to fall heavily into debt. On the other hand, the nobles or former patriarchs of larger clans, the Court officials and priests began to accumulate special prize lands, gift lands and subject tenants, and people of the

upper class became landed proprietors with wide estates which were called "Shoēn."

For the cultivation of new arable land, labor and the digging of water courses were required, and such land naturally came into the hands of the wealthy people. Besides the addition of newly cultivated land they enlarged their estates by purchasing the land of the poorer people, confiscating mortgaged land and conquering weaker landowners by force. This tendency in the rural districts went its course unchecked, while the Central Government was occupied with political and diplomatic affairs mostly concerning matters in the capital cities of Nara and Heian (Kyoto), and Court nobles gave themselves up to luxurious living.

Korea, China and Japan (660 B.C.-1010 A.D.) From the time when these islands were first populated the inhabitants of the Korean Peninsula had intimate relations with the islanders. Especially, according to traditions, was this the case with the south-eastern part and the Izumo district. At the time of the Emperor Sujin the southern part of Korea became a Japanese protectorate, but its eastern neighbor, Silla, scorned Japan until it was subdued by the Empress Jingo in 200 A.D. The western half and lands in the north also came under the influence of Japan until finally the whole peninsula became tributary to her. These small kingdoms mostly acknowledged the Japanese authority, but sometimes they rose in rebellion and Japan frequently had to send armies to the peninsula, till finally the Governor's office was destroyed by Silla in 502. Silla soon became the master of the whole peninsula, conquered the other small states, and entered into good terms with the Chinese Government. The ruling power of Silla was usurped by another dynasty in the 9th century. Japan interfered in these affairs when suitable chances offered, but all her attempts were in vain and she lost her last trace of influence by the year 936.

The northern part of Korea had once been a territory of China in the second century B.C. Intercourse between the Japanese and Chinese people had already started in those days, and during the years in which the Korean peninsula was tributary to Japan the trade and travel between the two nations became greater and more frequent; many Chi-

nese scholars and artists became naturalized in Japan and worked for the Government in the fields of literature, art and general technique. Some Emperors sent delegates to south-eastern China to get teachers of weaving and sewing.

In 607, when Shotoku Taishi was regent, an ambassador was sent to the Sui Dynasty and friendly official intercourse was opened. Later, when the Tang Dynasty replaced that Sui, diplomatic relations were still unbroken between the two nations and many a young man and monk went to China for study. The culture and civilization of the continent flowed into Japan and greatly influenced her politics and social life. In the Era of the Emperor Tenji, this intercourse was once checked by difficulties with Korea, but the Tang Emperor sent his delegates again to Japan to re-establish friendly relations, and they were accordingly restored. During the Nara Period, especially, travel was most frequent between the two countries, and science, religion, the fine arts, architecture and forms of living were all taken from China, such imitation continuing till the beginning of the Heian Period. Chinese civil wars proved a hindrance to these friendly relations and the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates in 894.

In Manchuria a strong nation appeared in 713 and invaded northern Korea, and started some trade with Japan. Another arose later and came down even to the central part of the peninsula. Still another dynasty then gained control over much of eastern Asia and tried to invade these islands, but was defeated by the Japanese army in 1019.

Heian Period (794-1192 A.D.)

Fujiwara Despotism The Emperor Kammu changed the capital from Nara to the new city of Heian, the present Kyoto, in 794, and instituted a new era. For several decades after that the Imperial scepter retained its power. But from the middle of the 9th century, the house of Fujiwara became closely related to the Imperial House, and began to assume regentship of the country. Taking all political power from the Imperial House, the Fujiwaras gradually concentrated it in their own hands and planned only for the benefit of their

family and relatives. Their despotism reached its climax with Michinaga Fujiwara in the 10th century.

In those days the Fujiwara family gave themselves over to luxury, and greatly influenced the city life of Kyoto, making it indolent and vicious. But on the other hand literature and the fine arts made special progress. As the result of the cessation of sending delegates to China Japanese habits and inherited ideas regained favor and developed a style which was most graceful. Buddhism now assumed a strong and influential position not only among the people at large but also in the Court. The Enryakuji Temple of Kyoto and the Kofukuji Temple of Nara especially played a great part in this new tendency. It was noticeable that by this time the imported religion was largely transformed and Japanized in character.

Rise of Samurai Class Another remarkable phenomenon of this period was the rise of the samurai, the warrior class. The direct rule of the Emperor, in consequence of the weakening centralization of administrative power, was declining. In the local districts, the private lands owned by the aristocratic families were increasing year by year, and the orders issued by the Central Government were disregarded in those private territories. Local affairs fell into confusion, and robbers stalked abroad in the towns and villages. Wealthy landowners in the villages hired and fed soldiers for self-defense, and these farmer-soldiers finally became samurai, men whose profession was fighting. Sons of aristocratic families who could not get official positions also became soldiers, striving after power. Soon they became really powerful, being specially rampant in the farther districts, where they rebelled against local orders. The bodyguard of the Court, hopelessly impotent, was useless for real battle, and the samurai rebellions were suppressed only by other samurai bodies. The princes and nobles also hired samurai to guard them and to further their political feuds. Warriors were encouraged to become ever more skilful in the practice of arms, and it was quite natural that in such a course of affairs important positions in governmental offices should go to members of the samurai class. Among them the most famous ones to receive such posi-

tions were members of the Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Heishi or Heike) families.

In the middle of the 11th century, the Emperors gathered patriots to restore the Imperial power to the old status and suppress the Fujiwara despotism. Finally in 1156 the Fujiwara power was completely broken and overthrown by the Genji and Heishi warriors, who were much honored in consequence by the Imperial House. Before long, however, these two samurai houses became rivals and in 1159 Kiyomori Taira (Heishi) won the day against Yoshitomo Minamoto (Genji). Kiyomori had rare ability and great ambition, and forgetting that he was but a samurai followed the examples of Fujiwara and became himself another despot. For his willful behavior he was hated by all classes of the people, and Yoshitomo Minamoto, son of the defeated Yoshitomo, rose on the tide of general bad feeling against the Tairas, and the whole Taira family was defeated and drowned at the battle of Dan-no-ura in the Inland Sea in 1185. It was Yoshitomo Minamoto who first established government by the samurai class.

Literature At the end of the Nara period an abbreviated form of Chinese characters began to be used among scribes. In this Heian Period the Katakana, a Japanese syllabary of simple square characters was derived from the Chinese ideograms, and lastly Hiragana, a smoother and more fanciful style of Kana was invented and came to be used first among educated ladies and then by gentlemen also. Chinese sentences had monopolized the literature of former ages, but from the first quarter of this period pure Japanese sentences in the new Japanese alphabet appeared and gave an impetus to the rapid spread of waka composition and beautiful Japanese stories like the Taketori-monogatari and Ise-monogatari.

The culture of this period had not yet reached the rural districts and common people, but existed only in the larger cities and a number of towns and among the aristocratic class. The kulturträger, the bearers of civilization and culture of the age, were court nobles, government officials, priests and monks, and their families. It may be going too far to say that Heian was the only city of the Empire in those days, for there are evidences of the existence

of some local market towns and trade ports. It is nevertheless true that there was a great difference in grade of civilization between the capital and the rural districts. The intelligentsia in the capital kept political power and literary heritage to themselves and their successors, their living being supported by the contributions and tenant fees from their country estates. They lived a luxurious and easy monotonous life as is shown in the Genji-monogatari by Murasaki-shikibu, a woman novelist (See Chapter XXXIV). But at the same time Japanese literature made wonderful progress in this age.

Education School education was undertaken by the Government along definite lines in the city and local districts. In the city of Heian there was a Daigaku, (school of higher learning), which took in 400 boys of higher officials. There were 143 higher officials and 850 lower officials in the city. In the districts there were established Kokugaku, provincial schools, open mainly for the boys of local officials. At Dazaifu in Kyushu the Gakugyo-in, or institute of learning, was established for the provinces of the northern half of the island. The main course of study in these schools was related to national politics based on the teachings of Confucius. But literature, music, physical science, pharmacology, astronomy, mathematics and penmanship were not neglected. Some of the local schools were of a high educational standing and sent out able scholars. Children of the princes and court nobles were taught by private tutors. School education especially flourished in the Enryaku, Konin and Showa eras, under the Emperors Kammu, Saga and Nimmyo respectively. The building of the new capital of Heian gave rise to a new spirit of enterprise among the people and broader humanistic ideals began to show themselves, with sincere aspirations for the advancement of civilization and many a young student going abroad. The needs of the times gave rise to many private schools. Some representative ones were the Bunsho-in of Seiho Sugawara, the Kangaku-in of Fuyutsugu Fujiwara, the Gakkan-in of Tachibana, the Shogaku-in of Yukihira Arisara, and the Kobun-in of Kiyomaro Waké. The Sugawara family especially produced a succession of first class scholars, and many able young men came

into the Bunsho-in. This study of foreign learning continued from the previous periods to the middle of the era when the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates to China.

With the slackening interest in Chinese cultural studies early in the 10th century the Government schools were gradually reduced in numbers and influence, especially, also, as the power of the Imperial Government was dwindling and the Fujiwara connections were beginning to monopolize all official positions, leaving outsiders without hope of preferment. The Daigaku-in in Heian was closed after the buildings (five blocks of classrooms and one storehouse) were burnt down in the fire of 1177. Learning became a hereditary privilege with the growth of reactionary reverence for established lineage. Buddhism also became much Japanized by the appearance of such monks as Saicho of the Tendai and Koho Daishi of the Shingon Sect.

Economic Condition The cleavage between the common people and ruling classes became more marked and the clan or family ties weakened as the connection between demand and supply became more complicated. From this arose the necessity for exchanges and markets. Waka of the Manyoshu suggest the existence of markets in Japan at such an early date. As a matter of fact there had been several markets opened in bygone times such as those of Tsubaki, Atokawa and Eka. On the beach of Takahama in Hitachi (present Ibaraki) and by the straits of Asakumi in Izumo province (present Shimane) there were primitive markets opened for the people. These markets were first started in connection with Shinto festivals. In the Nara Period, there were the East and West Markets in the city of Nara, where trees were planted for giving shade, and from there peddlars travelled around as far as Echizen province (present Fukui).

In the 7th century silver and copper money was already in considerable circulation. In the 8th century copper money was cast by the Imperial Government, although it is not clear whether all the money in circulation before that was of Chinese origin or not. In the first year of the Wado Era, 708 A.D., silver and copper coins named Wado-kaiho were cast at the Imperial mint, and this coining of metals continued, ushering in the period of money instead

of barter.

In the Heian Period public markets were opened in the east and the west of Heian city. The East Market consisted of 31 shops and the West Market of 33, and they continued till the time of the Gen-pei (Genji and Heishi) wars in the 12th century. The largest among the local markets were at Tsubaki, Tatsu, Asuka and Ausa in Yamato province (present Nara) Shikama in Harima (near Himéji), Naniwa (Osaka) in Settsu and Kowaki in Shiga. There were many trading ports, and of these Hakata, Muro and Naniwa were the most thriving in foreign trade. Hakata coming first, located as it was at the northern end of Kyushu, nearest to Korea and China. Foreign commerce at this time was mostly governmental, private trading not being allowed.

Social Classes (the 7th-12th centuries) The highest class of this age consisted of the descendants of the nobles of the preceding age, new dignitaries promoted for meritorious services, descendants of the Imperial House and high priests of Buddhist temples. These people monopolized the highest positions in the government and administration. Wealth was naturally accumulated by them and civilized life attained by the assimilation of continental culture was theirs. The high official positions and ranks were accompanied with material estates and income, and nobility and wealth were synonymous. Living in the capital or vicinity and holding a close connection with the Imperial House this class enjoyed its aristocratic life until power was taken from it by the Fujiwaras in the 11th century.

Next came the class of provincial lords, or officials, scholars, warriors and certain naturalized Koreans or Chinese who were well educated. This class can be compared with the middle class of to-day. The power of the members of this class in politics was secondary, but the standard of their culture was as high as the first, if not higher, especially in the case of scholars such as doctors, astronomers, and mathematicians. They were the military and civil administrators in the local districts and the carriers of a higher civilization.

The third class of this age consisted of the descendants of the second and third classes of the preceding age; they were mostly engaged in agricultural work, although there were among them

some artisans and merchants but the number was comparatively small. In fact handicraft and merchandizing was, in later days, mostly carried out by farmers as a kind of side line. They were compelled to work so hard in order to support the upper classes that some scholars of the economic history of Japan have called this "an age of slave economy." The people of this class were rarely given positions in the government, although they had access to the priestly positions in temples. Able youths emancipated themselves from serfdom by becoming outlaws and, as mentioned above, finally gave origin to the rise of the samurai class in the latter half of the Heian Period. In the 8th century this class constituted over 70 per cent of the entire population of Japan.

The lowest class of people, practically a slave class, consisted of two kinds of people. The first were the workers for the Court, the clothes, paper and furniture makers, musicians, stable-men, etc. They were mostly naturalized Koreans, and because of their tribal origin were despised by the other classes. Part of them seem to have been the forefathers of the "Eta" class of the Edo Period. But they must have already belonged to the lower class in their native land, Korea, or may have been captives there, because there were many naturalized Koreans who occupied honorable positions in the Imperial Court and in the second class mentioned above. According to a record of this period there were but 4,216 households almost all of which were in the Kyoto, Nara and Osaka districts. So far as the national law is concerned these slaves were freed several times, in 722, 744, and 759 A.D., but as a social class they remained the same.

The descendants of the "Yakko" of the preceding periods formed the second division of this slave class. Their social standard as such was legalized by the laws issued at the time of the Taika Reformation. The Taiho laws prohibited intermarriage between members of this "disgraceful" class and members of the "good" classes. Slaves who belonged to offices mainly worked as tomb keepers, farm workers and miscellaneous jobbers, while those owned by private houses did the dirtiest work. The number of these slaves comprised 10 per cent of the entire population.

The average value of a slave in the Nara Period was 1,000 bundles of rice for a man and 800 bundles for a woman which meant the amount of rice which would feed a person for 2,500 days. This was rather a prohibitive price for the purchase of slaves, probably due to the small supply of slaves against the demand, the treatment of them by their masters was, therefore, very humane. In the Heian Period, the slave system underwent a gradual change, there was laxity in the imposition of the old laws pertaining to the system, and intermarriage with the "good" people often occurred. On the other hand, many of the third class people or oppressed farmers had become reduced to serfdom, and their intermingling with this class made the two classes indistinguishable at the latter half of the Heian Period.

Kamakura Period

(1192-1337 A.D.)

Samurai Government Samurai government continued for 685 years, from the time of Yoritomo Minamoto to the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate. During the feudal age the Minamoto, Ashikaga and Tokugawa families appeared successively as the heads of this samurai government, holding all power, both political and military, in their hands. At the Imperial Court were the august officials, but its rulership was only nominal, and the real sovereign power was kept by the Shogunate.

In the middle of the Heian Period, the Fujiwaras grasped despotic authority in politics, and the rule of the Imperial Court sank into formalism. Imperial officials and nobles indulged in an effeminate life discarding militarism. Vicious customs prevailed, misunderstandings arose between the Central Government and district offices and the gap between the rich and the poor became greater, gangs of robbers terrorized the people, civil wars great and small constantly occurred, and the people could not live in peace. This state of things gave opportunity for the rise of the warrior class, and the military government under the leadership of Yoritomo Minamoto was welcomed by the people as suitable for the troublous times, and the Shogunate came into being on its own merits.

The Kamakura Shogunate Yoritomo

adopted Oyô's counsel, and asking the permission of Goshirakawa, the ex-Emperor who had the real power at the Court, stationed his warriors in different parts of the country as governors and deputies. He gave these governors military and police authority and to the deputies he assigned the administration of land and tax affairs, in 1185. All the political power fell into Yoritomo's hands as a natural consequence, and the military and political offices which were established at Kamakura became Shogunate head offices; in 1192, he was asked by the Kyoto Government to become Sei-Tai-Shogun or Generalissimo, and this meant the public recognition of the Shogunate authority.

After becoming Shogun by Imperial Order, Yoritomo Minamoto took great care to control the warrior-lords. He himself lived a very simple life and issued orders to the lords and warriors to do the same, thereby setting good examples to the people. His teachings did not primarily stress skill in fighting or the use of weapons but rather the moral precepts which must underlie the true warrior's way. The hitherto neglected and disorderly rural districts were taken care of and became closely united with the Kamakura Government, their agricultural and commercial life was improved, and the heavy taxation formerly levied by extravagant nobles was reduced to make the peasants' lives easier.

Foundation of Bushido. Yoritomo was a pious man, revered both Shintoism and Buddhism, and was loyal to the Emperor. Bushido was indeed established by his teachings and practical examples. He encouraged the propagation of the Zen teachings which emphasized an ascetic life, and those of the Jodo Sect which taught man to realize his sinfulness. The principles of Bushido, however, had mainly to do with the lord-and-subject relation among the samurai, and had defects as a common morality for the masses. But it is noticeable here that polygamy among the nobles of former days was gradually discarded and monogamy began to gain ground in this age, probably in consequence of the recognition of personality and the unusual emphasis on the fidelity of a lady to her lord in the Bushido code. Ideas of honor became strong; loyalty to the Emperor, patriotism, and belief in Japan as being the

country specially favored of the gods became established national ideals; Buddhism was completely Japanized; and the general moral standard was considerably raised.

Yoritomo's lineal descendants did not continue to hold power beyond the third generation, but the nearly related Hojo family took their place and ruled the people with ability till Takatoki Hojo was overthrown by the faithful adherents of the Emperor Godaigo in 1333. The Kamakura Shogunate was the real Central Government of Japan for over 140 years.

Education. Education progressed also in the sense that it spread to local districts and especially among the samurai class. The Terakoya (see Chapter XXVIII) schools were started in the Buddhist temples of this period. Text books suitable for the education of samurai boys were compiled. At the time of the Ashikagas famous centers of learning were established at Ashikaga and Kanazawa (see Chapter XXVIII) near the present Tokyo. The Ashikaga Gakko (Ashikaga School) was first established by Yoshikane Ashikaga, a cousin of Yoritomo Minamoto, and has been continued for seven hundred years up to the present day. The Kanazawa Bunko (Kanazawa Library) was first established in 1275 by Sanetoki Hojo, great-grandson of Tokimasa Hojo the Shogun. Women's education was not neglected and sewing, housekeeping, penmanship and reading and composition of prose and poetry were taught to the daughters of well-to-do people.

Art and Literature. The rise of individualism gave a new turn to the cultural life of the people. The break of tradition was discernible in fine art and literature. This was the age of Sung and Yuan in China and their literature and arts, flooding Japan, laid the foundations of modern literature and fine arts which developed after the Muromachi Period. Picture rolls of famous battles and illustrated histories of shrines and temples were produced, reflecting the taste of the day. That portrait-painting first began during this period may be taken as a recognition of the individual value of men. (See Chapter XXXIV.)

Commerce and Industry. Before the Kamakura Period, agriculture was almost the sole industry of the people, although

pottery, clothing, etc. were produced in government factories on a limited scale. The spread of culture among the local population in this period, however, quickened the progress of commerce and industry in country places and local centers. Hand-work and carpentry were emancipated from the protection of the nobles and temples, primitive guilds were created and classes of artisans of armaments, porcelain, lacquer-work, etc. came into existence. Seven guilds were established, of silk workers, charcoal burners, rice merchants, furniture makers, miscellaneous industrials, paper manufacturers and makers of ornamental things and cattle dealers.

Joêi Judicial Code. In the first year of Joêi, 1232, a judicial code was issued. It was called Joêi Shikimoku (Joêi Judicial Code) compiled by Yasutoki Hojo and his colleagues. This was a compilation founded on the judicial customs of olden days and had no incongruities with the Japanese common life as was often the case with the laws issued by the Central Government at Heian, largely imitations as they were of Chinese laws. It proved, as a matter of fact, to be more practical and effective, and survived many other laws, as an authoritative code for the samurai class, to the time of the Meiji Restoration.

Muromachi Period

(1338-1602 A.D.)

The Muromachi Shogunate. Shortly after the downfall of the Kamakura Government, Takauji Ashikaga established a Shogunate in Kyoto, wholly on his own accord, in 1338, and in the time of his grandson Yoshimitsu his work was completed. It was called the Muromachi Shogunate, after the name of the street in Kyoto in which the government had its headquarters. Its system and institutions were almost the same as those of the former Kamakura Government. A relative of Ashikaga governed eastern Japan, staying at Kamakura. This Kamakura governor was first a simple representative of the Muromachi Shogunate, but by and by he began to stand in rivalry against it. Governors were sent to other places and generals were placed at the head of different military bodies. The governors in local districts were real lords, and acted freely on their own caprices.

Korea, China and Japan. The official exchange of delegates with foreign countries was, as already mentioned, abolished, but nevertheless private trade continued. The Sung Dynasty united China in 979, and called forth a thriving international commerce. Merchants and Buddhist monks made visits to China much oftener than before. Kiyomori Taira opened a port at Hyogo (Kobé) and interviewed Chinese merchants at his palace. In the Kamakura Period, the Buddhist Zen Sect was introduced from China, and the Hojo built huge temples for its monks.

The Yuan Invasion. In 1206 the Yuan Dynasty gained sovereignty over the greater part of China and extended its territory even to a part of Europe. The great Emperor Kublai Khan took Korea, and destroyed the Sung Dynasty, winning possession of all China in 1279. He sent a messenger with advice to Japan to become his tributary, under threat of war. But Tokimune Hojo, then in power at the Kamakura Shogunate, uniting forces with the Kyoto Court, firmly rejected the proposal. The result was a crisis for Japan in 1274 and again in 1281. The Yuan ruler in alliance with the government of Korea sent a great army to invade Japan. The Japanese were hard pressed, but they fought bravely with their small forces, and by the help of a typhoon which destroyed the enemy fleet they won the day in the summer of the year 1281.

The trade between the two nations, however, did not cease with the war. Takauji Ashikaga wished to build the Tenryuji temple and to get funds for the purpose he constructed trade boats which were called Tenryuji boats.

Trade with the Mings. From the beginning of the Kamakura Period, Japanese pirates had plundered the coasts of China and Korea. In the Muromachi Period, the Shogun Yoshimitsu Ashikaga concluded a friendly treaty with the Emperor of Ming in 1401. At the time of Yoshinori delegates of the Shogunate went to Ningpo with passports given by Ming authorities and traded there with the Chinese merchants. Not only Government delegates, but also the governors of local districts, monks and priests of temples or shrines, and some merchants of Hyogo and other ports sailed in and out with a similar purpose. The trade with Ming brought a great profit to

Japan, and the Shogunate was relieved of its economic hardships, the western ports thrived and the people became wealthy. The Shogunate did its best to prohibit the ravages of pirates, to prove its friendliness to the Ming Dynasty, but at the end of the Muromachi Period when the Shogunate lost its power and the local lords did as they liked, Japanese pirates again pillaged Chinese coasts, which were for a long time troubled with them.

Relations with Korea. At the time of the rise of the Mongolian nation, Korea turned against Japan under pressure of the Mongols. But the Japanese pirates ravaged her coasts, and she asked the help of China to send a strong protest to the Japanese Government. A general of Korea, Li-Seikel, was successful in protecting the nation from the attacks of the Japanese pirates, and he finally established a new dynasty of his own and called the new country Chosen in 1392.

Among the provincial lords there were many who had intercourse with Korea. Tsushima Island, especially, had close relations with her because of the nearness of its location. Its lord, So, opened trade with Korea in 1368. When Korea became known as Chosen these relations became even more intimate. There were many Tsushima islanders who became residents of Korea. (As to Japan's relations with the Western nations since 1543 when the Portuguese first came to Japan, see pp. 77-87 of the Japan Year Book, 1933, and Chapter VI of this volume.)

Feudalism It was during this period that feudalism was established as a definite system, and many of the provinces were ruled over by war-lords. Warriors fought each other, farmers were awakened to the need of uniting to protect their interests, and temples quarrelled with one another over the delimitation of their spheres of influence. It was a "dark age" in one sense, but important as an age of social change and progress. The advance of foreign trade was remarkable, and Japanese emigrants settled down in the South Sea Islands.

The war-lords began to disregard the orders of the Shogunate, becoming selfish and money-loving. Yoshimitsu Ashikaga, the third of the line, reorganized the Shogunate and restored its power for a while, but after his death it began to decay and the local lords usurp-

ed its authority. Both in the capital of Héian and in the districts civil wars raged year after year. The luxurious living initiated by Yoshimitsu and Yoshinasa, the 8th Shogun, spread like an epidemic among the local lords and warriors, and the ones who suffered most were the common people, the farmers and merchants, because the expenses of the luxury of the upper classes came always from their pockets.

The latter half of the Muromachi Shogunate was an age of civil strife among the feudal lords. All tradition and authority disappeared, and any talented man, favored by fate, had the chance to make himself a lord.

Military and General Education Progress in military arts and the use of weapons was a feature of the period. Various styles of Kendo (fencing) were founded and schools to teach the art flourished in the four corners of the islands. Nor was general education neglected. Both the Ashikaga Gakko and Kanazawa Bunko fulfilled their functions as educational centers. Terakoya were established in more districts and education began to reach the farmers and merchants. In 1561 St. Francis Xavier landed at Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu, and the Catholic faith was first preached among the Japanese. Otomo and other lords in Kyushu were baptized and within less than 30 years there were 200 churches built and over 1,500,000 people converted. Nobunaga Oda was in favor of Christianity from his policy of suppressing the unruly power of the Buddhist monks. Catholics were also eager to establish schools. Within the feud of Otomo there was established a seminary (Casa Professa) for training preachers. Colleges for young laymen were established at Arima in Higo province (present Kumamoto), Funai in Bungo province (present Oita), and Azuchi in Omi province near Kyoto. The last one was opened in 1581, and 25 boys from good families were instructed in the catechism, Latin, Portuguese, Japanese reading and composition.

Woman's Position Here it must be mentioned that the status of women was greatly lowered in this age of war-lords and samurai. Men vaunted their physical prowess in battle, while women were compelled to live secluded lives, sheltering at home from the dan-

gers of the times. Chinese dicta concerning the "three obediences and seven reasons for divorce" making of woman little better than a slave or chattel, suited the selfish convenience of man, and the Buddhist idea of woman, as an impure being detrimental to man's ascent to Buddhahood, all worked together to pull woman's social position down to a ridiculously low level, contrasting with the high status she had enjoyed in more ancient days.

Commerce Ravaged by frequent warfare, the city of Héian had become deserted, the population thronging to the villages which nestled around the castles of the feudal lords. These in time became thriving cities or towns. Among sea ports Hakata, Hyogo, Muro, and Sakai were representative ones. To Sakai, for instance, came foreign ships direct, and there arose many wealthy merchants who had financial power over the Muromachi Shogunate. It was a free city, governed by its own city assembly and protected by its own city guard. Yukinaga Konishi who was first a pharmacist and became a lord on his own account, Sen-no-Rikyū, the famous specialist in the tea ceremony, and Sukémon Noya, a millionaire merchant in foreign trade with the South Sea Islands, were representative men of Sakai.

Industry The taste of the age was rather simple and purely Japanese. The war-lords found recreation in the tea ceremony or garden-making. The preservation of natural simplicity was the dominant note in these gardens, rocks and pebbles being used in their construction. The national leader in this direction was Yoshinasa Ashikaga, the Shogun, famous exponent of the tea ceremony. This ceremony was never a mere drinking of tea but a formalized social meeting, at which guests were invited by the host to a simple and tasteful dinner which was called Kaiséki. Choice porcelain wares and other utensils were used in it and the guests were entertained not only by the repast but also by the exhibition of rare articles and scroll pictures. It became a fashion of the time and greatly stimulated and improved the art of making porcelain, lacquer and cast-iron wares and Kakémono paintings. These were exported to the continent for the first time in the history of Japan.

The last quarter of this period, called

the Momoyama Period in art history, was represented by the gorgeous taste of Hidéyoshi Toyotomi who built the Momoyama Palace of silver and gold. The influence of the Western world definitely reached Japan with the coming of Catholic priests in this period. It affected not only the spiritual and mental life of the Japanese but also the field of architecture. When Nobunaga Oda built the Azuchi Castle, the first of its kind, in 1576, Catholic priests gave advice or directed the construction. The central building of the Japanese castle is called Tenshu-kaku. The word Tenshu means the Heavenly Lord or God of the Catholic Church, and the Tenshu-kaku signifies the Tower of the Heavenly Lord. It is said that in the Tower of the Heavenly Lord Catholic images were enshrined when it was first built. According to an art investigation, there are in Italy remnants of old buildings which resemble the Japanese castles and the influence of Roman architecture through the Portuguese and Spaniards must have been felt in Japanese castle building.

Economic Conditions There were economic reasons underlying the civil wars among the feudal lords in the latter half of the Muromachi Period. Enlarged volume of production, progress of communications and transportation, advancement of commerce and industry and changes in military strategy following the introduction of guns led to the wars of territorial invasion and expansion among the lords who had to provide for an increasing number of soldiers and officials. Both commerce and industry had from the time of Yoritomo Minamoto, progressed slowly but steadily with the spread of civilization to local centers, and merchants and artisans were gaining standing as a class. Up to the middle of the Muromachi Period the guilds called "Za" monopolized the supply of goods to the lords; this system, however, came to an end with the progress of free trading, and public markets were permanently established. The appearance of large towns and cities necessitated the accumulation of commodities and provisions from adjacent country places and other parts of the land and hastened the growth of wholesale dealers. The wholesale dealers of this period were called "Mommaru" and combined the businesses of innkeeping, wholesale trading, transportation and

money exchanging. Banking business also made considerable progress. There were no banks in the modern sense, but the pawnshops were the banks of the day when as yet there was no regular credit system. Buddhist temples and the brewers of sake acted also as money lenders and they together with the pawnshops were usurers and capitalists. *Tanomoshi-ko* (small associations for mutual financial aid) were already in vogue. Accumulation of wealth became a dire necessity for the lords, but they had to rely wholly upon the farmers and merchants for financial support while the Central Government was too weak to aid them or protect their interests in accordance with the change of social and economic conditions. Some fell so heavily into debt that finally they had to surrender their territory to their creditors. The Shogunate prohibited the purchase or mortgage of land owned by the samurai to merchants and landed proprietors, but this regulation was not observed. By the end of the Kamakura Shogunate it had become too late to attempt the financial rescue of the samurai. The lords levied heavy taxes on their people and farmed out their collection to appointed merchants. The final outcome of this system, however, was to let the land fall into the hands of those agents, so that the lords were driven in desperation to get new land by force. At times the farmers and smaller merchants resorted to violence to protect their rights and demand more merciful governance from their respective lords or the Shogunate. They often attacked the wealthy merchants, temples and pawnshops to get back goods they had pawned.

The latter half of the Muromachi Period witnessed Buddhist mob rioting and fighting. The Shin Sect (or *Ikko Shu*) founded by Shinran gained great numbers of followers from among the common people, and some uprisings of these religionists were in reality directed against the ruling class. For instance, the *Ikko* mob which started rioting in the districts of Kaga, Noto and Echigo provinces, fought against Masachika Togashi the lord of Kaga and killed him, while another in the district near the present-day Kobe and Osaka defeated the armies of Hosokawa their lord, the fight extending over several provinces from Sakai to Ishiyama in Omi province (present Shiga). Iyeyasu To-

kugawa, then lord of Mikawa (present Shizuoka), fought with them in 1563, and to Nobunaga Oda also they were a constant source of trouble.

The social changes caused by the progress of trade and commerce during the Kamakura and Muromachi Periods and the consequent disorder among the ruling classes were not allowed to take their own course very long, for foreign relations, especially with Western countries, presented many international problems and the necessity of national unity became keenly felt. The introduction of fire-arms brought about a fundamental change in methods of fighting. Arrows were no match for bullets. Preparations for war had to be made on a much larger scale and the warriors or soldiers reorganized in a more systematic way, and consequently the smaller lords were forced to unite under the leadership of greater ones who possessed real power and means to organize new armies. In this manner the unity of all Japan was realized in three stages through three great war-lords, Nobunaga Oda, Hidéyoshi Toyotomi and Iyeyasu Tokugawa.

Nobunaga Oda The first, Nobunaga Oda, was an official under the lord Shiba, but soon becoming independent he subdued one after another many lesser lords with his soldiers armed with guns, and, in July 1573, dethroned Yoshiaki Ashikaga the Shogun and demanded direct access to the Emperor Ogmachi. Nobunaga who had had long and bitter experience of the Buddhist mobs waged war against them and set fire to the Enryakuji temple on Mount Hiei, one of the most powerful temples of the time, thus putting an end to Buddhist meddling in political affairs. He found another means of lessening the power of Buddhist temples by favoring the spread of the Christian faith. He gave all encouragement to its propagation and welcomed the inflow of Western learning and civilization. Nobunaga destroyed the barrier gates in districts which hindered free commercial intercourse and transportation and put an end to the monopolizing guilds and gave merchants opportunity for unrestricted trading. But in 1582 he was assassinated with his work yet incomplete, and it was left to Hidéyoshi to continue the task of uniting the nation.

Hidéyoshi Toyotomi Hidéyoshi Toyo-

tom, a farmer's son, and one of the trusted generals of Oda, succeeded in subduing even such great lords as Mori and Shimazu in the west and Daté and Hojo in the north and practically united the whole nation by force. In 1583 the whole land of Japan was surveyed to divide it into new rural districts. In 1586 Hidéyoshi fixed the costumes of the samurai according to their rank. In 1588 the common people were ordered to surrender their swords for casting a *Dalbutsu* (great image of Buddha), the purpose of this order being to prevent the wearing of swords, by any except the samurai. The law of 1591 strictly prohibited the shifting of hereditary business, and the four classes of samurai, farmers, artisans and merchants were firmly fixed.

To force obedience to the law *Gonin-gumi* (Five Men's Bands) were compulsorily organized. All the people (samurai inclusive) were grouped by 5 or 10 families and each group not only took joint responsibility for the doings of all of its members but helped its members in civil life. This originated before Toyotomi's time, but the law issued in 1600 made it an established institution and played an important part in the following Tokugawa Period both politically and socially. Hidéyoshi planned an invasion of the Continent, Formosa, and the Philippines, but died in 1598 before realizing his dreams.

Before the absolute unity of Japan could be accomplished another great statesman was to take the work in hand.

Social Classes (12th-16th centuries) The Onin war (1467-1475) which was fought between the Muromachi (the Fujiwaras) Shogunate families in the city of Kyoto not only destroyed the Shogunate itself but also reduced the Capital to ashes. The Court and the Shogunate lost power at once and the whole country was thrown into commotion for a century by the wars of the military lords.

The wars entirely did away with old social customs and laws and gave opportunity for the rise of petty warriors and landed-farmers who, to this time, had been subjected to the aristocrats and war-lords. This was a time of great changes in the social order of Japan. After the Onin war members of the laboring classes were able to become lords through their own ability; farmers organized to oppose their lords;

commercial cities like Sakai, Yamaguchi, and Osaka, appeared and became rich with the development of foreign trade; and villages, in many districts, began to govern themselves.

In consequence of the rise of new war-lords the aristocratic class of this age was of two kinds, the old nobles in the Court and the new war-lords. The Court nobles had become poor through the confiscation of parts of their estates in country districts by the Kamakura Shogunate. They were, nevertheless, still highly honored because of their culture and attainments, all lines of study being handed down by them in hereditary succession, and high positions in the Court were held by them though they had no practical power in the administration of national affairs. The only sphere of influence left to the Court nobles was in religious circles, except in the Zen Sect which had most of its adherents among the samurai class. The Fujiwaras, who succeeded the Minamotos in the Shogunate government, again confiscated more than one-half of the lands of Court nobles and finally stretched their wanton hands over the estates of the Imperial House and temples and shrines in the name of military taxes. In the Onin war, fought in the city of Kyoto, the mansions of the Court nobles were all destroyed or set on fire and the nobles themselves were compelled to desert the capital and seek protection among the wealthy families in the country districts or temples and shrines.

The war-lords in this period were sons of local governors in older ages, new governors placed in districts by the Kamakura and Fujiwara Shogunates, and big land-lords who ascended to war-lordship by hiring warriors for the protection of their estates in the political confusion of the time. The name "Daimyo" which represented the war-lord in later ages, especially in the Yédo Period, originated in the landlords, and meant one who owned a large estate or villages. The war-lords, new and old, took advantage of the downfall of the Shogunate after the Onin war to consolidate their field of activity all over Japan. They fought each other to obtain supremacy.

The second class of people consisted of farmers, artisans and merchants. The war-lords and daimyo in the provinces built castles around which arti-

sans and merchants settled, the artisans and merchants increased in number and the castles gradually grew into towns and cities, while progress in foreign trade during the latter half of this period gave rise to port cities. Artisans and merchants formed guilds as mentioned elsewhere and protected their rights and profits. Farmers who had been trodden under the foot of the ruling classes began to make demands upon their lords who could no longer control them by threats but had to handle them in a more honorable manner. The first record of a farmers' mob movement against their lords was that of the farmers in Kinki (Kyoto and Nara) districts which started in September 1428. The mob demanded the so-called "Toku Sei," cancellation of debt or a permanent moratorium. Mobs which were united in the faith of Buddhism such as the Jodo or Hokke sects were well organized and had some permanency so that at one time they formed their own government. In the province of Yamashiro the farmers succeeded in organizing their own government and elected members by vote at the Byodoin temple at Uji, now a part of Kyoto, in February 1486. This and other examples of a similar nature were not allowed to continue because of later changes in political affairs, but they laid foundations for the future development of towns and villages and the "Gonin-gumi" as mentioned above.

The lowest class in this period consisted of sons of the same class in the preceding age. The difference was that the slaves of Court nobles or government offices became more despised than the slaves at private houses. The latter were handled by their lords in a much more humane way than in the preceding period. The former, on the contrary, became more disliked by the other people because of their Korean origin and their special work of butchers and skimmers, for such work was extremely despised by Buddhism, which taught people not to kill any living thing, even lice, and taboo all flesh. They were called the "Eta," the meaning of which changed from the "butcher" to the "polluted," and lived in groups secluded from others.

Yédo Period

(1602-1867 A.D.)

In 1600 Iyéyasu Tokugawa became the practical ruler of Japan. Except

for a small portion allotted to the Imperial House and various religious bodies, over 90 per cent of the entire land was divided among the Tokugawas, their relatives, and favorite generals and lords. Thus the complete unity of the nation was realized by the dual master-and-subject relation between the lords and their people and the Shogun and his lords. This feudal system lasted over 260 years, unparalleled in the history of the world. This was a success primarily for the Tokugawa Shogunate rather than the nation. It was due for one thing to the financial and military strength of the Tokugawa family, secondly to the clever method of administration, best suited to keep wayward war-lords in order, and thirdly to the halting of alien influences from overseas.

Iyéyasu located the seat of the Central Government at Yédo (Tokyo) and governed from there his 200 lords and generals. The financial basis of this Shogunate was superior to that of its predecessors. About 7,000,000 koku ("koku" in this case means the area of land which can produce one koku of rice) or nearly one-fourth of the national area of 30,500,000 koku, was owned by the Shogunate directly or indirectly. Besides, all the ports and places important for political and military purposes, the largest cities and the centers of industrial and commercial activities, and all the mines of any value were under the Shogunate's direct control. It also controlled the national mints.

Buké Hatto (Samurai Law) After giving the final blow to the Toyotomis in May 1615, Iyéyasu Tokugawa ordered the drafting of the law concerning the daimyo (feudal lords) and samurai. In July of the same year the Samurai Law was pronounced before the gathering of the daimyo called for the purpose by the second Tokugawa Shogun, Hidétada. It consisted of 13 articles the gist of them being as follows: (1) Samurai must be well educated in general learning and versed in the arts of war; (2) Unbridled drinking and luxuriousness are strictly prohibited; (3) Criminals must not be aided or concealed; (4) All treasonous bodies and murderers should be banished; (5) No person other than the subjects of the daimyo should be allowed to live in his territory; (6) All repairs to castles need permission of the Shogunate and the

building of a new castle is strictly prohibited; (7) If anyone detects a new castle building or a secret political organization in a neighboring province he must report it to the Shogunate; (8) Marriages must not be celebrated privately; (9) All the lords are required to observe "sankin-kotai" (According to this article the lords were divided into two groups, and each group was to come up to Yédo, the seat of the Shogunate, in April every other year, to stay there for one year and the Shogunate prepared their Yédo residence where their families were kept as hostages. These rules were somewhat loosened in later years); (10) Styles of costume should be regulated according to rank and social position; (11) Servants ought not freely to use the palanquin (the only vehicle in those days) in travel; (12) Samurai should be instructed to live frugally; and (13) the lords should use discretion in appointment of officials.

The purpose of this law was to restrict the armament of the lords, to suppress political organization and treason; to effectively inspect the local government of the lords, and to force them to keep order by strict rules on their behavior. The number of daimyo was 157 according to the Shogunate statistics of 1614.

Kugé Hatto (Court Nobles Law)

This law for the court nobles was promulgated in July 1615, at the assembly of 150 court nobles at the Niijo Castle, Kyoto. It consisted of 17 articles, and defined the status of the Emperor, Imperial Princes and Princesses, and regulated the appointment of a Regency and chief councillor, adoption, court ranks, institution of the year name, costumes, the order of promotion, orders to be issued by magistrates, sentences of the court, and the position, ranks, costumes and honorary titles of the head priests of Buddhist temples. (See p. 100, the Japan Year Book, 1936, for the main points of the law.)

System of Control Iyéyasu took scrupulous care not to give any chance to the Imperial House and the greater lords to gather forces against the Shogunate. His first policy was to restrict their powers by the promulgation of the Kugé Hatto and Buké Hatto above mentioned. His second was to allot their districts to the respective lords by an administrative plan deliberately

schemed out. The Kanto district in which the seat of the Shogunate was located was put under the direct rule of the Shogun and ruled by his personal generals to protect the Central Government from attack. In the districts around Kyoto, the city of the Imperial House, none of the Tozama Daimyo, the conquered lords, were placed, but only the relatives of the Tokugawas and the Fudai Daimyo, lords who had been on the Tokugawa's side from of old; and in Kyoto itself a representative office of the Shogunate had the responsibility of watching any political move in that city.

Along the two main roads, the Tokaido and Nakasendo (or Koshukaido) which connected Kyoto and Yédo, the Fudai Daimyo only were appointed to rule. The Tozama Daimyo were all given lands in the remoter parts and between each two of them a Fudai Daimyo was placed to play the part of a barrier. Such important places as Osaka, Sakai, Fushimi, Nagasaki and Ujlyamada were administered by governors directly sent from Yédo. The children of Iyéyasu were given large fiefs and established the Houses of Mito, Owari, Echizen and Kishu, forming a defensive semicircular line.

As a whole, Iyéyasu cleverly divided the land among the lords so as to keep the balance between the east and the west, a policy which proved successful till the balance was broken in the first half of the 19th century when the western lords rose in rebellion. The Shogunate paid scrupulous attention to all travelers along the Tokaido. It put a barrier at Hakoné, and nobody was allowed to pass through the gate without a passport issued from the lords or the Shogunate. After the enforcement of the articles of the Buké Hatto requiring the family of a lord to stay at Yédo, women were almost entirely prohibited from leaving the city for they must get Hakoné passports directly from the Shogunate.

The purpose of the seclusion policy adopted by the Tokugawa Shogunate was to shut out any possible outside political influence and to prevent the local lords from getting large profits out of foreign trade, and rising thereby to financial and political power. The Shogunate did everything to safeguard its supremacy and make the lords obedient, no matter how national progress

was hindered or into what miserable condition the people might be thrown.

Organization of the Tokugawa Shogunate The Shogunate was a government of one despotic ruler, the Shogun. No one man, however, can perform all the duties of a government unassisted. Although there were many changes in the organization and the names of offices in the 268 years of its rule the Yédo Government, in the main, had a Cabinet which consisted of one Tairo (the great elder), five Roju (the middle elders), and five Wakadoshiyori (the younger elders). The Tairo was the premier but, though the Shogun at times placed his most reliable and able statesman in the position, the years in which a Tairo held office were but few, the Shogun himself generally undertaking the office. The Roju were the ministers of the administration. They signed the public ordinances and documents of the highest import. Their administration was based on former customs and newly issued laws, while their secretaries had the responsibility of examining old customs and precedents to help their decisions. These five saw to matters concerning the Imperial House, the court nobles and prince monks, and controlled all the lords and high officials, local governors and inspectors, and in wartime commanded the armies of the lords.

The Wakadoshiyori consisted of four or five members who were at once councillors and vice-ministers and controlled the Hatamoto (the generals who directly belonged to the Shogunate), and the lower officials, and in any emergency commanded the armies of the Hatamoto.

Both the Roju and the Wakadoshiyori were appointed from among the Fudal-Daimyo only.

Under the cabinet there were three Bugyo, the Jisha Bugyo (Temple and Shrine Department), the Machi Bugyo (City Department), and the Kanjo Bugyo (Counting Department). The Jisha Bugyo controlled all the temples and shrines in the country and administered justice in the remoter districts. The Machi Bugyo administered the city (Yédo) affairs from administrative business to justice, police and prisons. The Kanjo Bugyo took charge of the treasury of the Shogunate, gathering taxes from the estates directly belonging to the Shogun.

The Roju, the Wakadoshiyori and the three Bugyo formed the Central Shogunate Government, all other officials belonging to or coming under the control of one or other of these. Among the local officials the most important were the Shoshi-dai who represented the Shogunate at Kyoto, the Osaka-jodai who represented the Shogunate at Osaka, the Fushimi Bugyo, overseers of the barriers at Kyoto, the Kobusho Bugyo or military department, and the Nagasaki Bugyo who controlled the lords in Kyushu.

Cultural Life Culture and civilization made greatest progress in the western part of Japan and it was in Osaka and Kyoto that literature and a more refined life developed in the earlier years of the Yédo Period. Iyeyasu was anxious to spread knowledge and encouraged the study of the Japanese and Chinese literatures of former days; scholars of great learning appeared who opened schools and published commentaries or interpretations either of their own accord or by the backing or order of the lords. The progress of the art of printing greatly helped the spread of education by books. But in the early days of the age most of the energy of the ruling class and the common people was spent in readjusting their political and social life to the new state of affairs created by the united and centralized government of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and time was needed for the psychological atmosphere of the people to settle down toward a peaceful enjoyment of life in this better organized society.

It was not until after half a century that a characteristic taste and way of life began to show themselves, discarding the old garbs of tradition. Here it must be noted that the fundamental feature of the literature of the age was that it was the creation of the common people, people who were denied all opportunity of rising to higher social positions or assuming official posts in the government. The so-called Genroku period commenced with the luxurious life of the fifth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, who was a man of enthusiasm, fond of learning, and encouraged lectures and schools. Even before his time the general trend of the period had been toward extravagance and amusement following a century of peace. The Shogun's example, however, quickened and

intensified this tendency, and such amusements as "nô" drama, Joruri (or gidalyu), and kabuki (see Chapter XXXVI) were enjoyed by the general masses, while pure literature such as haiku, waka, novels, and stories began also to be written and read among the lower classes. Skill in the fine arts, characteristic Japanese handiwork and special weaving arts reached the highest pitch.

In the Genroku period literary men were able to publish their writings freely and the Joruri of Chikamatsu, the novels of Sakaku, and the short poems of Bashô had a great circulation, most of their works becoming literary treasures of Japan for ages to come.

The leadership in civilization was still with Osaka and Kyoto up to the end of this period. But the Sankin-kotai and the power of Yédo, the seat of the Shogunate, did not long allow the center of culture and fashion to remain in these old western cities, and Yédo had finally assumed the first position in all matters of political and social life by the last quarter of the 18th century. The following 80 years, especially the first 50 years of it, was the golden age of the cultural life before the Meiji Restoration.

Severity marked the Shogunate policy in dealing with the people from the highest to the lowest, the masses suffering the worst oppression. Social tragedies amply reflect themselves in the literature of Joruri writers, Chikamatsu and his contemporaries, and even allowing the apparently good intentions of the Shogunate rulers and advisers to improve the political, economic and social conditions, the people in general were either trodden down by lawless samurai or entangled and rendered helpless in the network of prohibitive laws.

But the characteristic optimism of the Japanese enabled them to survive the stilling, tortuous life, seeking consolation in cultural or popular pursuits. This repressed energy found its outlet in creative industry and literature, or their enjoyment. Besides the standard works of literature there are preserved smaller illustrated pamphlets, short novels and poems which reflect the life of the common people in those days. They expose the looseness of the social life in many respects, but it is wonderful how they show the innate heart of the Japanese people, optimistic, real-

istic and humane. If it were not for its partial suppression by the Government this common literature might have attained remarkable progress. All Japanese amusements either originated or took definite form in this age. In the upper classes of society a similar course of development ran through all phases of life.

Gradual Economic Decline At the beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate foreign trade was carried on to a considerable extent but afterwards it was almost entirely prohibited except to a small extent through one trade port, and all hope of increasing the national wealth and economic progress of Japan through overseas intercourse was lost. Even with its income from the large territory above mentioned the Shogunate could hardly manage to keep pace with the ever increasing expenditure. Financial unsoundness appeared at the time of the fourth Shogun, and from the fifth Shogun on they were forced to make both ends meet in national finance by re-casting coins. Various improvements and revisions of economic policy wrought no material change of situation for the better. In the Tempo Era (1830-1844), the Government stood on the brink of bankruptcy and during the last years of the Shogunate the financial situation went from bad to worse.

The local lords had territories of 10,000 koku to 1,020,000 koku each, but their income from these was too small to feed all their dependent samurai and soldiers, and to finance the Sankin-kotai travelling expenses. They fell into heavy debt, their creditors being the wealthy merchants and money lenders at Yédo and Osaka, the two business centers of the time. From the middle of the Yédo Period few of the lords could manage without the help of the rich merchants. Seventy per cent of the national wealth was said to have got into the hands of wealthy business men by the end of the age. In 1843 the lords sent about 4,000,000 koku of rice to Osaka, 3,000,000 koku of which went to Osaka merchants as interest on their debt of 60,000,000 ryo (gold coin). All means to which they resorted to increase their incomes proved in vain.

The samurai were also compelled by the Sankin-kotai system to have two houses, one at their rural town and the other in Yédo. They were not allow-

ed to do any productive work but received a kind of salary from their own lords, and mostly lived a leisured life, although some were given offices in the local governments. The long peace did not necessarily bring happiness to the samurai, but rather drew them into different means of pastime and their fighting spirit was dulled with the increasing tendency to luxury. Their incomes were limited from the beginning and were still more shortened by compulsory loans to their feudal lord out of their "fuchi" or salaries, or even complete suspension of payment. They had no way of extorting from the farmers, as the lords had, and after losing all their means they could not help but break the law and work secretly for their living as artisans or small merchants. In the end the samurai began to sell their weapons and armor which had become useless in the long years of peace.

In the Yédo Period the rural folk still lived on the natural products of their farms, helped out by some small income from their handicraft, and each village constituted an economic unit, self-supplying and self-supporting. At first, the political peace benefited farmers especially and increase of production resulted from the improvement of farming instruments and institutions. The kinds of vegetables grown became more numerous, sericulture advanced remarkably, and new areas of arable land were brought under cultivation. At the time of Toyotomi's land survey (1573) the rice production of the whole country had been estimated at 18,000,000 koku. In the Genroku Era (1688-1704) it increased to 25,780,000 koku, and, in 1842, to 30,550,000 koku. But the farmers had to pay 50 per cent of their products as tax to their lords; they were denied the freedom of moving or changing their occupation, were subject to restrictive measures in purchasing land and withal were bound hand and foot by a network of the Gonn-gumi system and other restrictive regulations, and farmers resorted to such desperate measures as infanticide, fleeing to cities and mob riots to escape from their difficulties or fight for their living.

The number of recorded farmer-mob riots reached 568, including 68 in the early period of the age, 236 in the middle, and 204 in the last. The usual motive for rising in mobs was anger at the intolerable extortion by the lords,

tenant disputes being as yet rare.

It was estimated that the proportion of farmers to the whole population was 80%, and the total population in the Yédo Period showed a slow increase in the first half and a standstill in the latter. This was brought about by such natural causes as famines, prevalence of epidemics and insanitary dwellings; but the habit of infanticide which originated from the direct difficulty of living among the farming class, must have been the greatest factor in checking the increase of population, for it was usual among farmers to restrict the number of their children to less than three in a family. Another negative measure was to flee from the territory of the despotic lord to large cities. Cities had insufficient capacity to receive the inflow of these country people because as yet there were no industrial factories, but there were many openings for house-workers, day laborers and apprentices in the business houses or artisans' shops.

Commerce and Industry The advance of commerce was helped by the increase of population in the towns and cities where central and rural governmental seats were located and the regular journeys to and from Yédo of the lords and their soldiers in Sankin-kotai. But as all foreign trade was banned, business could not take on any natural or international development. The main commodity of the day was rice, that was produced in the Kansai, Chugoku (the Main Island west of Kôbe), Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokuriku (districts facing the Japan Sea in the central part of the Main Island) being transported to Osaka rice-dealers, while that of Kanto and Ohu or the north-eastern provinces was sold in Yédo. Exchange business in rice had already commenced among Osaka merchants and speculations began to draw common interest. Coins of gold, silver, bronze or copper were in good circulation by this time, although these suffered changes of value at times, and the west of Osaka adopted the silver standard while the east took the gold standard. Paper money was issued by the rural governments so that money economy prevailed all over Japan. Bank business or Ryo-gae and the credit system made considerable progress.

Yédo had over a million population and Osaka came next with several hun-

dred thousand. There were many other cities of over ten thousand. Seclusion had put a stop to sea transportation to foreign lands, but land transportation within the country made wonderful progress. The five highways, Tokai-do, Nakasen-do, Koshu-kaido, Nikko-kaido and Oshu-kaido (Dô or Kaido means road) converged at Yédo and men and goods came to the Shogunate capital along them and their byroads from the remotest corners of the land. Coasting sea transportation had the following four main lines: the South Sea line between Yédo and Osaka, the West Sea line between Osaka and Nagasaki, the North Sea line from Shimonoséki to Matsumaé, and the East Sea line between Oshu and Yédo; the most important of these being the South Sea line which connected Yédo the greatest consuming city and Osaka the greatest commercial center.

A factory in its modern sense was still unknown; what industry there was, was the home industry on the scale of handiwork, except brewing at Nada, weaving at Ashikaga and Kiriu near Yédo and Hakata in Kyushu, metal foundries in Chugoku and shipbuilding, with large capital and a fairly elaborate system.

The seclusion policy quenched the enthusiasm of the Japanese for foreign trade which had been greatly stimulated at the time of Nobunaga Oda and at the beginning of the Yédo Period by the activities of the Goshuin-sen or registered vessels and small boats of the pirates. The Japanese were compelled to fall back on the old economic system of self-supply and self-sufficiency, and to relinquish unwillingly the international spirit that had aspired to things Western on a far larger scale than that of China centuries ago.

At the same time, however, it resulted in the creation of many industries and fine arts purely Japanese, and in the course of time, the work of the artisans became minutely specialized numbering over 150 kinds. The artisans were united in guilds according to their kinds, which protected their rights and profits, master, artisans and apprentices comprising each house. There were government purveyors who were protected by the Shogunate and accumulated wealth. The number of merchants greatly increased and the classes of the wholesale merchants, middle men and retailers were definitely established.

The wholesale dealers organized associations and gradually, in their financial ascendancy, acquired real power over the samurai and lords.

Social Classes (16th-18th centuries) The policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate, which followed the national unity of Hidéyoshi Toyotomi, clearly marked the class divisions into five, the samurai, farmers, businessmen, educators and outcasts.

First, taking the place of the former Court nobles came the samurai class. This consisted of the war-lords or daimyo and their warriors and occupied governmental positions and was responsible for all the national political and military affairs, both central and provincial. The samurai lived on the revenue from taxes levied on the farmers and businessmen. In times of emergency unreasonable levies were imposed upon these working classes, and extremely despotic lords often robbed them of their wealth in the name of loans never repaid. This latter injustice was specially repeated by the lords at the end of the Yédo Period when the samurai class was thrown into an economic depression by reasons mentioned elsewhere. According to statistics taken by the Meiji Government in 1872 the number of samurai households was 395,825, with an aggregate membership of 1,911,239, or 7 per cent of the total population at the end of the Yédo Period. There were in 1752, the Shogunate house, its three relative lords and 258 daimyo. Among the 258 daimyo those who owned an estate above 600,000 koku numbered 3, above 200,000 koku 15, above 100,000 koku 27, above 60,000 koku 20, above 30,000 koku 62, and above 10,000 koku 23. All of these lords were made peers after 1884 when the old daimyo system was done away with by the Meiji Government.

Farmers were divided into three classes, village officials, landowners and tenants. The first of these were the largest landowners in villages who were asked by the daimyo or samurai dignitaries to levy taxes on the villagers. They represented their village and had power over the villagers in both public and private matters as tax-gatherers, police and leaders of the community. Other landed farmers who had no official responsibility owned their own land and farm and were the tax-bearers of the community. The tenants were sub-

jects of the other landed farmers and were the most pitiable of the working classes of the time. Of their production 50 per cent went to the samurai as public taxes and 30 per cent to their master or landed farmers as rent, and they themselves were compelled to live on but 20 per cent of what they had produced. The percentage of these classes of farmers seems to have been 2.5 per cent, 37.5 per cent, and 60 per cent, respectively. Farmers were often stricken by natural calamities in addition to this squeeze by the ruling classes.

The class of businessmen was also divided into two, wealthier merchants or artisans who owned houses and lots, and tenants. In social standing businessmen were regarded lower than farmers, but as a matter of fact their economic condition was much better. Their prosperity depended on the luxury and consequent demands of the samurai class, so the samurai and businessmen were economically interdependent, but the businessmen gradually obtained the more powerful position and wealthier "chonin" or merchants became to be much honored because of their economic power. Towards the latter half of the Yédo Period they actually became freer than the samurai. At times their wealth and lives were forfeit to the Shogunate or local war-lords, yet they laid an unshakable foundation for the business classes in new Japan after the Meiji Restoration of 1868.

The cultural class consisted of the Court nobles, monks, priests and physicians. The social standing of the Court nobles was still high. The Emperor was duly respected by the Shogunate and daimyo, but he had no political power. The Court nobles who lived in Kyoto with the Imperial House had but a meager means of living. They were satisfied to be tutors in one art or another, such as waka, Japanese football, penmanship, astrology, medical science, etc. Yet their hereditary position as the nobility was well established and they formed so strong a class of their own that the Shogunate or the war-lords could hardly disregard their existence, in fact it was by the combined power of the Court nobles and the "ronin" or masterless samurai that the Shogunate was finally overthrown in the middle of the 19th century.

The lowest class in the Yédo Period, as in the preceding period, were the

"Eta" and "hinin." The number of "Eta" (polluted) remarkably increased in this age because war-lords in the previous war age called the butchers and skinner to their castle-towns to manufacture articles for war, and the birth-rate of these "Eta" was great. They lived all over the country instead of only in the Kyoto and Nara districts as in the previous age, forming their own communities. This "Eta" class has been most unreasonably treated until 1871 when the Meiji Government declared that no legal distinction should exist between the "Eta" and others. The "hinin," outcasts, beggars, and the like were put in the same class with the "Eta." According to statistics taken by the Meiji Government in 1871 the number of the "Eta" was 280,311, beggars 23,480 and others 70,097.

Ronin A characteristic phenomenon of the Yédo Period was the appearance of the Ronin or masterless samurai. They had existed in previous years, but at the time of Toyotomi their number was insignificant. The samurai who had followed lords defeated and ruined in battles became ronin, and their number was added to by the extinction of noble houses in punishment for rebellion and the unemployment of the sons of samurai, other than the first born, who had no share in the inheritance of their father's property or position. Some samurai voluntarily chose the life of a ronin. All these ronin lived from hand to mouth and were either at odds with the ruling class or gave constant trouble to the common people. The event mainly responsible for the creation of this class of people was the battle at Sekigahara (1600 A.D.) which decided the supremacy of the Tokugawas over the Toyotomis. In the 13 years between that battle and the Osaka battle which ended in the final destruction of the Toyotomi family, the number of the lords entirely ruined or partly deprived of territory reached over 100 and the confiscated area to approximately 9,000,000 koku. Some found second masters but the larger number of the samurai were thrown out of work. The Osaka battle was caused by these samurai in a last attempt to preserve the power of the Toyotomis, although it ended in their complete failure. Again, in the 23 years between the Osaka battle and the Shimabara Rebellion of 1637 another 70 lords lost the whole or a part of their

territory by the relentless application of the Buké Hatto, and indeed the Shimabara Rebellion was nothing but an outburst of complaints by the Catholics and the ronin against the oppression of the Shogunate. But the power of the Shogunate was unshakable.

The number of the ronin, however, was still more increased, and in the 4th year of the Kélan Era, 1651, Yui-no-Shosétsu and his colleagues attempted a change of the Shogunate government for the benefit of the ronin, although it was suppressed by the wholesale arrest of the ambitious leaders and the harakiri of Yui-no-Shosétsu himself on July 25 of that year. There were minor events caused by outbreaks of the ronin here and there and at last the Shogunate was awakened by these uprisings to the graveness of the situation and after the Kélan Era measures were taken to prevent further increase in the number of these masterless samurai. As a rule, in obedience to Bushido ethics, the samurai did not like to take a second master, and only a small portion found positions, while the rest either remained unemployed or chose some other occupation. Some became merchants or farmers. Others became scholars and opened Terakoya and educated the young in Confucianism and Japanese literature and morals. Still others became specialists in military arts and gave lectures to the samurai and the lords, while there were quite a number of experts in fencing and archery who opened drill-halls or schools in the larger cities. The better element of the ronin played an important part in the social development of the country standing in a freer position than the regular samurai. And the last and most praise-worthy task they accomplished was to take a prominent part in the movement for aiding the Imperial House which finally led to the Meiji Restoration.

Exclusion Policy

Policy of Toyotomi The Catholic faith spread over Japan very quickly and many churches were built in various places. But the dogmas and institutions of the Church were in many ways unfitting to Japanese ideals and customs. Besides, the friars or missionaries were charged to have behaved without discretion, disregarding the laws of the nation. Hidéyoshi Toyotomi therefore destroyed the Catholic Church

in Kyoto in 1585, and issued a Prohibition Law in 1587, forbidding the residence of missionaries at Nagasaki and other places. But he still allowed foreigners who did not mean to spread the religion to come.

A little later, when trade with Luzon was opened, Spanish missionaries came to Japan. These missionaries were antagonistic to the Jesuits and tried to preach another form of doctrine among the Japanese people in the face of the Prohibition Law, and quarrelled with the Portuguese missionaries. Hidéyoshi issued a more drastic prohibition law and severely punished the breakers; but he died without accomplishing his aim, and both Portuguese and Spanish missionaries came in greater numbers and preached the Gospel more earnestly so that the believers in it increased with remarkable rapidity.

Policy of Iyéyasu Iyéyasu followed in Hidéyoshi's steps and encouraged foreign trade. But being anxious lest the people should be misled by the Catholic priests he prohibited their preaching in 1612, expelled them from the country, and strictly ordered the Japanese believers to turn from their faith, and those who did not obey his order were condemned to death. They called this turning from or casting away the Christian faith "Korobi" or rolling over.

Going Abroad Prohibited But missionaries came in considerable numbers, and secretly continued to spread Christianity. The Shogunate saw the difficulty of complete prohibition, and began to take stricter steps. Iyémitsu, the third Shogun, prohibited the importation of foreign books in 1630, forbade any one to go out of the country without permission of the Government in 1633, and prohibited the going abroad of any Japanese in 1636. Finally, no Japanese was allowed to return from abroad.

Seclusion of the Nation The Shogunate kept a strict watch against the coming in of the Catholic faith and tried to exterminate the believers in the country. Its measures were so severe that the Christian believers rose in rebellion at Shimabara in 1637. The uprising was subdued in a short time, but because of it the Shogunate determined to go a step farther in carrying out the law, and prohibited the coming of for-

eign people entirely in 1639, with the only exception of the Hollanders who cherished no idea of spreading the Catholic faith among the Japanese. Hollanders were allowed to trade at Nagasaki, but only under supervision of the officials.

With this strict seclusion policy the Shogunate was able to root out Catholicism and remove from the minds of the people the influence of foreign thought and belief, and so gain peace in home affairs. But during those years, foreign affairs became known to only a few of the Shogunate upper officials, and this merely through meager reports presented by the Dutch Consul. The people were kept in entire ignorance.

In the 18th century, foreign ships began to visit Japan, and the Japanese could no longer leave these intruders at their shores unheeded.

Foreign Studies Renewed Seventy years after the enforcement of seclusion, books on foreign trade and the state of affairs in the western world were published and the people were much instructed by such literature. The Shogun Yoshimune took an interest in western studies and followed a liberal policy for importing western books in 1720; this brought about a Renaissance which awakened the Japanese from their long sleep.

Seclusion Law Reinforced The Seclusion Law required the provincial lords to drive foreigners away from the shores of the Empire, but its observance grew lax with the lapse of time. At the end of the 18th century the Shogunate made it milder and allowed foreign ships to come, on condition that they had no enmity to the nation. Unfortunately, however, the repeated rough conduct of foreign sailors irritated the official mind and caused the reinforcement of the old law, the coastguards being given orders to bombard any foreign boat which came near the shore, to arrest any of the crew who landed, and kill them if necessary. In 1825, strict orders were given to Japanese boats not to have any intercourse with foreign vessels.

National Doors Opened

An American ship, the "Morrison," coming to bring members of a Japanese shipwrecked crew back to their country,

met with the bombardment, and went back to China in 1837.

In 1844, William II, King of Holland, sent a confidential letter with a special delegate to Japan, to warn that country to be careful not to follow the miserable example of China. Merchant vessels and warships of England and France many times came to the Loochoo Islands and the French made a forcible landing at Naha, the best port of the Loochoos, put missionaries ashore there and asked for the opening of friendly intercourse in 1844. The Shogunate complied with their request for trade, but drove the missionaries away in 1848.

Treaty of Amity with America In the sixth year of Ka'ei, 1853, Commodore Perry came to Uraga with a fleet of four warships. A friendly treaty was finally concluded between Japan and America in 1855.

Treaty with Russia Russia also sent Vice-Admiral Poutiatine to Nagasaki in 1853, and a treaty of commerce with Russia was concluded, by which Shimoda, Hakodate and Nagasaki were opened to her vessels, and agreements were made respecting the boundaries of Russia and Japan in the north.

At that time England and Russia were at war, and in 1854 an English warship came to Nagasaki for a supply of provisions. The Shogunate consented to open Nagasaki and Hakodate for English vessels, and an agreement was reached between the two nations. Hakodate and Shimoda were opened to Holland also and a treaty was concluded in 1855.

Conclusion of Commercial Treaties In 1850 the United States sent to Shimoda her Consul-General, Townsend Harris. He finally succeeded to come up to Yédo and present credentials in person to the Shogun Iyésada in 1857. He requested the Government's consent to open trade relations, and asked that an American minister might be stationed in Yédo, assuring of American sincerity. The foreign trade allowed hitherto by the Shogunate was only through the mediation of the officials, and Harris insisted upon free and direct commerce between the merchants of the nations.

The Shogunate officials themselves, already aware of the inconveniences of the old system, complied with his requests, regularly concluded a friendly

commercial treaty with the United States, and agreed to open new Kanagawa (the present Yokohama), Nagasaki, Niigata, and Hyogo (Kobé) in addition to Shimoda and Hakodate. They allowed Americans to settle in those ports for trade, gave them freedom to come in to Yédo and Osaka, recognized their freedom of religious belief and extraterritorial jurisdiction, and regulated the rate of tariff in 1858. This was the so-called Ansei modus vivendi.

In the same year the treaty was ratified by the Shogunate, without the Imperial sanction. The Shogunate concluded similar treaties with Holland, Russia, England, and France in the same year; and with Prussia, Switzerland and Belgium a little later.

Opening of the Country The Government appointed a commissioner to administer foreign affairs in 1858, and the Shogun sought the Imperial sanction for the provisional treaties, and finally got it in 1865. The carrying into practice of all these treaties was realized with the opening of Hyogo (Kobé) port in 1867, the year of the accession of the Emperor Meiji. In the meantime, several international troubles occurred. Russia tried to invade Tsushima in 1861, Satsuma warriors fought against an English fleet off Kagoshima in 1863, and the Nagato clan had an engagement with the combined fleets of France, England, Holland, and America at Shimonoséki in 1864.

Downfall of the Shogunate

Court and Shogunate The Yédo Government adopted the policy of keeping the Imperial Court at a respectful distance, paying apparent homage to it, but actually presenting it only with 120,000 koku of rice, the pension of a middle-class lord.

Uprising of the Loyalists On the other hand, the smouldering fire of loyalty to the Imperial House was gradually fanned into a blaze by the increasing attention paid to the study of Confucianism and old Japanese literature. Confucian scholars taught that the first duty of the people was to be loyal to the King (Emperor) and not to the Conqueror (Shogun), while the students of old Japanese literature clearly set forth the illegality of the Shogunate in the country of which the sovereignty belonged solely to the

Imperial House. Down to the middle of the Yédo Period, however, these teachings were taken as mere matters of academic interest without practical application. Mitsukuni Tokugawa, the lord of Mito, was among the foremost in advocating the virtue of loyalty to the Imperial House, himself beginning the work of compiling a Japanese history to make this characteristic Japanese virtue clearly understood, and erecting a monument to the loyalist Masashige Kusunoki at Minatogawa, Kobé. Such other scholars as Ansei Yamazaki, Kéisai Asami, and Soko Yamaka, emphasized the virtue of loyalty, though not necessarily to incite any anti-Shogunate sentiment. Their teachings, nevertheless, acted to stimulate Imperial loyalty in the hearts of the samurai and the people till the time came when it should burst into flame.

The first instance of these sentiments being transformed into practical action was the movement of Takénouchi Shikibu who came from Niigata to Kyoto and went about among the Court nobles insisting upon the need of a loyalists' uprising. He was banished by the Shogunate in 1759. Daini Yamagata and Umon Fujii followed him, but both were soon put to death. However, the corruption and weakening of the Shogunate régime quickened the anti-Shogunate feeling in general towards the end of the 18th century. Especially the renaissance of Japanese literature and national character brought about by the teachings of the Japanese scholars, Norinaga Motoori and Atsutane Hirata, greatly helped the loyalist cause. Hiko-kuro Takayama went around the provinces propagating the principle; Kumpei Gamo visited the tombs of the Emperors and publicly bewailed their neglected state. Sanyo Rai wrote a Japanese history in which he upheld dignity and prestige of the Imperial House and scathingly criticized the Shogunate régime.

The knocking at Japan's doors by foreign countries presented ample chances for the loyalists to take advantage of the confusion and misdoings of the Shogunate Government, and public opinion finally endorsed their movement at the beginning of the 19th century.

The Ansei Coup d'Etat When the Emperor Koméi, father of the Emperor Meiji, came to the Throne, he did not

hesitate to give Imperial suggestions and command to the Shogunate, and the Imperial power was greatly strengthened. The party which was defeated in its hopes for choosing another man for the 14th Shogun schemed a reformation of the Shogunate from within. They united with other forces and asked for an Imperial edict to accomplish their plans. The Emperor issued an edict and reprimanded the Shogunate for concluding treaties without the Imperial sanction. Whereupon the Shogunate sent a delegate to apologize for the steps they had taken, but at the same time the Tairo (premier) Naosuké II declared the Coup d'Etat of Ansei, 1858, and put into prison all who worked for the issuance of the Imperial edict. His purpose was to re-establish the governmental authority of the Shogunate. But it was assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun's palace in March 1860.

The assassination of the Tairo gave what was to prove a final blow to the Shogunate though the Roju, Nobunasa Ando, schemed a combination or amalgamation of the Imperial Court and the Shogunate to save the latter from ruin. Some of the powerful lords in the west responded to the idea for a time, but public opinion was overwhelmingly against this amalgamation movement on the part of the pro-Shogun party, and the anti-Yédo movement increased still more in power. Most of the loyalists gathered in Kyoto in open defiance of Yédo. The ronin or unemployed samurai flocked to the cause in such great numbers that it was necessary for the armies of the lords of Satsuma, Tosa and Choshu to keep them in bounds in order to preserve the peace of the city.

On the other hand, the Emperor Koméi sent a messenger to Yédo to urge the reformation of the Shogunate Government. The Shogun Iyeshigé tried to make improvement in the system of Sankin-kotai, etc., but it was too late to regain the support of the people. The Namamugi incident, in which three Englishmen were killed or injured by the lord of Shimazu's samurai and England demanding compensation, stirred the extreme anti-foreign party to fury and the Kyoto Court sent this time Sanetomi Sanjo to Yédo and ordered the Shogunate to wage war against all foreigners. In 1863 an Anti-Foreign Edict was issued by the Shogunate, and the armies of the Choshu and Satsuma

lords attacked foreign merchant ships and warships. The hot headed loyalists in Kyoto demanded that a nation-wide anti-foreign movement should be launched, and the Emperor was inclined to take command of the movement himself. But the other group of princes and lords prevailed upon the Emperor to adopt a more tactful measure, and the leaders of the radical element lost influence and fled to the west. For a while the schism among the loyalists persisted, but the object lesson of the bombardment of Shimonoséki by a combined foreign fleet weakened the anti-foreign movement to a great extent. By 1867, when the Emperor Meiji ascended the Throne, the anti-foreign movement had died away and the loyalists were solely concerned with the destruction of the Shogunate régime, recognizing the inability of the Shogunate to sustain the national honor in the crisis.

Prince Sanetomi Sanjo, one of the seven Court nobles who had fled to the west, joined Prince Tomomi Iwakura in leading the anti-Shogunate movement. The hostility between the two greatest of the western lords, Shimazu, lord of Satsuma province and Mori of Choshu or Nagato, was pacified by the arbitration of Prince Sanjo and they became strongly united in the common cause. Prince Iwakura, succeeding in making a definite plan for the destruction of the Shogunate, gathered many young and gifted samurai under these two lords, such as Takamori Saigo, Toshimichi Okubo of Satsuma and Takayoshi Kido of Nagato, and asked the Imperial sanction for the movement.

On October 14, 1867, the Emperor Meiji gave orders to the Satsuma and Choshu lords to open hostilities against the Yédo Government. On the side of the Shogunate, Toyonobu Yamanouchi, former lord of Tosa in Shikoku, was informed of this secret plan of the Imperial army, and being anxious to avert the impending civil war sent Shojiro Goto to present a memorial to the Shogun Yoshinobu (Kéiki) Tokugawa, advising his surrender of the sovereign authority. Whereupon Yoshinobu, who was staying at Kyoto, immediately called an assembly of the representative samurai of the lords then staying in the city to the Nijo Castle on October 13, 1867, and asked their opinion on his determination to surrender. The assembly gladly agreed to his decision

on the advice of Shojiro Goto and Tatéaki Komatsu, a subject of the Satsuma lord. On October 14, Yoshinobu presented a written request for the Imperial permission, and on October 24 the resignation of the Shogun was formally

tendered to the Throne. Thus the Yédo Shogunate ended with the 15th Shogun, after having continued for 265 years, and after a total period of 675 years the sovereign authority was restored to the Throne.

THE NEW JAPAN

Meiji Era

(1868-1912 A.D.)

The Meiji Restoration

In December of 1867, the Emperor Meiji issued an important order abolishing the old officialdom and forming a new Dajokan which should consist of the president, councillors and vice-councillors, and proclaiming the direct rule of the Throne in every line of national government. The Imperial Prince Arisugawa was appointed President of the Dajokan, and those court nobles and feudal lords who had faithfully worked for the Restoration were given the position of councillors, while some other men of ability from among the nobles and common samurai were made vice-councillors. The people were allowed to live in complete equality, discarding the old castes of nobles and common people. This change was called "Ishin" or the renovation of all things. On March 14, 1868, or the first year of Meiji, the Emperor called together the princes and high officials to the Shishiden and took the famous oath of five articles before the ancestral gods. These five articles of the Imperial oath provided the foundation to the new régime. They were as follows: (1) We will call councils and rule the nation according to public opinion; (2) Men of upper and lower classes without distinction shall be united in all enterprises; (3) Civil officials and military officers shall be in one accord and all the common people shall be so treated that they can attain their aims and feel no discontent; (4) Old unworthy ways and customs shall be destroyed and the people shall walk along the highway of heaven and earth; and (5) Knowledge shall be sought among the nations of the world and the Empire shall be led up to the zenith of prosperity.

"To accomplish this unprecedented reformation, We go before the people, and proclaim the fundamental national

principles, even in the presence of the gods of heaven and earth, to establish the way for the public welfare. Ye, Our subjects, shall be united all together, according to these principles."

In August of the same year, the formal celebration of the Emperor's accession to the Throne was held at the central palace, and in September the year-name of Kéio was changed to Meiji.

Removal of the Capital The Emperor Meiji paid his first visit to Tokyo in the first year and made the castle of Yédo his permanent palace in the second year of the new era, or 1869. The Government was subsequently removed to Tokyo.

The Organization In the first year of Meiji, 1868, a new Central Government was established in accordance with the five principles above mentioned. It was called Dajokan, or Great Government, with seven departments. The council played the part of the future parliament; the five departments of general political, religious, financial, military and foreign affairs were administrative; and the last, the penal department took charge of justice, and independence of the legislature, the executive and the judicature was for the first time established. In a few years several adjustments were made, but by the fourth year all the official machinery of the central government was systematically arranged.

Surrender of Provinces The Imperial Court had confiscated all the territory belonging to the old Shogunate, and set up prefectural offices and appointed governors, but the feudal lords still owned their lands and their feudal subjects. In the first year of Meiji, Takayoshi (Koin) Kido advised Lord Mori, Daimyo of Nagano, to return his territory to the Court, Lord Mori, Lord Shimazu of Satsuma, Lord Nabeshima of Iizen and Lord Yamanouchi of Tosa jointly tendered their petition for the territorial surrender. Other lords fol-

lowed them, and their petition was accepted in the second year. The lords gave up all their land and people, asking for nothing in return. For the time being they were requested to continue as governors of their districts, and the feudal system was completely destroyed.

The country was divided into 8 urban prefectures, 26 prefectures and 262 clan districts. But the governors of clan districts, the former feudal lords, governed their people mostly in the old style, preserving the "chief-and-subject" relationship. The orders and ways of administration were greatly distorted and the authority of the Central Government was ineffective. Plans were made to do away with the clan governors and unify the whole nation under the same form of prefectural government. The Emperor called all the clan district governors to Tokyo in 1871, and told them about the abolition of their office. They were given privilege to live in Tokyo, and were replaced by the civil prefectural governors. Through many changes, the country was finally divided as at present into one "Do" or district, 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures in 1889. (Foreign relations are dealt with in Chapter VI.)

Social Reforms

In 1869, when the resignation of the lords was accepted, the names "Kuge" (court noble) and "Daimyo" (feudal lord) were abolished and the nobles and lords were all made "Kazoku" (peers). Clan samurai were given the class-name of Shizoku, and in the following year the common people were allowed to take their own family names, which they had not previously borne. In 1871, intermarriage was permitted between the peers and Heimin or common people, while the peers and Shizoku were allowed to engage in the ordinary business of agriculture, industry and commerce.

Thus the social castes of the feudal age were entirely broken to pieces. Social institutions and customs changed also. With the official recognition of friendly intercourse with foreign people, international traffic and relations became busier and more intimate. Many a Japanese who went abroad brought back Western customs and introduced new institutions, and the peo-

ple were quick to adopt them in their daily social life.

Telegraph system was installed between Tokyo and Yokohama on Dec. 25, 1869 (2nd year of Meiji); Regular inter-city mail service started between Tokyo, Kyoto and Osaka in 1871 (4th year); First train ran between Tokyo and Yokohama, on Sept. 12, 1872 (5th year); Men were ordered to cut off their topknots and prohibited to carry swords in 1871 (4th year); Laws regarding European costumes and uniforms of officials were issued, 1871;

The solar calendar officially replaced the lunar calendar, 1872 and December 3 of the lunar year was declared January 1 of the 6th year of Meiji or 1873. National holidays were announced in 1871.

In 1871, the Department of Education was added to the Government and, in 1872, the national educational system was established and it became compulsory for all children to be sent to public elementary schools. Buildings in European styles began to appear in the cities and people gradually acquired a taste for foreign food.

New Military System

Prior to the Restoration the people at large had nothing to do with military affairs. But with the reforms following the Restoration, the military system was revised and in 1872 the provisional Department of Military Affairs was changed into the two departments of Army and Navy, and in the following year the law of conscription was issued and, in accordance with the old-time ideas of the Japanese and on the pattern of most of the European powers the people were all ordered to share in universal military service for the defense of the country. The military system made singular progress through the many national crises of the Meiji Era.

Cultivation of Hokkaido

At the beginning of the Meiji Era the cultivation of the waste land of the north was proposed, and in 1869 the Colonization Bureau was opened. The name Hokkaido, or north-sea-district, was given to the land, formerly known as Ezo. In 1870 Kiyotaka Kuroda was appointed vice-president of the Bureau and he made untiring efforts to civilize the natives, to construct roads to pro-

mote industry and to encourage immigrants from the other islands. In 1875, he invited the samurai class of the three northeastern prefectures of the Main Island to form a colonial militia to defend and cultivate the land at the same time. The farming and other population of Hokkaido has rapidly increased since. A knotty question in the north was the boundary between Japan and Russia. The Shogunate had several diplomatic negotiations with the Russian admirals, and question again arose with the opening of the Colonization Bureau. Japan sought to divide the island of Saghalien into two with the border line at 50° north latitude. Kuroda wished to abandon Saghalien and concentrate all efforts on the colonization of Hokkaido, and the Government sent Vice-Admiral Takéaki (Buyo) Enomoto to Russia and tried to settle the question. In 1875 a compromise was reached and the whole of Saghalien was adjudged to belong to Russia and all the Kurile Islands were given to Japan. This so-called exchange of Saghalien and the Kuriles finally settled the long dispute over Japan's northern boundaries.

Civil Wars

The Cause The political and social reforms of the Meiji Restoration were so vast in scale and so rapid in progress that the masses of the people could hardly appreciate their significance, intrinsic or apparent, that they were even offended by some of new government policies that radically went counter to their accustomed old customs or habits. Some of political leaders who had dissatisfaction with those in power often assumed leadership in local disturbances. There were constant hitches among officials and people in the country, frequently marked with the assassinations of ranking officials.

Shimpéi Eto caused some trouble in Saga prefecture; but he was soon subdued by the Imperial army. In Kumamoto, an adjacent prefecture to Saga, Otaguro and others formed a party called the Jimpuren or Divine-wind-party, and made an attack on the Kumamoto garrison in 1876, only to be defeated by the soldiers of the garrison. At Hagí, the north-western end of the Main Island, Maébara rose in accord with the Jimpuren party, but he was killed and his men dispersed.

The Saigo Rebellion General Taka-

mori Saigo, a member of the Council and the head of the military department, could not realize his ideas about the Korean problem, and was deeply grieved at the failure. After his resignation he went back to his native place, Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu Island. Over a hundred officers and soldiers who had been under him in the Tokyo Imperial Guard followed him to the south, causing a great commotion in the country. His followers, such as ex-major-generals Kirino and Shinowara, elected Saigo to the leadership of their party and the head of their private school. In 1877 Saigo, Kirino and Shinowara gathered an army of over 15,000 soldiers, proclaiming their intention of impeaching the Government for its social and political failures, and came up to Kumamoto and besieged the Kumamoto castle of the Imperial garrison. But the commander of the garrison, Major-General Tatéki Tani bravely fought against Saigo's army. The Emperor Meiji appointed the Imperial Prince Arisugawa to be Commander-in-Chief, and Lieutenant-General Arimoto Yamagata and Vice-Admiral Suniyoshi Kawamura to be the heads of the army and navy respectively. Saigo's troops were compelled to raise the siege under the pressure of the Imperial armies, and they retreated in disorder back to Kagoshima, and made Shiroyama their final stronghold. Shiroyama is a promontory on the outskirts of the town and there the great Saigo killed himself. This rebellion was really the last of the civil wars accompanying the Restoration. After this Southwestern Civil War, the wounded soldiers, loyalist and rebel alike, were cared for at the Imperial army hospitals.

The Japan Red Cross Society was founded on this occasion.

Dawn of Constitutional Government

The Genro-in In the first year of Meiji, government institutions were reformed in many ways, and representatives of prefectures were made members of the lower council. In the following year the public assembly was opened, and the prefectural representatives became its members. But this assembly consisted of members who were all chosen by the Government, and it gave rise to a demand for the

establishment of an assembly of representatives elected by the people. In 1873 Kido, who had come back from his European tour of investigation, proposed the establishment of the national constitution; while in 1874, Soejima, Goto, Itagaki and Eto presented a petition for establishment of parliament by popular election. The Government did not adopt either proposal as the time was not yet ripe, but in 1875 they established the Genro-in, a kind of Senate, as the chief seat of legislation, and the Supreme Court of Judicature for the administration of justice, and summoned district governors to Tokyo to learn of the requirements of the people. In 1876, the Emperor ordered the Genro-in to make plans for the formation of the Imperial Constitution and in 1879 prefectural assemblies were opened for deciding on district finances and representative government was first tried in the local districts.

Prefectural Elections. With the end of the Southwestern Civil War the foundation of the Central Government became unshakable. But in a few years Japan lost most of her able statesmen one after another. Saigo died in the battle just mentioned, Kido passed away from illness, and Okubo was assassinated in 1878. These were the three pillars of the Reformation, and Shigenobu Okuma, Hirobumi Ito and the like had to carry on their strenuous task. In April 1878, the second local governors' conference was held. The items for discussion were rules concerning prefectural assemblies, local taxes, and the organization of towns and villages. In July of the same year the rules concerning prefectural assemblies were issued, and according to the articles public election of representatives and local self-government was for the first time to be put into practice in the following year.

The election was void of shady events, because the people honored the candidates as those who must in truth represent them not only in wisdom and political ideas but also in personality and social standing. The result was that the prefectural assemblies were composed of the best class of men in the districts. The famous members of the Imperial Diet and great statesmen of later days mostly came out of these early local assemblies.

Political Dissensions. Political dissensions, which had appeared even under the turmoil of military struggles, came to the fore, and heated discussions were carried on both in debates and through pamphlets. The one who attracted most public attention with his progressive opinions was Tatsuké Itagaki of Tosa. In September 1878, a meeting was held at Osaka under the leadership of Itagaki's society to pass a resolution calling for the realization of the national assembly. It was a meeting of samurai-class people as yet. But their second meeting, in March 1879, gathered together 80 members who represented 21 societies in 19 prefectures, and the third meeting in November passed a resolution to petition the Emperor, and drafted a letter with a long heading, "Letter of Appeal to the Public for Demanding the Establishment of the National Assembly." The letter was printed and given a wide circulation.

Petition for Opening Diet. It is said that over 50 such petitions were presented to the Government during the one year of 1880. In the midst of these political agitations, a young scholar of French politics, Kinmochi Salonji came back from Paris and published the "Toyo Jiyu Shinbun" (Eastern Liberal News), and to much annoyance of the authorities, instructed the people in the principles of liberal politics. The acute state of affairs seemed to presage the early appearance of an Imperial Diet when the political events of 1881 occurred.

Imperial Edict Issued. In that year the Government proposed to sell to the Kansai Trade Society the land, buildings, ships, dock and hunting fields which belonged to the Colonization Bureau. The actual price was estimated at a little over ¥300,000, while the Government had invested and spent as much as ¥14,096,800 on them. There was a strong suspicion of favoritism for the Kagoshima merchants of the said society, for many of the high officials came from that district, and criticisms arose against the abuse. This public criticism was caught up by those who demanded social justice and bitterly censured the official autocracy. On the very evening of his return from a tour of the north-eastern districts on October 11, the Emperor Meiji called the members of the Cabinet and the councillors to a meeting in his

presence at which it was resolved that the government sale should be stopped at once and that the Imperial Diet should be summoned in the twenty-third year of Meiji (1890). These resolutions were published in the Imperial edict issued on the following day, October 12, 1881. With the issuing of this edict the bolsterous discussion and debate among the people gradually died down and political parties began to be organized for carrying out their political principles in readiness for the opening of parliament 10 years later. The major parties were the Jiyu-to (Liberal) of Tatsuké Itagaki and the Kai-shin-to (Progressive) of Shigenobu Okuma.

Preparation of Constitution. In 1882 the Government sent Hirobumi Ito to investigate political institutions abroad, and to obtain models or suggestions best suited to Japan. Ito and his assistants mostly stayed in Germany and there studied Western politics and constitutions, and came back in the following year. In 1884 the Government established an Investigation Bureau and, appointing Ito the president of the Bureau, ordered him to draft the Constitution and plans for the new institutions.

It was in this year that a law for the peers was enacted and the five ranks of nobility—prince, marquis, count, viscount and baron—were first defined. In 1885, at the instance of Prince Sanjo and to lay the foundation for true constitutional government, the structure of the Central Government was reorganized and a cabinet of a modern nature was formed for the first time, the old positions of councillor and minister being abolished. It consisted of the Premier and Ministers for Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Finance, Army, Navy, Justice, Education, Agriculture and Commerce, and Communications. In the Court there were the Naidaijin or Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals and the Minister of the Imperial Household. The first Premier was Ito himself, who held the additional post of the Ministership of the Imperial Household. In 1888 the Privy Council was established, with statesmen of tried caliber named as its members and it was made the highest body for Imperial consultation on important political affairs. Ito also was the first President of the Privy Council. The draft of the Constitution was completed by this year and the

Emperor put it before the Privy Council as the first subject of discussion. The Emperor Meiji was present at all sessions on the Constitution, lent attentive ear to the opinions of the different members, showing great personal interest in framing and discussing the resolutions.

Promulgation of the Constitution. On the 11th of February, the 2,549th anniversary of the accession of Jimmu Tenno, 1880 in Western reckoning, the Emperor Meiji reverently reported the promulgation of the Constitution to the ancestral gods. Then appearing in person with the Empress before the Imperial Princes, Cabinet ministers, high officials, representative people, and foreign ministers, solemnly issued the Imperial Constitution (See Appendix). He issued an accompanying law relating to the Imperial family which regulated future accessions, and relative positions of the Imperial Princes, setting forth the guiding principle on the question of the successor to the Throne. Other laws that accompanied the Constitution were on the election of the members of the lower house of parliament and its institution. They were issued in the same year, and in November 1890, the first Imperial Diet was convened in Tokyo and the opening ceremony was held in the presence of the Emperor. Local self-government had been established and improvements made in the institutions of cities and towns for the past two years, and in this year another improvement in the prefectural and county institutions was made, confirming their self-government, although county government was abolished later.

Law. Since the downfall of feudalism and return of fiefs to the Emperor, uniform laws for the control of the people became an acute necessity and the Government first revised the criminal law in 1883 (6th year of Meiji). Other laws were revised or newly compiled according to the need of changing society and with due regard to foreign relations. The code of civil procedure, the commercial law and the civil law were enforced by 1899. The criminal law was revised in 1908 and the code of civil procedure in 1924 according to the advanced ideals and needs of the times.

Revision of Treaties (See Chapter VI)

Sino-Japanese War

On August 1, 1894, Japan declared war against China, the Emperor setting up his headquarters at Hiroshima. Lieutenant-General Nozu routed the Chinese soldiers and drove them back from the boundaries of Chosen in that month, and Vice-Admiral Yukyo Ito, Commander-in-Chief of the combined fleet, defeated the Chinese North-Sea fleet on the Yellow Sea. In October, Commander Arimoto Yamagata led his First Army through Chosen to Southern Manchuria and advanced to the west, while Commander Iwao Oyama, head of the Second Army, crossed the Yellow Sea and entered China direct, to act in conjunction with the Imperial fleet on the sea. Port Arthur was captured in November and Weihaiwei in February 1895, and the Chinese naval power was annihilated. In March, the peninsula of Liaotung was seized by the Japanese armies and Peking was threatened by attack, while Southern China lay at the mercy of the Japanese fleet. The Emperor Meiji appointed Imperial Prince Akihito Arisugawa generalissimo over the whole army and navy to reduce China to submission. China asked for peace, appointing Li Hung-chang her delegate. Japanese delegates Premier Ito and Foreign Minister Mutsu met him at a peace conference at Shimonoseki. According to the peace treaty concluded in April 1895, China recognized Chosen independence, gave Japan the Liaotung Peninsula, Taiwan and Boko Islands, paid her ¥300,000,000 as indemnity, and opened four new ports for trade.

Return of Liaotung In alliance with Germany and France, Russia intervened and advised Japan to give back the territory to China, and the Peninsula was returned to China at the end of 1895 for an indemnity of about ¥45,000,000.

The newly acquired territory of Taiwan was first governed by Governor-General Kabayama. In 1896, the whole island of Taiwan was pacified and the new people began to understand the Japanese rule. In 1898 Gentaro Kodama became the Governor-General and encouraged industry and improved traffic so much that the island was really transformed into a valuable part of the Empire.

The Boxer Uprising In April 1900 the anti-foreign movement Boxer Uprising broke out in Shantung.

With the help of Japanese troops, the allied army dispersed the Boxers from Peking where Japanese and German officials had been killed and the Legations were relieved from further attack. The Peking protocol, signed on September 7, 1901, settled the affair with China paying a total indemnity of 450,000,000 Hk. taels to the Powers (Japan's share ¥44,000,000) and dispatching special envoys to Japan and Germany to apologize.

Anglo-Japanese Alliance After the experience of the Boxer Uprising, England abandoned her historical policy of "splendid isolation" and allied with Japan in 1902 for mutual help in Far Eastern problems. According to the terms of alliance, Japan and England were to be united in maintaining Chinese and Chosen territorial integrity and to help each other if any two other nations united to attack either one of the allies in the Far East.

Russo-Japanese War

Russian advance into Manchuria menaced the territorial integrity of Chosen, the existence of Japan, and the peace of the Far East. Japan, compelled to take a firm stand against these designs, proposed a mutual understanding about the limitation of rights of both nations to avoid the impending danger of collision. But Russia continued to menace Japan, maintaining a most aggressive attitude. The Japanese final proposal on the problems in Manchuria, of January 12, 1904, was left unanswered by Russia for two weeks, and the Imperial declaration of war against Russia was issued on February 10, 1904.

War on Sea The combined fleet of Admiral Togo immediately attacked the Russian warships off Port Arthur and Chinnampo and constantly pressed the Russian navy in Port Arthur. The warships in Vladivostok often came out into Japanese waters, harassed the communications of the Japanese army on the continent and hindered the transport of troops, but they were also destroyed in August by the second squadron under Rear-Admiral Kamimura.

War on Land On land, General Kuroki headed the First Army and marched

into Manchuria through Chosen in May; the Second Army, with General Oku in command, landed on the Liaotung peninsula and devising a united stratagem with the Fourth Army under General Nozu, defeated the enemy in every place, and the three armies simultaneously advanced to Liaotung. In June the Emperor ordered Generalissimo Oyama, Commander-in-Chief of all the armies, and General Kodama, Chief of the General Staff, to go to the front, and they spurred the whole army to victory over the Russian soldiers in the town. In October the Russian reinforcements came down to retake the town, but the Japanese armies encountered them at Sha-ho and defeated them.

In the meantime the Third Army under General Nogi turned from Liaotung to the attack of Port Arthur. Nogi began the famous but awful siege warfare, and captured the so-called "203-meter hill" in December. In January 1905, General Stoessel, head of the Russian garrison, surrendered to General Nogi and sued for peace.

After the unsuccessful Battle of Sha-ho the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army, General Kuropatkin, gathered over 600,000 soldiers at Mukden and awaited his chance. In February 1905, the Japanese Manchurian armies were reinforced by the Third Army from Port Arthur and General Kawamura's Yalu River army, and rallying 400,000 soldiers advanced towards Mukden from three directions. After a fierce battle of 14 days the Japanese armies routed the immense armies of the enemy, who rushed to the north, completely crushed on March 10, 1905.

The Battle of the Japan Sea Before the downfall of Port Arthur and the defeat at Mukden, Russia had seen that the weakness of her naval power in Japanese waters delayed any possible victory over Japan. She therefore formed the Second and Third Pacific Squadrons out of her Baltic fleet and sent them to the Pacific under the command of Vice-Admiral Rozdhestvensky. The Russian fleet made a long voyage to the Far East and Togo was able to make full plans to meet them under circumstances most advantageous to the Japanese fleet. The Baltic fleet, consisting of 33 warships, sailed straight to their destination across the East China Sea. Togo chose the narrow Tsushima Straits to encounter the Rus-

sian fleet. It took only a few hours from the evening of May 27 to the following morning to sink most of the Russian warships or blow them to pieces. Rozdhestvensky and his staff were taken captive. In July of the same year a part of the Japanese army was landed in Saghalien and subduing the Russian resistance quickly captured the whole island.

The Peace President Roosevelt of the United States then initiated peace-proposals between Japan and Russia, and succeeded in persuading them to open a peace conference in America. Japan sent Jutaro Komura and Kogoro Takahira as her ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary to Portsmouth to meet with the Russian ambassadors Witte and Rosen. The peace treaty was concluded on September 5, 1905. Russia recognized the supreme rights of Japan over Chosen, surrendered the southern half of Saghalien (since then officially known as Karafuto) to Japan and handed over the special rights of lease in Kwantung (since then officially known as the Leased Territory of Kwantung), the railway south of Changchung (present Hsinking, capital of Manchoukuo) to Dairen, the territory known as the railway zone and the mining along it.

After the Russo-Japanese War

Post-war Readjustment The Russo-Japanese war raised Japan's position in world politics, especially in regard to Oriental affairs. The international relations of Japan with the Western Powers became so intimate and important that all of them replaced their ministers with ambassadors in Japan. In home affairs Japan made special efforts in the education of the people to keep abreast with the times. Industry in all lines leaped forward under the leadership of able business men. In 1906 Port Arthur was made a naval station for the defense of the Kwantung littoral, and the South Manchuria Railway Company was established to manage the railway and mining business which had been handed over by Russia. Dairen and a part of Port Arthur were opened for international trade. In 1907 the Saghalien national boundary was fixed at 50° north latitude, and the Government opened an office there and encouraged the emigration of Japanese to the island.

Relations with Chosen

(See Chapter VI.)

Treaties with Powers

(See Chapter VI.)

Demise of the Emperor Meiji On July 30, 1912, the Emperor Meiji passed away after only a few weeks of illness in his Tokyo Palace. He died beloved of all, a love which was attested by the splendid Meiji Shrine which was built in his honor, and which draws more worshippers than any other shrine. The Emperor Yoshihito (the late Emperor Taisho) came to the Throne immediately after his father's death, according to the provisions in the Imperial code on the succession.

Taisho Era
(1912-1926)

The World War

Japan's Contribution When the World War broke out in August 1914, Japan, in the spirit of noblesse oblige, by virtue of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, sided with the Allies. On August 23, 1914, Japan declared war against Germany.

Tsingtao Falls Japan lost no time in dispatching her army and navy to Tsingtao. The Second Squadron commanded by Vice-Admiral Sadakichi Kato blockaded the gulf while the First Squadron of Vice-Admiral Tomosaburo Kato kept watch over the Yellow Sea and other China north-eastern seas. The 18th Divisional Commander Kanwo attacked the fortress from behind. In conjunction with the navy. Some British troops also took part and they all besieged the fortress in October 1914. The attack was so aggressive that in but ten days all the batteries were captured and in November the German Governor Waldeck and his staff surrendered the port and fortress. A detachment of the First Squadron was sent to the South Seas and acting in concert with the British Navy tried to destroy the German Asiatic fleet. The Marshall Islands were occupied in September, and the Mariana and Caroline Islands in October.

and possession was taken of all German naval stations in the South Seas. British vessels met the German fleet in the Indian Ocean, and off the coast of South Africa, and destroyed it in December 1914.

With the progress of the World War, Japan dispatched a special-service fleet as far as the Mediterranean. The special-service fleet tried its best to protect trade and communications in that part by effectively attacking German submarines in cooperation with the Allied fleets. (See Chapter VI on Foreign Relations.)

The Kanto Earthquake On September 1, 1923, Japan underwent the sad experience of the Kanto earthquake, in which tens of thousands of houses were destroyed or damaged in Tokyo, Kanagawa, Shizuoka, Saitama and Chiba prefectures, and a hundred thousand people were killed or injured, with an estimated loss of several thousand million yen. (See Chapter I.) The great fires started by the earthquake in Tokyo and Yokohama caused far more deaths than those which were directly attributable to the shocks. But, undaunted by the terrible disaster, the people not only of the metropolis but of all Japan stood up in a splendid spirit of determination to reconstruct all her damaged cities and towns by the help of the sympathetic nations of America and Europe. The wonderful improvement in the streets and buildings of the new cities materially exhibited the strength of Japan's national power, so that the great earthquake rather quickened than retarded the advance of Japan as a whole.

Demise of the Emperor Taisho In December 1926, the Emperor Taisho passed away at the Hayama Winter Palace and the Regent, Crown Prince Hirohito, succeeded him as Ruler, the year-name of Showa, or Enlightened Peace, being given to his era. Under his rule Japan is continuing her painstaking efforts to keep pace with world progress and cope with complicated international relations.

A SURVEY OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**After the Meiji Restoration**

The growth of capitalism in Japan took place much later than in European countries, and the course of development differed accordingly. The

main cause of delay was the closed-door policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate during the 220 years of its régime beginning 1639 and ending 1859, when

some ports were opened for foreign trade.

During the latter half of the period of seclusion the first beginnings of capitalism were becoming evident in the country. But no mercantilism had made its appearance as its predecessor as it had done before the advent of capitalism in Europe, nor did the commercial and industrial conditions of the country make such progress as those of Europe.

The feudalistic order which had lasted for over three hundred years was rapidly heading to a collapse. As the country had little influence from outside on account of its seclusion policy the course of dissolution which the prevailing order of life was facing was simple and natural. In this respect the European history has no parallel.

Toward the latter part of the Tokugawa Period the self-supply and self-sufficiency principle followed in rural districts hitherto began to be threatened by the gradual development of capitalism, although in its infancy, owing to the production of industrial goods, exchange of commodities and the general circulation of money. Serfdom of a type peculiar to Japan began to take on a more or less modern aspect by the appearance of rich landowners in the latter half of the Yedo Period, suggesting the inevitable birth of capitalism.

In the manufacturing industry handicraft production in rural homes and craft guilds in cities began to come under the control of wholesalers and workshops in which craftsmen were gathered together under capitalistic management. At the end of the Yedo Period or in the middle of the nineteenth century the Tokugawa Shogunate and the powerful feudal lords imported factory system from the west under the pressure of Western powers whose remarkable advancement in industrial and military fields awakened the nation from its long sleep of seclusion.

In the field of commerce progress was quicker than in other fields of national economy. During the period of war-lords prior to the Yedo Period manufacturers formed craft guilds which continued to exist up to the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate. Together with them merchant guilds made a headway, largely owing to the expansion of cities. (See "Yedo Period" in this Chapter.)

Currency system was developed by the Tokugawa Shogunate, and coins of gold, silver, copper, iron and brass were in general circulation in the Yedo Period. Besides, local lords issued their own paper notes of all denominations for circulation within their fiefs. National unification of currency was not yet realized, but the use of money made a considerable progress in the Yedo Period.

The rise of the merchant class and change in warriors' status transformed the old feudal system in its fundamentals and it stood on the brink of complete dissolution when Western countries came knocking at the doors of Japan in the middle of the 19th century.

There was no period of mercantilism in Japan since foreign trade was almost nil and consequently the nation did not enjoy the benefits of a favorable balance of trade. On the other hand, England and other Western countries had entered into a full capitalistic age through the industrial revolution in the last quarter of the 18th century. The territorial and economic expansion of British imperialism eastward reached Japan right after the Nanjing Treaty of 1842. Japan, however, was fortunate enough to protect her territorial integrity and independence at this critical moment, but she was compelled to conclude, in 1858, unfair commercial treaties with Western countries in which tariff autonomy was relinquished and extraterritoriality rights were granted to Western Powers at trade ports. Japan was able to abolish the latter only after 42 years, while for the recovery of tariff autonomy 12 years or more were required.

In the Beginning of the Meiji Era Capitalism in Japan, therefore, developed not through industrial and commercial development of the nation but rather under the leadership of the Government and some wealthy merchants enjoying official patronage, and under the pressure of unequal treaties which robbed Japan of free protective trade policy for over half a century. The difficulties met by Japanese leaders, public and private, were incomparably great in as much as they endeavored to bring the nation up to the political and economic standards of advanced countries in defiance of numerous handicaps. What Japanese leaders of the time had in mind was the immediate

necessity of enriching the nation and reinforcing national defense in order to raise Japan's position to become a member of the family of nations and to ensure national solidarity against possible invasion of foreign Powers as exemplified by their dealings with China. What the leaders of Japan first accomplished was the overthrow of feudalism which had been the greatest obstacle against a rapid advancement of the country to the status of a modern nation, then the introduction and adoption of Western ways, modern administrative and military systems and commercial and industrial enterprises. The anti-foreign agitation in the years prior to the Meiji Restoration was not so much a manifestation of stubborn conservatism as an expression of the people's dissatisfaction with the old feudal régime and the re-affirmation of their loyalty to the Mikado. The patriotic fervor awakened and strengthened during the anti-foreign and anti-Shogunate movement among the people persisted in the mind of the Meiji leaders in their planning and execution of national policies and measures even in matters of economic development. The country was opened for trade, and the former restrictions on trade and industry according to classes were removed so that any individual might enter into any business in accordance with his inclination and free choice. Customs barriers set up at various points all over the country were abolished to facilitate free exchange of commodities and permit freedom of people's movements from one section of the land to another.

One of the major problems in the reformation at the beginning of the Meiji Era, during the years 1868-1876, was the deprivation of privileges enjoyed by the samurai class which comprised about 6.6 per cent of the population which was estimated at 30,000,000. It became clear very early that the privileged class could not be allowed to exist in old status any more, for the entire social structure was to be reorganized and the national conscription system was to be adopted in 1872. The Government, therefore, deprived them of their fiefs or allowances and gave public bonds instead specially issued for the purpose. The average value of public bonds for each samurai household was only ¥550. The samurai families, excepting the feudal lords, were, therefore, soon thrown into

penury, and the Government advised them to enter farm and industrial businesses, gave them positions in governmental factories, railways, and used them as teachers in schools or as policemen. The majority of the police men in the beginning of the Meiji Era were the samurai of former days, mostly retainers of the lord of Kagoshima so that Kagoshima dialect prevailed for many years among the policemen in Japan.

But the good services of former samurai rendered for the country in the Meiji Era cannot be overlooked. The gigantic transformation, both political and economic, was initiated and led by the able retainers of the old feudal lords. With the exception of such persons as Katsu-Kaishu and Okubo-Ichizo who had been direct subjects of the Tokugawa Shogunate and yet played an important rôle in the Restoration, most of the leaders came from among the lower class samurai serving under provincial lords. They cooperated with the nobles in Kyoto for the renovation of the country. Foremost among the personages who made invaluable contributions toward the economic development of Japan in the early years of Meiji were Toshimichi Okubo, Masayoshi Matsukata, Shigenobu Okuma, Hirobumi Ito and Kaoru Inoue, all of whom came from samurai class. The most outstanding figures among the private business leaders were also from the samurai class, as, for instance, Eiji Shibusawa, Tomoatsu Godai, Yataro Iwasaki, founder of the Mitsubishi interests, Heigoro Soda and Ryohel Toyokawa of the same firm, Hikojiro Nakamigawa and Takuma Dan of the Mitsui interests, Toyoji Wada, Buel Nakano, Kokichi Sonoda, Jofu Yamabe, and Kengo Hayami. Japanese capitalism, therefore, was nurtured and developed by the spirit of samurai, which gave to all business enterprise a nationalistic motive, and developed the spirit of co-operation between business men and governmental officials, so characteristic of the economic development of Japan in the early years of Meiji.

In order to reorganize the nation, politically, economically and socially, the strengthening of national finance was the first requisite. The establishment of a strong military system and promotion of industries put heavy burden on national treasury. Business

organization among the people or capitalistic power of private firms was still very weak, while there was almost no factory equipped with modern machines or furnaces. Importation of machines, improvement of communication facilities and organization of banking institutions, all had to be initiated by the Government.

The ordinary revenue of the Central Government had to come entirely from taxes and flotation of public bonds. In the years when private corporations and manufacturing industries were still undeveloped, the principal item of taxation was land tax. The Government, therefore, endeavored first to adjust disorderly land taxes of former days and instituted an investigation of actual conditions in Japan as well as a study of different taxation systems of Western countries with a view to modernizing the taxation systems. Preparations for a thorough revision of land tax were commenced in 1870, with the purpose of unifying the taxation system throughout the country, by imposing a uniform rate, changing the old system of paying tax in kind to paying in money and lowering the rate from that of feudal days.

National unification of taxes was comparatively easy because the country was completely unified by the return of feuds by local lords to the Throne and the institution of prefectural system in 1871. As to the method of payment of taxes, in some districts under the Shogunate taxes on up-land products were being levied in money and now this system was gradually extended to paddy fields as well. The last aim which was to lower the tax from the average rate of feudal days was the hardest to accomplish, because the new government had to rely largely upon revenue from land tax for its finances. First of all, tax was imposed on the basis of land value instead of the amount of production, then the payment was changed from kind to money, and the rate of tax was fixed at 2 per cent of land value by the provisions of the new land tax law promulgated in 1873. With an additional sur-tax, the actual valuation of new tax rate was estimated at 34 per cent of the amount of rice produced. It was only one per cent lower than the rate imposed by the Tokugawa Shogunate on products in the districts under its direct rule, although it must be re-

membered, as mentioned elsewhere, that the rate was much higher in the districts under local lords, who were able to collect, at will, taxes for coming years in advance or command extraordinary contributions at any time.

Land tax in the years around 1873 occupied the first place among the comparatively few items of taxation, the proceeds of which accounted for over 80 per cent of State ordinary revenue (an insignificant 0.12 per cent in 1940-1941), the burden heavily resting upon the shoulders of farmers for the support of industries other than their own.

New Economic Systems Introduced
Currency system after Western model was adopted and the coins of varied and complicated denominations of the Tokugawa Shogunate were replaced by new coins cast at the national mint in November 1869. The shape of coins was regulated to be round instead of square or round as the old coins, while the former complicated counting was changed to decimal system. At first silver standard was adopted, but it was replaced by gold standard in May 1871. At the same time, however, silver coins were used for purposes of foreign trade for many years after. It was in 1897 that the currency system based on gold standard was completed in Japan. The basis for the development of modern industries was thus established in Japan in the years immediately following the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895. On the other hand the sudden transformation of the country from a medieval to a modern state resulted in a huge demand for funds in every field, and consequently unconvertible paper notes were issued by different departments of the Government in the early years of Meiji, while national banks, organized in accordance with the National Bank Law promulgated in November 1872, which numbered 153 in 1879, also issued bank notes, causing serious inflation of currency in the years 1879-1881. But through the good offices of the Finance Minister Masayoshi Matsukata all Governmental and bank notes were adjusted and consolidated so that the financial and economic conditions of the country became normal between 1881 and 1885. In 1877 the National Bank Law was revised, and, through the operation of the new bank law, the establishment of national banks began to decrease after 1881 while private banks began to in-

crease in number to meet the needs of the times.

During a business boom in 1886-1889 local banks and railway companies were established in considerable numbers. Spinning and silk industries also made progress in these years, but the expansion of banking and communication facilities went ahead of manufacturing industries in Japan indicating an abnormal development of capitalistic enterprises at their start. Banks and railways drew a large amount of investment during these years and established the basis for future development. The power of banks over industries was further augmented by the establishment of special banks (see Chapter on Banking) with the Nippon Ginko as the central bank solely empowered to issue bank notes. In spite of the ups and downs of the economic world through the years of international wars in Meiji and Taisho eras banking organs continued to make sound progress so that they maintain a firm grip on industrial and commercial enterprises up to the present.

Railways A model steam engine and train were presented to the Shogunate as early as 1853 by Commodore Perry which gave a rudimentary idea of modern transportation facilities to competent authorities of the time, and later the Shogunate envoys to Europe came back with fresh knowledge of railways and with books on the conditions in European countries, and stimulated earnest concern in the Government for laying railways in the islands. It was in the fifth year of Meiji (1872) that the first railway was laid between Tokyo and Yokohama. During the following decade the construction of railways was carried on briskly under governmental management, until, by 1881, the Kyoto-Osaka, Osaka-Kobe, and Kyoto-Otsu lines were completed. The railway enterprise which was till now exclusively under governmental management was taken up by private interests, and in 1881 the Nippon Railway Company, a private concern was established with the purpose of laying railway lines between Tokyo and Aomori. With the extension of every mileage of this railway to the north, the enterprise gained increasing success so that, during the years (1886-1889) of business boom, investments were largely drawn to railways. The total mileage of governmental and private railways in

Japan amounted to 1,500 miles by 1896. The next period of railway expansion was the 3 years of 1895-1897 when about 58 per cent of ¥1,400,000,000, the total amount of investment for new enterprises in Japan during those 3 years, went to railway companies. This trend of investment changed in the years following the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905 and it began to go to manufacturing industries in a greater degree. But in general railway business continued to make surprising progress and in 1907 all important lines in the islands were placed under State ownership, mainly for the purpose of strengthening national defense. Since then the Government has been making every effort for covering all parts of the country with a complete network of railways in order to facilitate communications, business expansion, political unity and national defense for the economic development of the nation. (See Chapter on Land Transportation.)

Shipping Companies The sea transportation business in Japan owed its progress, even more than the railways, to the Governmental measures of support from the beginning of Meiji. The successive calls of the European and American mercantile and war ships at the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate strongly impressed the rulers and leaders of the time with the acute need for large-size ships for Japan's own defense and commercial development. Accordingly, many steam ships were either purchased or built by the Shogunate and local lords. The Meiji Government was determined to build a fleet of merchant vessels so as to compete with the Pacific Steamship Company of America and the P.O.S.S. Company of England which were dominating the sea transportation business in Oriental waters. They saw the need of promoting sea transportation by Japanese themselves for recovering into the hand of the Japanese the foreign trade of Japan, 97 per cent of which was in the hand of foreign firms. As soon as the Meiji Government was established it adopted a policy of protecting foreign trade and gave all possible aid to sea transportation enterprises carried by the Shipping Company, the Postal Steamship Company, the Mitsubishi Company, the Union Transportation Company and the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. The first named two companies were capitalized by the Mitsui interests and

supported by Kaoru Inoue of the Government, while the Mitsubishi Company was backed by Toshimichi Okubo and Shigenobu Okuma. The latter which was led by Yataro Iwasaki got special Government protection and rendered valuable services by conveying soldiers at the time of the Formosan Expedition, the Saga Incident and the Southwestern Civil War of 1897, monopolizing important sea transportation business in those years. But in 1882 a new company came into being under the auspices of Yajiro Shinagawa, Eiichi Shibusawa and Takashi Masuda, powerful economic leaders in that period. The new company, known as the Union Transportation Company, capitalized at ¥3,000,000, entered into close competition with the old Mitsubishi Company. In the end their competition became so destructive that the Government had to interfere and brought about an amalgamation of the two companies, which resulted in the birth of the N.Y.K. in 1885. The Toyo Kisen, the Nisshin Kisen and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha were subsequently established and added a large number of excellent ships for the development of the Japanese sea transportation and trade expansion, also under the special protection of the Government. During the years of the World War and the post-war period, many new shipping companies appeared and disappeared in Japan causing considerable disturbance in the shipping world. But the old N.Y.K., O.S.K. and other surviving shipping companies have continued to expand, more or less supported by the Government, through the years of Showa to play the most important rôle for the execution of the China Affair and the construction of the new order in East Asia in recent years.

Foreign Trade Among other fields of national economy which the Meiji Government endeavored to emphasize and promote was the foreign trade. In accordance with the provisions of the treaties with the five Western Powers concluded in 1858 Japan was forced to recognize extraterritoriality for the convenience of the treaty Powers at different ports and the assessment of import tariff was restricted so as not to enable Japan to take any protective policy at her own will. Yet the Powers agreed to the import tariff of 35 per cent ad valorem, largely through the good offices of the American envoy,

Townsend Harris. But the Powers took advantage of the anti-foreign movement among the people and certain untoward incidents involving their subjects in the following years to lower the rate to 5 per cent in 1866. In the beginning of the Meiji Era this revised import tariff was in force to the great disadvantage of Japanese traders. According to Governmental investigation in 1877, Japan's foreign trade was almost entirely in the hands of foreigners, 94 per cent of exports and 95 per cent of imports being handled by foreign firms. Another investigation revealed that as much as 97 per cent of Japan's trade was controlled by foreign traders. Such conditions were incompatible with the economic development of the country, and the leaders of the nation did everything to recover and assure autonomous tariff system and enrich the nation through foreign trade by the Japanese. The first requisite for the achievement of this goal were the revision of treaties on an equal footing and the abrogation of extraterritoriality. Special missions were sent to Western countries with the purpose of investigating western institutions and coming into direct contact with their governments and leaders, and on the return of those missions things European were indiscriminately introduced into the country, bringing about a period of European worship. On the other hand, advertisements and propaganda were eagerly made for the debut of Japanese goods in foreign markets. Special products of Japan were sent to and exhibited at international expositions in Vienna, Philadelphia, Melbourne and Paris. The Government took 20 such chances up to 1887 without regard to the large expenditure and trouble involved, in the endeavor to introduce Japan and to cultivate markets for Japanese goods in foreign lands. It took, however, not less than 40 years to bring about a revision of the treaties and to recover autonomy in import tariff. It was a hard task for Japan to promote modern industries in the country without the freedom of taking protective measures through the control of customs duties. Japan, however, was able to break away from the economic control of Western Powers, almost similar to that exercised in China, by the earnest and patriotic efforts of its wise and able leaders, both in the Government and among the people, by the end of the

Meiji Era. Since then Japan has become the greatest commercial and industrialized nation in the Orient, keeping pace with the leading western countries.

Manufacturing Industries The first effort of the Meiji Government for the establishment of manufacturing industries in Japan was centered on the promotion of the munitions industry with the purpose of strengthening national defense which had been almost nothing as compared with European Powers. Here also Japan followed a reverse order beginning her industrial development with manufacturing guns and munition instead of peace-time goods as had been the case with European countries. Prior to the Meiji Restoration, the Mito clan began the manufacture of guns in 1836 and had a furnace built in 1855; the Saga clan erected a factory for the manufacture of Dutch-style fire-arms in 1842 and installed a reverberatory furnace in 1850; and the Satsuma clan began the manufacture of guns, large and small, and gunpowder at the Shusei Kan factory in 1851. There were established a sugar factory and a spinning factory in Kagoshima, but the main efforts were concentrated in the munitions industry. The Shogunate Government at Yedo established the Nagasaki Iron Foundry in 1861, Yokosuka and Yokohama iron foundries in 1864, while a Shogunate Agent Tarozaemon Egawa at Nirayama installed a reverberatory furnace in his factory in 1853. Munition factories were also established at Takinogawa and Koishikawa on the outskirts of Yedo.

Those old factories were taken over by the new Meiji Government and were improved and enlarged, while some new ones were added to the list. The principal munition and shipbuilding factories which appeared in the early years of Meiji were army arsenals in Tokyo and Osaka, the Yokosuka Dock and shipyards at Nagasaki, Hyogo (Kobe), Ishikawajima (Tokyo) and Kagoshima.

In order to promote other lines of the manufacturing industry the Government Industrial Bureau established the Akabané Factory in 1871 for the manufacture of iron tools and bricks, and the Shinagawa Glass Factory in 1876. The mines exploited by the Government in those years were the Ikuno Gold Mine, Sado Gold Mine, Innao Gold

Mine, Kosaka Copper Mine, Miké Coal Mine and Kamashiri Iron Mine. A large number of foreign experts were employed for the technical guidance of these factories and mines. Among them was Gottfried Wagner, a German engineer, who came to Japan in 1868 and died here in 1892, devoting the best part of his life for the progress of manufacturing industries in Japan, including the modernization of the old ceramic industry of the country.

In 1872, the Tomioka Silk Factory was established by the Government the first factory of the kind in Japan. They had hard time to gather girls to work in the factory, since parents were reluctant to send their daughters on account of a superstitious fear attached to European method of filature. Here girls of the old samurai class set good example by volunteering service in the factory and later becoming tutors of girls in other filatures established one after another. In 1878 a governmental cotton spinning factory was established at Hiroshima; in the following year a spinning and weaving factory was opened at Senju, Tokyo, now known as the Senju Woolen Factory conducted by the Army Ministry. In 1872 and the years following the Hokkaido Colonization Office established, at Sapporo and Muroran, breweries, saw mills and factories for the manufacture of cloth or fishing nets.

The spinning factories established by the Government before 1878 were sold to private enterprisers at the time of the financial readjustment conducted by the Finance Minister Masayoshi Mutsukata in 1881 and in the succeeding years. In 1883, a big cotton spinning factory in Osaka began its work with 10,500 spindles, a great advancement as compared with 2,000 spindles used in similar factories in 1878. Since then the cotton spinning industry in Japan made a speedy progress and in 1897 Japan exported 4,290 piculs of cotton yarns against 161 piculs of imported ones. The abolition of customs duties on exported cotton yarns in 1891 and import tariff on cotton in 1896 must have contributed largely for the increase in exports. The cotton spinning and silk reeling industries in general entered into a period of modern mechanical production around the years of the Sino-Japanese War, 1894-05, marking an epochal change in the industrial development of Japan.

War and Industrial Progress Industrial and economic progress in Japan seems to receive fresh stimulus with every international disturbance or war. The first entrance into Japan of modern industry was the result of troubles with Western countries; the second economic expansion was connected with the Sino-Japanese War; the third with the Russo-Japanese War; and the fourth with the World War I.

The Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895 cost the lives of thousands of young men of Japan and a large sum of money, but no damage on industrial facilities in the land was incurred. Instead, it brought in 365 million yen of indemnity from China, much in excess of actual war expenditure. The international relations of Japan immediately after the Sino-Japanese War suggested the possibility of another war and the Government took control of all enterprises for strengthening national defense. The establishment of the Yawata Iron Foundry, the extension of State railways, improvement of water courses, communication facilities and educational systems, the execution of colonization policy and the adoption of gold standard were among the important achievements of the Government in those years. The State finance swelled greatly, and stimulated the speedy development of national economy.

The productive power of the nation made remarkable expansion by the utilization of factories which had been erected for munitions manufacture during the war. The amount of money invested in industries was augmented, and the national credit increased so that foreign investment in Japan became obtainable much more easily. The victory opened new markets for Japanese goods in Western countries, and the enterprising spirit of the nation was fired to an unprecedented degree, as it is well revealed in the comparison of figures for new companies and factories established during the years ending the 35th year of Meiji or 1902. There were 64 companies and 872 factories established in Japan in 1877, 392 companies and 694 factories were added during the 8 years from 1878 to 1885, 925 companies and 1,798 factories were established during the following 8 years from 1886 to 1893, and 7,217 companies and 4,328 factories came into being during the 9 years from 1894 or the

year of the beginning of the Sino-Japanese War to 1902, i.e. as many as 84 per cent of the companies and 50 per cent of factories established between 1877 and 1902 were those established during the Sino-Japanese War and the years immediately following that event.

After the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, the number of army divisions was increased from 13 to 19, the peace strength from 150,000 to 250,000, while the total tonnage of warships was raised from 260,000 tons to 500,000 tons. The law for the State ownership of railways was promulgated in 1906, and all the main lines in the islands were purchased by the Government by the end of the following year. The increase of State expenditure stimulated the national economic progress to a still greater degree than in the years following the Sino-Japanese War. Foreign capital flew in in much greater amount and its total amount which had been only 200 million yen at the end of 1903 or the year before the Russo-Japanese War increased to 1,000 million yen at the end of 1907 and 2,000 million yen at the end of 1913. The amount of paid-up capital of banks in Japan went up from 373 million yen to 651 million yen, deposits from 700 million to 2,540 million during 1902-1915. New investments amounted to 3,841 million yen during 1905-1913 and 50 per cent of it was raised in the period from September 1905 to December 1907 or within 28 months after the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War.

Divided according to kinds of business, 29.4 per cent of the above total went to manufacturing industries, 12.3 per cent to electric enterprises, 18.3 per cent to railways, 14.9 per cent to banks, the remaining 16 per cent to commerce, etc. As compared with the three years after the Sino-Japanese War or 1895-1897 in which 58 per cent of the total investment (1,460 million yen) went to railways, 15 per cent to banks and the remaining 26.8 per cent to industries, the direction of investment during 1905-1907 underwent a considerable change, for 48.4 per cent of its total amount was represented by the money spent on productive industries. Foreign trade made great strides in those years, the amount of exports increasing every year, with 289 million yen for 1903, 423 million yen for 1906, 526 million yen for 1912 and over 600 million yen for the following

year. The only industry left undeveloped was agriculture as in the years following the Sino-Japanese War.

The World War of 1914-1918 brought an unexpected business boom to Japan. The State expenditure, which was 668 million yen in the first year of the war, increased to 823 million yen in 1918; it crossed over the 1,000 million mark and amounted to 1,024 million yen in 1919, 1,396 million yen in 1920 and 1,591 million yen in 1921, reflecting the remarkable growth of national economy. The belligerent countries stopped exports and sought supplies of goods and munitions from Japan since production in Japan was not affected by the war on account of its geographical situation. Complete stoppage of, or enormous decrease in exports of European and American goods, the corresponding increase in Japanese exports to markets hitherto supplied by Western countries, export of munitions from Japan to the belligerent countries in Europe, and the world demand for bottoms made tremendous contributions toward the economic expansion of Japan.

Mineral ores, machines, tools and chemicals which had been imported in pre-war days stopped to come, and Japan had to supply herself with home products in these lines. Mining, the machine and tool manufacturing industry, metal works and the chemical industry, therefore, made an epoch-making progress under the protection and direction of the Government. Japanese cotton goods and miscellaneous merchandise gained new markets specially in the Far East and the South Seas. Machines and tools made in Japan were also exported, though not in large quantities. Knitted goods, shoes, ornamental articles, copper, iron and beans were exported in considerable quantities.

The demand for bottoms increased with the advance of the World War and the freightage which had been 15s. 6d., Bombay-London, in July 1914, went up to 62s. 6d. in June 1915, 133s. in March 1916, and 225s. in October of the same year. Large and small shipowners in Japan were all blessed with the boom in shipping business and there appeared many "Nari-kin" or upstart millionaires in Japan. The accompanying ship-building business naturally made an enormous headway. The boom caused by the war continued for about 6 years during and after it. Viewed from the

movement of capital, the amount of investments of new and enlarged companies totalled 292 million yen in 1915, 657 million yen in 1916, 1,562 million yen in 1917, 2,676 million yen in 1918, 4,068 million yen in 1919, and 5,113 million yen in 1920, but a reaction set in in the following year with 2,236 million yen. The sum total of investment during the 6 years, 1915-1920, reached the huge amount of 14,371 million yen against 1,983 million yen which had been the aggregate amount of capital raised during the preceding 46 years, 1868-1913.

During those years the balances of foreign trade and the so-called invisible trade turned to Japan's advantage and this country's specie abroad showed an unprecedented increase. The progressive increase of Japan's export trade during the war years are indicated by the following figures:—613 million yen in 1914, 730 million yen in 1915, 1,153 million yen in 1916, 1,610 million yen in 1917, 2,022 million yen in 1918, and 2,180 million yen in 1919. But the figures began to fall from the following year, the amount being 2,040 million yen in 1920; and 1,308 million yen in 1921. The invisible trade maintained a favorable balance during 1914-1921; for instance, the excess of receipts in 1918 reached 575 million yen, in the following year 504 million yen. Japan's specie held abroad which had amounted to 341 million yen in 1914 increased to 2,178 million yen in 1920. Thus, Japan which was a debtor in 1914 became creditor by the end of the war, her international debt of 1,090 million yen at the end of 1914 having been paid back during the war years and the net amount of claim at the end of 1920 stood at 2,770 million yen.

The World War years saw the scope and level of mining and industrial facilities for national production reach the highest standard till then achieved. Specially remarkable was the progress in the key industries, the chemical industry and the cotton spinning and weaving industry. All branches of transportation business and banking also made a great advance. Unions of companies began in those years for the consolidation of national economy which had reached a high capitalistic stage. However, in the production of machines and tools, some articles of the chemical industry and precision machines, Japan had not yet reached satisfactory stage, and important arti-

cles had still to be imported in considerable quantities. The problem of self-supply in those articles was left for future solution. It may be said in this connection that the increased need of the years after the Manchurian Incident of 1931 and the scientific progress in the country are working toward a complete solution of the problem.

Rural districts were benefited by the boom of the World War years to a certain extent, but the fundamental improvement of agriculture in connection with the ownership of farm lands or the adoption of large farming machines was left untouched.

Marching Forward Japan was hard hit by the reaction of domestic and international economic conditions in the years following the World War. A period of economic readjustment set in the world over; the belligerent Powers reassumed economic activities and regained their former markets which had passed into Japanese hands temporarily, cartels and trusts began to control prices, Russia separated herself from capitalistic nations, manufacturing industries began to develop in colonies and dominions of Powers; currency inflation in Germany, France and Russia worked hard upon world economy, so that each country began to protect its domestic market and to seek as many foreign markets as possible; the American panic of September 1929 spread to other parts of the world and the economic policy of the Powers came in for a radical change, causing the principle of free trade to be replaced by the national protective economy and the economic bloc system; all efforts for disarmament failed and preparedness for another world war became the guiding policy of Powers finally culminating in

the present World War II.

In the midst of such economic confusion the world over, Japan experienced stock-market panic in 1920, banking panic in 1922, the great earthquake and fire in 1923, a general economic panic in 1927, and the severe effects of world depression in 1929. In 1930 the gold embargo was removed, but the deflation policy of the Government further intensified the current economic unrest, and finally in September 1931 the Manchurian Incident occurred and in December of the same year gold was once more embargoed. A lower exchange rate of the yen worked favorably for Japan's trade for the time being. In 1932 the Shanghai Affair took place, and the movement for national reorganization and the strengthening of national defense persisted in 1932-37, accompanying the assassinations of several dignitaries. At last the present China Affair broke out to initiate the construction of a new order in East Asia.

Throughout these trying times Japan has continued her struggle for advancement in all economic spheres especially for the expansion and progress of munitions industries and key industries connected with national defense. Japan is now entering into a thoroughly controlled economy to prepare for the coming world crisis.

The course of Japan's economic expansion and progress during the past 70 years reveals the old samurai spirit of the people which has enabled them to face all crises with a smile and break through all hardships to greater achievements. The Government and the people once more stand united to overcome the critical situations confronting the nation with a determined will.

CHRONICLE OF IMPORTANT HISTORICAL EVENTS IN JAPAN AND THE WORLD

JAPAN

Beginning of the Empire

(2,000 B.C.—709 A.D.)

(2,000 B.C.-600 B.C. Age of ancestral tribes and Imperial Fathers.)

B.C.

660 The Emperor Jimmu ascends the Throne at Kashiwara, in the present Nara prefecture.

THE WORLD

B.C.

776 Greek chronology begins to be precise from this date.

753 Rome founded. (Traditional date)

606 Destruction of Nineveh. End of the Assyrian Empire.

JAPAN

- 564 The 18th year of the second Emperor Suizei.
 561 The 31st year of the same Emperor.
 509 The 2nd year of the fourth Emperor Itoku.
 470 The 6th year of the fifth Emperor Kosho.
 451 The 25th year of the same Emperor.
 356 The 37th year of the sixth Emperor Koan.
 330 The 63rd year of the same Emperor.
 220 The 71st year of the seventh Emperor Korei.
 146 The 12th year of the ninth Emperor Kaika.
 58 The 40th year of the tenth Emperor Sujin.
 5 The Great Shrine of Isé built by the eleventh Emperor Suinin.
 4 The 26th year of the Emperor Suinin.
 A.D.
 65 The 94th year of the Emperor Suinin.
 97-110 Kyushu and the eastern half of the Main Island subdued by the twelfth Emperor Keiko and Prince Yamatotakeru.
 135 The Japanese Empire divided for the first time, into administrative districts by the thirteenth Emperor Selmu.
 200 Silla conquered by the Empress Jingo.
 285 Confucianism introduced.
 313 The sixteenth Emperor Nintoku establishes the capital at Naniwa (Osaka) for the convenience of intercourse with Korea.
 316 The Emperor Nintoku relieves the people by a three year remission of taxes.
 476 The 20th year of the twenty-first Emperor Yuryaku.
 529 The 23rd year of the twenty-sixth Emperor Keitai.
 552 Buddhism introduced.

THE WORLD

- 564 Birth of Gautama Buddha.
 561 Birth of Confucius.
 509 Roman Republic established. (Traditional date).
 470 Birth of Socrates.
 451-450 Laws of the Twelve Tables published. The basis of all later Roman law.
 356 Birth of Alexander the Great.
 330 The Persian Empire overthrown.
 327 Conquest of India by Alexander the Great.
 220 The Tsin Dynasty unifies China.
 214 Great Wall of China begun.
 146 Carthage and Corinth destroyed by the Romans.
 58-50 Conquest of Gaul by Julius Caesar.
 4 Birth of Jesus Christ.
 A.D.
 65 Buddhism introduced into China.
 70 Jerusalem captured by the Romans.
 135 Dispersion of the Jews.
 212 Edict of Caracalla. Extended Roman citizenship to all free-born men in the Roman Empire.
 284 Reorganization of the Roman Empire by Diocletian.
 313 Edict of Milan. Granted general religious toleration and placed Christianity on a legal equality with the other religions of the Roman world.
 330 Constantinople (New Rome) made the capital of the Roman Empire.
 395 Separation of the Roman Empire.
 476 Deposition of Romulus Augustulus. Extinction of the line of Roman emperors in the West.
 529-534 Codification of Roman law. One of the most important contributions of Rome to civilization.

JAPAN

- 562 Japanese Office in Mimana destroyed by Silla.
 593 Imperial Prince Shotoku, Regent, builds Horyuji and Shitennoji temples.
 604 The Constitution of Seventeen Tables published by the Regent Shotoku.
 607 An envoy sent to the Sui Court of China.
 630 An envoy sent to the Tang Court of China.
 645 The custom of "year names" introduced.
 646 The Taika Reformation.
 660 Ezo (Hokkaido) subjugated by Hirafo Abe.
 663 Control over Korean peninsula abandoned.
 701 The Taiho Law promulgated and the organization of the Imperial Government fixed.

Nara Period

(710-793 A.D.)

- 710 Nara founded as the capital by the Empress Gemmyo (the forty-third ruler).
 620-720 The first books of Japanese history, Nihon Shoki (Japanese Annals) and Kojiki (Antiquities) compiled.
 756 The treasures of the Emperor Shomu donated to Todaiji temple by the Empress Komyo, and later building of the Shoso-in Museum for their preservation.
 769 Dictatorship of Doko, Buddhist "pope," opposed by the loyalist Kiyomaro Waké.

Heian Period

(794-1191 A.D.)

- 794 Heian (Kyoto) founded as the new capital by the fiftieth Emperor Kammu.
 794-800 Establishment of governmental and private schools.
 848 Casting of Taiho copper coins.
 858 Yoshifusa Fujiwara assumes the Regency. Rise of the Fujiwaras.
 887 Mototsune Fujiwara the Daijo Daijin and Regent appointed Kampaku (Chief Councillor to the Throne).
 894 Official intercourse with the Tang Dynasty broken off.

THE WORLD

- 570 Birth of Mohammed.
 618 The Sui Dynasty destroyed by the Tang Dynasty.
 622 The flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina. Beginning of the Mohammedan era.
 641 Defeat of Persia by the Saracens.
 661-668 Supremacy of Silla among Korean kingdoms.
 732 Battle of Tours. Stemmed the farther advance of the Moslems into western Europe.
 713 Conquest of Spain by the Saracens.
 727 Leo III, Emperor of the East Roman Empire, publishes an edict for the prohibition of idolatry.
 756 Separation of the Saracen Empire.
 800 Charlemagne crowned Emperor of the Romans. Formation of the so-called Holy Roman Empire.
 843 Treaty of Verdun and 870 Treaty of Mersen. Marked important stages in the dissolution of Charlemagne's dominions.
 888 The Count of Paris installed by the French.
 890 Alfred the Great divides England into three.

JAPAN

- 729-900 Bokka, a maritime monarchy in Manchuria trades with Japan.
 901 Michizane Sugawara, candidate for Kampaku, reduced to the governor of Kyushu by the Fujiwara scandal.
 950 Samurai families of Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Heishi or Heike) gradually rise to power.

- 1016 Climax of the Fujiwara despotism and prosperity.
 1039 Armies of Buddhist monks disturb the capital.

- 1167 Kiyomori Taira promoted to Daijo Daijin.

- 1167-1180 Autocracy of Kiyomori and family.
 1180 Rise of the Minamotos in rivalry to the Tairas. Yoritomo Minamoto establishes headquarters at Kamakura.
 1185 The Tairas destroyed by the Minamotos. Yoritomo Minamoto appoints local military police and tax-gatherers.

Kamakura Period
(1192-1337 A.D.)

- 1192 Yoritomo Minamoto appointed Sei-Tai-Shogun (Generalissimo) and the Shogun Government formally sanctioned. For the following 675 years Japan ruled by the samurai statesmen.
 1219 The Kamakura Shogunate ended with the third Shogun, Sanetomo Minamoto. But Masako, widow of Yoritomo officiates as a nun Shogun for several years.
 1224 Yasutoki Hojo becomes chief executive of the Kamakura Shogunate. The Hojos exercise the Shogun's duties for over a century.

THE WORLD

- 904 Attack of Constantinople by the Russians.
 962 Otto I, the Great, crowned Roman Emperor. Revival of the Holy Roman Empire.
 982 Greenland discovered by the Northmen.
 988 Christianity introduced into Russia. The Russian Slavs henceforth came under the influence of the Greek Church and Byzantine civilization.
 1054 Rupture of the Greek and Roman Churches. Destroyed the religious unity of European Christendom.
 1066 Battle of Hastings. Resulted in the Norman Conquest of England.
 1095 Council of Clermont. Beginning of the crusades.
 1122 Concordat of Worms. A compromise arrangement between the Papacy and the Holy Roman Empire.
 1169 Beginning of the Conquest of Ireland by the English.

- 1206-1227 Conquests of Jenghis Khan. Brought a large part of western Asia and eastern Europe under Mongol sway.
 1215 Magna Carta. Defined the rights of Englishmen and inspired their later struggles for political liberty.
 1271-1295 Travels of Marco Polo. His narratives greatly increased the interest of Europeans in the Far East.

JAPAN

- 1232 The Joeli Code promulgated for the discipline of the samurai.
 1274 Yuan (Mongol) Invasion.
 1281 Second Yuan invasion and defeat by the armies of Tokimune Hojo, the chief-executive.
 1324 An attempt for the restoration of the Imperial rule.
 1331 Battles between the Imperial and the Hojo armies.
 1333 The Hojos destroyed. Temporary restoration of the Imperial direct rule by the Emperor Godaigo.
 1335 Rebellion of Takauji Ashikaga.
 1336 Death of Masashige Kusunoki, famous loyalist, in the battle of the Minatogawa (Kobe). The Imperial House divided into two, the South and the North (Yoshino and Kyoto) for 57 years.

Muromachi Period
(1338-1602 A.D.)

- 1338 Takauji Ashikaga proclaims himself Shogun and establishes the Muromachi Shogunate in Kyoto.
 1342 Tenryuji-bune (trade boats) sent to China.
 1467-1475 The Onin war. Kyoto reduced to ashes. The Court and the Shogunate both lost power before rising feudal lords.
 1476-1573 Feudal lords struggle for supremacy.
 1483 Importation of copper money from the Ming Dynasty.
 1514 Duel between individuals prohibited by the Muromachi Shogunate.

THE WORLD

- 1275 Model Parliament of Edward I. A regularly elected Parliament which for the first time included representatives of all classes of the English people.
 1289 Osman I becomes ruler of the Ottoman Empire.
 1336 Spread of Renaissance movements.
 1348-1349 Black Death in Europe. Hastened the decline of serfdom and the emancipation of the peasantry.
 1378-1417 The Great Schism. Weakened the spiritual supremacy of the popes over western Christendom.
 1396 Greek first taught at Florence, Italy. The revival of Greek studies in western Europe formed an important aspect of the Renaissance movement.
 1453 Constantinople captured by the Ottoman Turks. End of the Byzantine Empire.
 1456 First book printed at Gutenberg's press in Mainz, Germany.
 1487 Cape of Good Hope rounded by Diaz.
 1492 Discovery of America by Columbus.
 1498 India reached by Vasco da Gama. The Portuguese thus opened up an ocean passage from Europe round Africa to the Far East.
 1517 Luther's Ninety-five Theses posted. Beginning of the Protestant Reformation in Germany.

JAPAN

- 1530 First visit of the Portuguese.
- 1543 Introduction of fire-arms.
1546 Chinese trade boats come to Bungo in Kyushu.
- 1548 Dutch trade boats come to Buzen in Kyushu.
1549 Christianity introduced by Francis Xavier.
1568 Nobunaga Oda comes up to Kyoto by Imperial order.
1571 Nobunaga destroys Enryakuji temple to suppress the power of Buddhist monks.
1573 Downfall of the Muromachi Shogunate.
- 1576 Building of the Azuchi castle by Nobunaga.
1582 Nobunaga assassinated.
1582 Hideyoshi Toyotomi's supremacy.
1585 Prohibition of Christianity by Hideyoshi.
1588 Hideyoshi promoted to Kampaku.
- 1588 Casting of Koban, gold coin.
1590 Unification of the Empire by Hideyoshi.
1592 and 1598 Japanese invasion into Korea.
1598 Death of Hideyoshi.

Yedo Period

(1602-1867 A.D.)

- 1600 Battle of Sekigahara assures the supremacy of Iyeyasu Tokugawa (1542-1616).
1603 Iyeyasu appointed Shogun. Founding of the Tokugawa Shogunate in Yedo (Tokyo).
1609 Beginning of the trade with Hollanders. The Loochoo Islands subjugated by Lord Shimazu.
1610 Official letter to Nova-Hispania and Spain.
1612 Absolute prohibition of Christianity.

THE WORLD

- 1519-1522 Magellan's circumnavigation of the globe.
1543 Publication of Copernicus' treatise "On the Revolutions of Celestial Orbits."
1545 Silver Mines of Potosi in Bolivia discovered. The enormous output of silver enlarged the supply of money in western Europe, thus stimulating industrial and commercial enterprises.
- 1565 The Philippines taken by the Spanish.
- 1579 The Union of Utrecht. Two years later the republic of the United Netherlands, or Holland took its place among European nations.
- 1588 Defeat of the Spanish Armada. Gave to England control of the sea and made possible English colonization of North America.
- 1598 Edict of Nantes issued by Henry IV of France. A noteworthy step in the direction of religious toleration.
- 1607 Settlement of Jamestown. The first permanent English colony in America.
- 1611 Authorized English Version of the Bible published.

JAPAN

- 1613 Hasekura sent to Rome by Lord Masamune Date.
1615 The Toyotomis destroyed by the Tokugawas at the Battle of Osaka. Promulgation of the Kuge Hatto (Court Nobles Law) and the Buke Hatto (Samurai Law).
1616 Death of Iyeyasu.
1619 Nagamasa Yamada enters Siam.
1630 Introduction of Western literature prohibited.
1636 Japanese forbidden to go abroad.
1637-1638 The Shimabara Rebellion.
1639 Japan closed. Foreign nationals prohibited to enter Japan, except the Hollanders and the Chinese.
1657 The compilation of the Dai Nippon Shi (Great Nippon History) begun by Lord Mitsukuni Tokugawa.
- 1688-1708 The Genroku Era of ornate living.
- 1702 Revenge of the "47 Akao Ronin."
- 1720 The Prohibition Law against Western books amended.
1764 Norinaga Motoori commences his commentary on the Kojiki (Antiquities).
1765 Establishment of a Governmental medical school.
1769 Private societies or mobs among the peasants forbidden.
- 1772-1784 Misrule of the Roju, Okitsugu Tanuma.
Succession of natural calamities.

THE WORLD

- 1616 The name "Manchuria" originated by a kingdom in that area.
- 1617 Peace Treaty between Russia and Sweden.
1618 Beginning of the Thirty Years' War.
- 1648 Peace of Westphalia. Ended the religious wars.
- 1687 Newton's "Principia" published. One of the most important contributions ever made to physical science.
1688-1689 The "Glorious Revolution." Completed the work of the Puritan Revolution by overthrowing absolutism and divine right in England.
1704 Battle of Blenheim. Defeated the attempt of Louis XIV to make France supreme in western Europe.
- 1762 Rousseau's "Social Contract" published. Its democratic teachings were put into effect by the French revolutionists.
1763 Peace of Paris. Ended the Seven Years' War and gave to England a colonial empire in India and North America at the expense of France.
1768-1779 Voyages of Captain James Cook. Greatly increased geographical knowledge of the Pacific Ocean and its archipelagoes.
1769-1785 Arkwright's "water frame," 1770 Hargreaves' "spinning jenny," 1770 Crompton's "mule," and 1785 Cartwright's power loom.
1776 Declaration of Independence of the Americans.
1781-1782 Watt's steam engine patented. The steam engine invented in 1769 had served only for pumping; henceforth applied to manufacturing and transportation.

JAPAN

- 1787 Administrative reform by the Roju, Sadanobu Matsudaira (Rakuō).
- 1793 Visit of Laxsman to Hokkaido.
- 1804 Coming of Lesanov to Nagasaki.
- 1808 Coming of an English boat to Nagasaki.
- 1815 A map of the coast lines of Japan completed.
- 1825 Shogunate Order to shut out all foreign ships by force.
- 1830 Great famine of the Tempo era.
- 1837 Rebellion of Heihachiro Oshio to relieve the starving masses. Coming of the American ship "Morrison."
- 1841 Roju Tadakuni Mizuno's attempt at reformation.
- 1842 The 1825 Order removed. A step toward opening the country. Controversies between the anti-foreign party and the liberalists.
- 1845 Visit of American ships to Uraga.
- 1846 First request of America for the "open door."
- 1848 Casting of a European gun by Shozan Sakuma.
- 1849 Knocking at Japan's doors of British and American ships.

THE WORLD

- 1787 Constitution of the United States of America framed.
- 1789 Meeting of the Estates-General in France. The first step toward the French Revolution.
- 1796 Napoleon's advance into Italy.
- 1798 Conquest of Egypt by Napoleon Bonaparte.
- 1804 Napoleon crowned Emperor of the French. The Code Napoleon promulgated. The most lasting memorial of the Napoleonic era.
- 1805 Battle of Trafalgar.
- 1806 Downfall of the Holy Roman Empire.
- 1807 Fulton's steamboat, the "Clermont," in successful operation.
- 1814-1815 Congress of Vienna. Remade the map of Europe after the revolutionary and Napoleonic era.
- 1815 Battle of Waterloo. Brought about the final overthrow of Napoleon Bonaparte.
- 1823 Monroe Doctrine enunciated.
- 1825 Stockton and Darlington Railway opened. The first line run by steam power.
- 1830-1831 The "July Revolution" in Europe. Overthrew absolutism and divine right in France and created modern Belgium.
- 1832 Reform Act in Great Britain. The first step in democratizing the British government.
- 1837 Morse's first telegraph instrument exhibited.
- 1838 The Atlantic Ocean crossed by the "Great Western." The first steamship to make the trip without using sails.
- 1837-1901 Reign of Queen Victoria.
- 1838 Photography invented.
- 1845 Texas annexed by the United States.
- 1846 A new planet Neptune discovered.
- 1848-1849 The "February Revolution" in Europe. Made France again a republic and led to revolutionary upheavals in Italy, Germany and the Austrian Empire.

JAPAN

- 1853 Arrival of the American fleet under Commodore Perry. Visit of the Russian delegate Poutiatine to Nagasaki.
- 1854 Conclusion of Amity Treaties with the United States, Great Britain and Russia. Institution of the Sun Flag to symbolize Japan. (Sanctioned by the Government in 1870.)
- 1855 Conclusion of Amity Treaty with Holland.
- 1856 Arrival of the American envoy Townsend Harris.
- 1858 Conclusion of Commercial Treaties with the United States, Great Britain, France, Russia and Holland.
- 1859 The Ansei Coup d'Etat by the Tairo, II Kamonnokami (Nao-suké). Ports of Yokohama, Hakodate and Nagasaki opened.
- 1860 Japanese envoy Masaoki Niimi sent to the United States. Tairo II assassinated.
- 1861 The British Legation at Yedo attacked by the ronin.
- 1862 Rise of the Anti-Shogunate movement. The Namamugi Incident.
- 1863 The Anti-Foreign Law. Attack on foreign ships at Shimonoseki and Kagoshima.
- 1864 Battle at the Hamaguri gate of the Kyoto Imperial Palace. Shimonoseki bombarded by a combined fleet of the United States, Great Britain, France and the Netherlands.
- 1865 Imperial Sanction given to the treaties of 1858.
- 1865-1867 Hostilities between the Shogunate and Anti-Shogunate forces.
- 1866 Demise of the Emperor Komei.
- 1867 Accession of the Meiji Tenno (1852-1912), the 122nd Emperor. Imperial armies moved against the Yedo Shogunate. Proclamation of the Restoration of Imperial direct rule. On October 14, the Shogun Yoshi-

THE WORLD

- 1851 Crystal Palace Exhibition at London. The first of the great international expositions. The first submarine cable laid from Dover to Calais.
- 1854 Crimean War.
- 1855 Occupation of Caucasia by the Russians.
- 1856 Congress of Paris. Ended the Crimean War.
- 1857 Canton occupied by the English and French forces.
- 1858 The Tientsin Treaty.
- 1859 Darwin's "Origin of Species" published. Presentation of the evolutionary theory.
- 1860 The Peking Treaty. The English and French troops entered Peking. Beginning of the Civil War in America.
- 1862 Battle of Belgrade. Bismarck became Chancellor.
- 1863 Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation.
- 1864 International Red Cross Society founded. End of the Taipin Rebellion. The Danish War.
- 1865 End of the American Civil War.
- 1866 Atlantic Cable laid. War between Prussia and Austria.
- 1867 North German Confederation. Franchise reform in Great Britain. In 1866 Gladstone, leader of the House of Commons, introduced a measure for franchise reform, and the bill passed Parliament by the cooperation of Disraeli.

JAPAN

nobu Tokugawa petitioned for the return of all authority of the Government to the Throne, and, on the 24th, the petition was accepted.

Meiji Era

(1868-1912 A.D.)

- 1868 Formal enthronement of the Emperor Meiji. The first year of Meiji, beginning with September. The Five Articles of Imperial Oath declared. Establishment of the Dajokan (Imperial Government).
- 1869 Removal of the Capital to Tokyo. Surrender of fiefs by feudal lords. Telegraphic communications opened.
- 1870 Envoys sent to foreign countries. Social castes abolished.
- 1871 The country divided into 81 gubernatorial districts. The people allowed to cut off their cues and the samurai forbidden to wear swords.
- 1872 Institution of the national school system. Opening of the first railway line between Tokyo and Yokohama.
- 1873 Adoption of the solar calendar. Institution of the conscription system for national defense. Controversy over Korean affairs.
- 1874 Expedition to Formosa. Request for opening the national assembly.
- 1875 Karafuto exchanged for the Kuriles. The first gubernatorial conference convened.
- 1877 The South-Western Civil War, or rebellion of Takamori Saigo.
- 1879-1890 Rapid influx of things and ideas from Europe; Rokumei-kan period.
- 1879 First opening of local assemblies.
- 1880 Promulgation of a new Penal Code.
- 1881 Imperial Edict for the opening of the national assembly.

THE WORLD

- 1867-1918 The Ausgleich. The constitution splitted the dominion of the Hapsburgs into two states, the Austrian Empire and the kingdom of Hungary.
- 1867 Karl Marx's "Das Kapital" published. The first volume appeared in this year, but the second and third volumes were not published until after Marx's death.
- 1869 Suez Canal opened.
- 1870 Rome occupied by Italian troops. Unification of Italy completed.
- 1871 German Empire proclaimed at Versailles.
- 1874 The International Postal Union.
- 1875 Telephone invented by Alexander Graham Bell. The Trade Union Act issued. Gave the British working classes the full right of combination. Formation of the third Republic of France.
- 1876 Conclusion of Anglo-Chinese Treaty. Revolution of Mexico.
- 1877 Queen Victoria assumes the title, Empress of India.

JAPAN

- 1882 Hirobumi Ito sent to Europe for the study of Western constitutional governments.
- 1883 Establishment of the Bank of Japan.
- 1885 Institution of the Cabinet.
- 1886 Japan becomes a member of the International Red Cross Society.
- 1889 Proclamation of the Constitution of the Great Empire of Japan, Feb. 11.
- 1890 The First Session of the Imperial Diet convened in November. The Imperial Rescript on Education issued. Institution of the system of law courts.
- 1891 Russian Crown Prince injured at Otsu.
- 1892 First general election.
- 1894 New Anglo-Japanese Treaty.
- 1894-1895 Sino-Japanese War.
- 1895 Shimonoseki Peace Treaty, April. Three Powers' Intervention and return of the Liaotung Peninsula to China. Taiwan ceded to Japan.
- 1898 Promulgation of the Civil Law.
- 1899 Promulgation of the Commercial Law.
- 1902 Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
- 1904-1905 Russo-Japanese War.
- 1905 Portsmouth Peace Treaty, September. Chosen becomes Japan's protectorate, November.
- 1908 "Gentlemen's" Agreement between the United States and Japan.
- 1910 Annexation of Chosen.
- 1911 Revision of Treaties with the United States, Great Britain and other Western countries on equal footing.
- 1912 Demise of the Emperor Meiji, July 30.
- Taisho Era**
(1912-1926 A.D.)
- 1912 Accession of the Emperor Taisho, July 30.
- 1914-1918 The World War.
- 1914 Capture of Tsingtao, November.

THE WORLD

- 1882 Tripartite Alliance among Germany, Austria and Italy.
- 1883 Indo-China made a protectorate of France.
- 1886 Burma appropriated by Great Britain.
- 1891 Alliance between France and Russia.
- 1894 Rebellion of the Philippines against the Spanish government.
- 1897 Invention of wireless telegraphy by Guglielmo Marconi.
- 1898 Spanish-American war. The Philippines made a territory of the United States.
- 1900 Boxer Uprising in China.
- 1903 Mukden in Manchuria occupied by the Russians. Airplane invented by S. P. Langley.
- 1905 Boycott of American goods by the Chinese.
- 1906 Prohibition of opium in China.
- 1910 Organization of the Union of South Africa.
- 1912 Downfall of the Manchu Dynasty and birth of the Republic of China.
- 1914-1918 The World War.
- 1914 Panama Canal completed.

JAPAN

- 1915 New Treaty with China.
 1918 Rice Riots.
 1919 The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan.
 Japan joins the League of Nations.
 1921 The Crown Prince becomes Regent.
 1921-1922 The Washington Conferences. Ended the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
 1923 Great Earthquake of Kanto district, September 1.
 1924 Fishery Treaty with the U.S.S.R.
 1925 Promulgation of the new Election Law (Universal Suffrage).
 1926 Demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25.

Showa Era
 (1926—A.D.)

- 1926 Accession of the present Emperor, December 25.
 1927 A panic. Several banks closed.
 1928 First general election under the Universal Suffrage Law.
 1930 The London Naval Disarmament Conference.
 1931 The Manchurian Incident, September 18.
 1932. The Shanghai Affair. Independence of Manchoukuo, March 1. The "May 15 Affair." Prime Minister Tsuyoshi Inukai assassinated.
 1933 Japan quits the League of Nations, March.
 The World Economic Conference at London.
 1934 Manchoukuo becomes an Empire with Kangte (Pu yi) as first Emperor, March 1.
 Japanese Government notifies the U.S. Government its intention to terminate the Washington Naval Treaty, December 29.

THE WORLD

- 1917 The Russian Revolution and establishment of Bolshevism in Russia.
 1919 Peace Conference at Versailles.
 1920 First meeting of the League of Nations.
 1922 Italian Cabinet formed by Benito Mussolini.
 1923 Appearance of Adolf Hitler.
 1924 Enforcement of the Federal Immigration Law. Practically prohibited the immigration of the Japanese into the United States.
 1925 The Nine-Power Treaty.
 The Locarno Treaty.
 1928 Rise of anti-Japanese movement in China.
 1929 Kellogg Anti-war Pact.
 Around the world flight of the German airship "Zeppelin."
 1930 Anti-British movement. Gandhi made prisoner.
 1932 The Litton Report published.
 1933 Withdrawal of Germany from the League of Nations.
 1934 North Manchuria Railway transferred to Manchoukuo by the U.S.S.R.
 Adolf Hitler made Führer and Chancellor of Germany.
 Italo-Abyssinian hostilities.
 1935 London naval conference of five Powers.

JAPAN

- 1936 Japan quits the London Naval Understanding of 1930.
 The "February 26 Affair." Three political dignitaries assassinated.
 1937 The China Affair, July 7. Occupation of Shanghai by the Japanese forces, November 10.
 Fall of Nanking, December 13.
 The Kuomintang Government removed to Hankow.
 1938 Conclusion of the new Japanese-Dutch commercial agreement, Feb. 2.

Hsuechow falls to the hands of the Japanese forces, May 19.
 Changkufeng Affair, July 12. Beginning of fierce border disputes between Russia and Manchoukuo.
 Truce at Changkufeng, Aug. 11.

Japan announces the withdrawal of its cooperation with all committees of the League of Nations, Oct. 3.
 Fall of Canton, Oct. 21.
 Hankow, Wuchang and Hanyang completely reduced by Japanese forces, Oct. 27.
 Japanese Government issues a statement on Japan's future policy for the settlement of the China Affair, Nov. 3.
 Economic conference of the representatives of Japan, Manchoukuo and China, Nov. 22.

Cultural agreement between Japan and Germany, Nov. 25.

The China Affairs Board created for realizing a new order in East Asia, Dec. 16.

THE WORLD

- 1936 Anti-Comintern Agreement concluded between Germany and Japan.
 Spanish Civil War spreads over the entire country.
 1937 The Nine-Power Conference at Brussels.
 Italy joins the Anti-Comintern Agreement, Nov. 6.
 The Kuomintang Government removed to Chungking, Nov. 16.
 Withdrawal of Italy from the League of Nations, Dec. 11.
 The Provisional Government of the Republic of China established in Peking, Dec. 14.
 1938 The National Government of Spain founded by General Franco, Jan. 31.
 The Anschluss of Austria proclaimed by Reichsführer Hitler, March 13.
 The Renovation Government of the Republic of China founded at Nanking, March 28.

Visit of the British Prime Minister Chamberlain to Germany to meet Reichsführer Hitler on the Czech situation, Sept. 15.
 Four-Power Conference at Munich, Sept. 30. Settled the Czech problem.

Anglo-Italian protocol becomes effective. Great Britain formally recognizes the Italian annexation of Abyssinia, Nov. 16.

Cultural agreement between Germany and Italy, Nov. 23.
 Anglo-French conversation in Paris, Nov. 24.
 Border line between Czech and Poland fixed, Dec. 1.
 Italy enters the London Treaty, Dec. 2.
 Franco-German non-aggression pact, Dec. 6.
 Wang Ching-wei, Vice-President of the Kuomintang and Chairman of the National Administrative Advisory Council leaves Chungking, Dec. 18.

JAPAN

Konoe Statement, Dec. 22. Prime Minister Konoe publishes a statement on the fundamental Japanese policies to readjust relations between China and Japan.

1939 Change of the Japanese Cabinet from Konoe to Hirayama, Jan. 5.

Hainan Island surprised by the forcible landing of Japanese forces, Feb. 10.

Cultural Agreement between Italy and Japan, March 23.

Spratley Islands put under jurisdiction of Taiwan Government-General, March 30.

Revised Young Men's School Ordinance enforced, April 19.

Japanese landing party goes ashore at Kulangsu for peace preservation, May 12.

Blockade of the Foreign Concessions in Tientsin by the Japanese Army, June 14.

Swatow occupied by Japanese forces, June 21.

Air Battle between Japanese and Soviet war-planes above Lake Baikal, June 27.

Anglo-Japanese Parley in Tokyo, July 15.

Abrogation of the Japanese-American Commercial Treaty notified by the United States, July 26.

THE WORLD

Franco-Italian agreement abrogated, Dec. 18.

Wang Ching-wei issues a peace statement at Hanoi, Dec. 30.

1939 Polish-German conversations at Berchtesgaden, Jan. 5.

German Foreign Minister Ribbentrop visits Poland, Jan. 25.

Barcelona falls into the hands of the Franco forces, Jan. 26.

Commercial Treaty between Germany and Italy, Feb. 13.

Franco Government of Spain recognized by Great Britain and France, Feb. 27.

S. Bose, President of the People's Council of India, announces anti-British movement, March 10.

Czech made a protectorate of Germany, March 15.

Slovakia made a protectorate of Germany, March 16.

Prime Minister Chamberlain announces British support of Poland, March 31.

Treaty of mutual assistance between Great Britain and Poland, April 5.

Albania annexed by Italy, April 13.

British-German Naval Agreement abrogated, April 28.

Polish Foreign Minister Beck makes a speech elucidating the rejection of German demands, May 5.

Alliance of Germany and Italy, May 22.

King George VI visits the United States, June 9.

British-Soviet negotiations in Moscow, June 15.

Collision between German and Polish frontier guards reported, June 15.

Siam assumes a new national name "Thailand," July 5.

German-Soviet negotiations, July 21.

Reversion of Danzig to Germany declared, July 21.

JAPAN

Trade agreement between Japan and Germany, July 29.

Anglo-Japanese Parley in Tokyo adjourned sine die, Aug. 14.

Blockade of the French Concession at Hankow lifted, Aug. 25.

Abe Cabinet organized, Aug. 30.

Japan's policy of non-involvement in European hostilities proclaimed, Sept. 4.

Truce between the Japanese and Russian forces, Sept. 15. Settled fierce battles at Nomonhan in Outer Mongolia.

Settlement of the Kulangsu (Amoy) issue, Oct. 17.

Treaty of Amity between Japan and Iran, Oct. 18.

Completion of the around the world flight of the airplane "Nippon", Oct. 20.

The yen linked to American dollar instead of Sterling, Oct. 25.

Japanese forces make surprise landing at Pakhoi in Kwangtung Province, Nov. 15.

The Japanese S.S. "Terukuni Maru" sunk off the English coast by a mine, Nov. 21.

THE WORLD

Military negotiations commenced in Moscow among Great Britain, France and the Soviet Russia, Aug. 13.

Polish-German frontier closed, Aug. 16.

Commercial Treaty between Germany and the U.S.S.R., Aug. 19.

Non-aggression Pact between Germany and the U.S.S.R., Aug. 23.

Treaty of mutual assistance between Great Britain and Poland, Aug. 25.

German demands on Poland, Aug. 28.

Break of the Anglo-German negotiations on Polish issue, Aug. 31. Beginning of Polish-German war, Sept. 1.

The Second European War. Great Britain and France declare war against Germany, Sept. 3.

Partition of Poland between Germany and the U.S.S.R., Sept. 18.

Fall of Warsaw, Sept. 27.

Reichsführer Hitler proposes convocation of peace conference for Europe, Oct. 6.

The Congress Party of India adopts resolution demanding Indian Independence, Oct. 8.

British Prime Minister Chamberlain rejects Hitler's proposal for peace, Oct. 12.

Annexation of Polish Corridor and Upper Silesia by Germany declared, Oct. 19.

The amended Neutrality Act of the U.S.A. put into force, Nov. 4. Aggravation of diplomatic relations between the Soviet Russia and Finland, Nov. 7-12.

British and French Governments reject the peace proposal of the Belgian King and the Queen of the Netherlands of November 7, Nov. 12.

The British Government enunciates its intention to seize German goods without discrimination, Nov. 22.

JAPAN

Nanning in Kwangsi Province occupied by the Japanese forces, No. 24.

Provisional Fisheries Agreement between Japan and the U.S.S.R., Dec. 31.

- 1940 The Abé Cabinet resigns, Jan. 14. The new cabinet under Admiral Mitsumasa Yonai installed, Jan. 16. The M.S. Asama Maru case, Jan. 21. The expiration of the Japanese-American Treaty of Commerce and Navigation of 1911, Jan. 26.

The 75th Session of the Imperial Diet reopened, to hear the addresses of the new Cabinet members, Feb. 1.

H.I.M. the Emperor grants a special rescript on the 2600th Empire Anniversary Day, Feb. 11.

Argentine Economic Mission arrives at Yokohama, Feb. 16.

The Commercial Treaty between Japan and Rumania signed in Bukarest, March 5.

The 75th Session of the Imperial Diet closed, March 27.

Premier Yonai reiterates the policy of extending full support to the new Central Government of China, March 13.

The new Tax Law enforced, April 1.

The Mexican Economic Mission arrives at Yokohama, April 11.

Former Premier Abé, special envoy to the Central Government of China, leaves Tokyo for Nanking, April 15.

The Paraguay Economic Mission arrives at Yokohama, April 19.

THE WORLD

Collision of Soviet and Finnish troops, Nov. 26.

The Soviet Russia declares war against Finland, Nov. 29. War begun on the following day.

The League of Nations expels the U.S.S.R., Dec. 14.

- 1940 President Roosevelt enunciates the non-involvement policy in his message to Congress, Jan. 3.

Great Britain reorganizes the Cabinet, changing personnels of the Secretary of State for War and the Minister of Information, Jan. 5.

Victorious Finnish armies reported to have made advances into Russian territory, Jan. 9.

Chancellor Hitler delivers a notable speech on the war at Nazi meeting, Jan. 30.

Balkan entente states meet in Belgrade, Feb. 2-4.

Conclusion of the new commercial treaty between Germany and Russia made public, Feb. 12.

The three North European States announce neutrality, Feb. 25.

The Soviet Government announces the conclusion of the Peace Treaty with Finland, March 13.

Chancellor Hitler and Premier Mussolini meet at the Brenner Pass, March 18.

The Central Government of the Republic of China re-established at Nanking under the leadership of Wang Ching-wei, March 30.

The British Government reconstructed as the War Cabinet by Neville Chamberlain, April 3.

German forces make sudden landing at five ports in Norway and occupy Oslo, and, advancing into Denmark, occupy Copenhagen, April 9.

Conclusion of the Commercial Treaty between Rumania and Germany, April 20.

JAPAN

Carl Edward, Duke of Saxecoburg and Gotha, president of the German Red Cross Society, arrives at Yokohama as special envoy to convey on behalf of the German Government congratulations to Japan on the occasion of the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire, April 25.

The Canadian Economic Mission arrives at Yokohama, May 1.

Foreign Minister Arita notifies the diplomatic representatives of Germany, the Netherlands, Great Britain and France, of Japan's policy of non-involvement in the war and to resist any kind of change in the status of the Dutch East Indies, May 11.

Japanese residents in Lima, Peru, attacked by the citizens, May 13-14.

Rationing of sugar and matches decided by the Tokyo Municipality, initiating the rationing system for the rice and other daily necessities in the country, May 18.

In return for Japan's courtesy in sending General Abé as special envoy, Chen Kung-po, President of the Legislative Yuan of the Nanking Government arrives in Tokyo, May 21.

Japanese Economic Mission to Italy arrives in Rome, May 21.

On the eve of the 35th anniversary of Navy Day (the day of the Battle of the Japan Sea), Navy Minister Yoshida declares that the era of supremacy on the Pacific is being unfolded, May 26.

The Spanish Economic Mission arrives in Tokyo, June 3.

Prince Konoé, President of the Privy Council, reveals his positive wishes for the formation of a new political structure, June 4.

The Treaty of Amity and Mutual Respect of Territories between Japan and Thailand signed at Tokyo, June 12.

THE WORLD

German forces defeat British forces in the battles in central Norway, April 25.

German forces on land, sea and in the air, effect blitzkrieg simultaneously on Luxembourg, Belgium and the Netherlands, crossing over the frontiers early in the morning of May 10.

British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain resigns on May 10, and Winston Churchill completes the formation of the new War Cabinet on May 12.

German forces enter The Hague, and the Dutch armies surrender, May 15.

German forces enter Brussels, while other German armies enter France, breaking through the Maginot Line at Sedan, May 17.

German vanguards reach the French coast of Dover, and cut the Allied forces into two, May 21.

The American Senate approves the 1,474,000,000 dollar Naval Budget, May 23.

Calais in France and Ghent in Belgium fall into the hands of German armies who began to squeeze the Allied forces to complete defeat, May 24.

The Belgian King Leopold III orders his armies to suspend hostilities against the Germans, May 28.

German forces occupy Dunkirk Fort, and command the entire country of Belgium and the French coast to the north of the mouth of the Somme, June 3.

Italy's entry into the European War, June 10.

Norwegian King orders his troops to suspend hostilities against the German forces, June 10.

JAPAN

The barricades around the foreign concession at Tientsin removed after a period of 372 days, June 20.

A fire caused by a lightning destroys a number of Government buildings, including the Finance Ministry, June 21.

Revision of the Commercial Agreement among Japan, Manchoukou and Italy, June 21.

Prince Konoé resigns as President of the Privy Council, stating that he wishes to quit the post in order to lend support to the movement for the organization of a new national structure, June 24.

Emperor Kangte of Manchoukuo arrives in Tokyo to congratulate the Japanese Imperial Family on the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire, June 26.

Manufacture and sale of luxury articles prohibited with a period of grace, July 7.

The Yonai Cabinet resigns, July 16.

The Anglo-Japanese understanding, halting British supplies to the Chiang regime over the Burma road, for a period of 3 months beginning July 18, reached, July 17.

Prince Konoé again installed as Premier, July 22.

M. James Cox, Tokyo representative of Reuter's news agency, kills himself, after being held in Tokyo, on suspicion of espionage, since the 27th, July 29.

The Seiyukai Party dissolved after 40 years of its history, before the national movement for the formation of a new political structure, July 30.

The Minseto Party dissolved, marking an end to the party system in Japan, Aug. 15.

Members of the new national structure preparatory committee announced, Aug. 22.

THE WORLD

German forces enter Paris, and French armies begin to withdraw from the whole length of the Maginot Line, June 14.

French army's surrender to Germany, June 17.

President Roosevelt installs Frank Knox as Secretary of the Navy and Henry Stimson as Secretary of War, June 20.

Truce Agreement between Germany and France at Compiègne, June 22.

Truce Agreement between Italy and France, ending German and Italian military operations against France, June 24.

The Republican Party of America nominates Wendell Willkie as candidate for the next President, June 27.

Marshal Pétain assumes the position of the Head of France in accordance with the new constitution adopted after the peace between Germany and France, July 12.

The Democratic Party of America nominates for the third time Franklin D. Roosevelt as candidate for the next President, July 18.

Chancellor Hitler suggests peace between Great Britain and Germany and Italy as his final proposal, in his speech at the Reichstag, July 19.

British Foreign Secretary Halifax rejects Hitler's proposal for peace, in his radio speech, July 22.

The Second Pan-American Council ends with satisfactory results, culminating in the "Havana Declaration" on the joint defense of American countries, July 30.

British authorities arrest two agents of Japanese firms in London, on suspicion of espionage, Aug. 2.

German air forces successively bomb important places in England, including London, Aug. 10-27.

JAPAN

Ichizo Kobayashi, Commerce and Industry Minister, special envoy to the Dutch East Indies, leaves Tokyo for the D.E.I., Aug. 30.

Christian churches in Japan agree to fuse together, ending the 70-year history of dependency on foreign missions and denominationalism, Sept. 2.

H.L.H. Prince Nagahisa Kitashirakawa, staff officer stationed at a point in Mongolia fatally injured in a warplane accident, Sept. 4.

The new national structure preparatory committee ends deliberations with basic outlines completed and deciding upon the name of the central association of the movement as "Taisei Yokusan Kai" (Imperial Rule Assistance Association), Sept. 17.

Imperial Conference was held in the presence of H.M. the Emperor at the Imperial Palace when the Ministers of State deliberated on important State affairs, Sept. 19. Thailand goodwill mission arrives in Tokyo, Sept. 20.

Japanese troops enter North French Indo-China in peace in accordance with the Japanese-French understanding, Sept. 23.

The Triple Alliance among Japan, German and Italy signed at the Führer's official residence in Berlin at 1:15 p.m. (8:15, Japan time); H.M. the Emperor grants a special edict to his subjects on the occasion, Sept. 27.

H.M. the Emperor attends a grand Naval review off Yokohama in celebration of the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire, Oct. 11.

The inaugural meeting of Taisei Yokusan Kai held at the Premier's official residence, Oct. 12.

THE WORLD

Germany declares indiscriminate attack on ships bound for England, Aug. 17.

The National Congress in India publishes an anti-British decision, Aug. 22.

Chancellor Hitler declares that Germany will attack British cities with ten times as large a number of bombers as the British ones which caused damages on defenseless German cities, Sept. 4.

Beginning of indiscriminate bombing of London by German air forces, Sept. 7.

The Japanese Embassy in London hit by a bomb in the German air assault on the metropolis early in the morning of Sept. 19.

Premier Mussolini and the German Foreign Minister Ribbentrop hold conference in Rome, Sept. 19, 20.

The Japan-Brazil cultural pact signed at Rio de Janeiro, Sept. 23.

President Roosevelt signs a proclamation prohibiting the export of scrap iron, steel and other iron materials to other than the western hemisphere and England, after Oct. 16, Sept. 26.

Chancellor Hitler and Premier Mussolini meet for the second time at the Brenner Pass, Oct. 4.

The U.S. State Department orders all Americans not engaged in pressing business in Japan, China, Manchoukuo, French Indo-China and Hongkong to evacuate for home, Oct. 8.

President Roosevelt announces the American determination to fight the triple alliance, Oct. 12.

JAPAN

The Burma route effectively bombed by Japanese Naval air forces, Oct. 18, 20.

H.M. the Emperor attends a grand military review at the Yoyogi parade ground, Tokyo, in celebration of the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire, Oct. 21.

Ichizo Kobayashi, Commerce and Industry Minister, returns from the Dutch East Indies, to make an interim report, Nov. 1.

The formal celebration and banquet in commemoration of the 2600th anniversary of the founding of the Empire held in the pavillion specially built for the purpose on the Imperial Palace grounds, Tokyo, in the presence of Their Majesties the Emperor and the Empress, Nov. 10, 11.

Prince Kimmochi Saionji passes away at Okitsu, Shizuoka prefecture, ending a long life of 92 years and marking the end of the consuetudinary system of Genro, Nov. 24.

Conclusion of the Treaty concerning the Basic Relations between Japan and China, Nov. 30.

Kenkichi Yoshizawa, special envoy to the Dutch East Indies leaves Tokyo for Batavia, to resume the economic negotiations begun by Ichizo Kobayashi, Dec. 11.

The curtain on the 3-day preliminary session of the Central Co-operative Council of the Taisei Yokusan Kai rises, Nobumasa Suetsugu taking the chair, Dec. 16.

The 76th Session of the Imperial Diet convened, Dec. 24.

1941

Vichy and Bangkok formally accept Japan's offer of mediation in the border dispute between French Indo-China and Thailand, Jan. 23.

THE WORLD

Gandhi comes again to the forefront of the Indian independence movement, Oct. 15.

Britain re-opens the Burma route, Oct. 18.

Beginning of the Greco-Italian war, Oct. 28.

President Roosevelt wins the presidential campaign over Wendell Willkie, to continuously assume the position for a third term, which is unprecedented in the history of the United States, Nov. 6.

Entrance of Hungary into the Triple Alliance, Nov. 20.

Rumania joins the Triple Alliance, Nov. 23.

Slovakia joins the Triple Alliance, Nov. 24.

Australia sends her first Minister, Sir John Greig Latham, to Tokyo, Dec. 20.

President Roosevelt addresses American citizens and the world on the necessity of the greatest and speediest completion of national defense and of aiding Great Britain by all means, short of war, taking the Triple Alliance into consideration, Dec. 29.

Henry Bergson, French philosopher, dies in Paris.

1941

President Roosevelt, at the opening of the 77th session of Congress, re-underlines the peril of a totalitarian victory and the need of making America an arsenal for the so-called Democracies, Jan. 6.

JAPAN

Dr. Chu Min-yi, first Ambassador of the new National Government of Nanking to Japan, arrives in Tokyo, Feb. 5.

Admiral Mineo Ōsumi dies in an airplane accident at Canton, Feb. 5.

The Thailand-French Indo-China peace conference opens at the Premier's official residence, Feb. 7.

The revised Criminal Code passed by the Imperial Diet, March 1.

The 76th Session of the Imperial Diet adjourns, completing all business four weeks earlier than usual, March 1.

Foreign Minister Yosuke Matsuoka leaves Tokyo on his trip to Germany and Italy, March 12.

Matsuoka meets Hitler in Berlin, March 27.

Justice Minister Lieut.-General Heisuke Yanagawa appointed Vice-President of the Imperial Rule Assistance Association, March 29.

The primary educational system reformed, the old name for the primary school "Sho Gakko" being changed to "Kokumin Gakko" (National School), April 1.

Foreign Minister Matsuoka and Premier Mussolini confer in Rome, April 1.

The Japanese office at Geneva formally closed, April 2.

The Afghan Economic Mission arrives in Tokyo, April 4.

Signing of the Neutrality Pact between Japan and the U.S.S.R. in Moscow, April 13.

Foreign Minister Matsuoka returns to Tokyo, April 22.

The German Economic Mission arrives in Tokyo, April 26.

THE WORLD

Inauguration of Franklin D. Roosevelt as president of the United States for the third time, Jan. 20.

The lower house of Congress passes the Lend-Lease Bill for aiding Britain, Feb. 8.

Chancellor Hitler speaks at Munhen, on Germany's determination to win the war, Feb. 24.

Bulgaria joins the Triple Alliance, March 1.

Germany reported to have handed an ultimatum to Greece, March 2.

Conclusion of the protocol between Thailand and French Indo-China concerning the settlement of the border dispute, by the mediation of Japan, March 11.

Yugoslavia joins the Triple Alliance, March 25.

Anti-German riot breaks out in Yugoslavia and its Government changes, March 27.

Chancellor Hitler issues orders to German forces to open a simultaneous attack on Yugoslavia and Greece, April 6.

German forces enter Belgrade, April 13.

German and Italian forces press British forces back to the frontier of Egypt at the Libyan front, April 13.

Yugoslavia subjugated by Germany, April 18.

Greek forces surrender to German and Italian forces, April 23.

Conclusion of the Commercial Treaty between Germany and Turkey, April 26.

German forces occupy Athens, April 27.

JAPAN

Conclusion of the two pacts between Japan and France, i.e. the Convention of Establishment and Navigation and the Agreement concerning Customs Tariff, Trade and Method of Payment, both relating to economic relations between Japan and French Indo-China, May 6.

The National Defense Security Law enforced, May 10.

Japanese forces defeat three Chinese divisions, the 7th, 12th and 34th, commanded by General Tang Huai-yuan, in the area east of Sia-hsien, Shansi province, killing the General, May 12.

H.M. the Emperor reviews 34,000 representative boys and girls of the Young Men's Schools in the Palace ground, May 22.

Captain H. Hirade, of the Naval Information Bureau, declares that the Japanese Navy has completed defense measures in Western Pacific areas to safeguard Japan from any attack from the sea, in the evening of the Navy Day, May 27.

Japan formally recognizes Croatia which declared independence on April 10, June 7.

Conclusion of the Commercial pact and the Agreement concerning Trade and Method of Payment, between Japan and the U.S.S.R., June 11.

The first Central Cooperative Council of the Taihei Yokusan Kai held for 5 days, participated in by 106 representatives of local councils and 106 representatives of various circles, June 16-20.

President Wang Ching-wei, head of the Nanking Government, arrives in Tokyo to express thanks to the Japanese nation, June 17.

The economic parley between Japan and the Dutch East Indies breaks up without achieving the desired results, and Yoshizawa, the Japanese envoy, is called back, June 17.

THE WORLD

Iraq declares war against Britain, May 1.

Chancellor Hitler enunciates German policy in dealing with Balkan states and exhorts the people to further determination to defeat Great Britain, May 4.

Josef Stalin, Secretary General of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, concurrently appointed President of Council of People's Commissars, May 6.

Rudolf Hess, the Reich Führer's Deputy, flies from Augsburg to Hamilton, Scotland, on his own accord, and is taken prisoner by British authorities, May 10.

Manchoukuo formally recognized by Bulgaria, May 14.

The Hood (42,000 tons) of the British Navy sunk by the Bismark (35,000 tons) of the German Navy, off the coast of Greenland, May 24.

The Bismark pursued for 4 days by British battleships, sunk off Brest, France, May 27.

Armistice between Great Britain and Iraq, May 31.

Complete occupation of Crete Island by German forces, June 1.

Chancellor Hitler and Premier Mussolini meet at the Brenner Pass, June 2.

British forces advance into Syria, June 8.

President Roosevelt issues order to freeze the assets of European countries held in the U.S., June 14.

Croatia joins the Triple Alliance, June 15.

The U.S. Government demands Germany to close and withdraw German consulates and other agencies from the country by July 10, June 16.

Conclusion of the Amity Treaty between Germany and Turkey, June 18.

JAPAN

The "Tonarigumi" (Neighborhood groups) and "Burakukai" (Villager's groups) held simultaneously for the first time in the history of Japan and the whole nation listens to the radio speech by Prime Minister Prince Konoé who reaffirmed the unique patriotism of the Japanese people and the necessity of making upright advance in all matters, national and international, relying on the country's own power, July 1.

The Government comes to a definite decision on the Japanese policy concerning the new development of war between Germany and Russia, at the special meeting in the presence of H.M. the Emperor in the morning of July 2.

The Dai Nippon Kō X Dōmei (Great Japan Asia Promotion Federation) organized by the union of 53 associations and societies whose aims are for the development and progress of East Asian countries, July 6.

The Kan-mon Tunnel which connects the Main Island and Kyushu with rail under the sea bottom, cut through on July 10.

The second Konoé Cabinet tenders resignation to the Throne, July 16.

Prince Konoé organizes his third cabinet by the Imperial Order, effecting change in several portfolios of the former cabinet, among which Foreign Minister Yosuké Matsuoka replaced by Admiral Teijiro Toyoda, former Minister of Commerce and Industry, July 18.

In answer to the freezing of Japanese capital and properties by American and other countries, the Japanese Government publishes counter measures to be enforced from July 28, July 26.

THE WORLD

Germany and Italy demand the U.S. to withdraw American consulates and other agencies from Germany and Italy and all territories under their control by July 15, June 19.

Collision of German and Russian troops at 3 a.m. June 22.

Germany and Italy declare war against the U.S.S.R. June 22.

The Central Government of the Chinese Republic at Nanking formally recognized by Germany, Italy, Rumania, Slovakia and Croatia, July 1.

Spain, Hungary and Bulgaria also recognize the Nanking Government of China, July 1.

Stalin makes announcement on Russian determination to effectively resist German forces, requiring the people to rally to the cause of saving the country from the imminent danger, July 3.

American naval units landed on Iceland, July 7.

German headquarters announce that the battles at Minsk and other towns along Russian western frontiers ended with German victory in which over 400,000 Russian soldiers have been taken captives, July 10.

Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. come to an understanding concerning their mutual aid in their war against Germany, July 12.

Armistice between Great Britain and France in Palestine, July 12.

German forces occupy Smolensk July 16.

The Finnish Government formally recognizes Manchoukuo, July 19.

The U.S.A. Government issues orders to "freeze" the Japanese assets held in that country, together with such Chinese assets, and British and Canadian governments take similar steps, to become effective from July 26, July 25.