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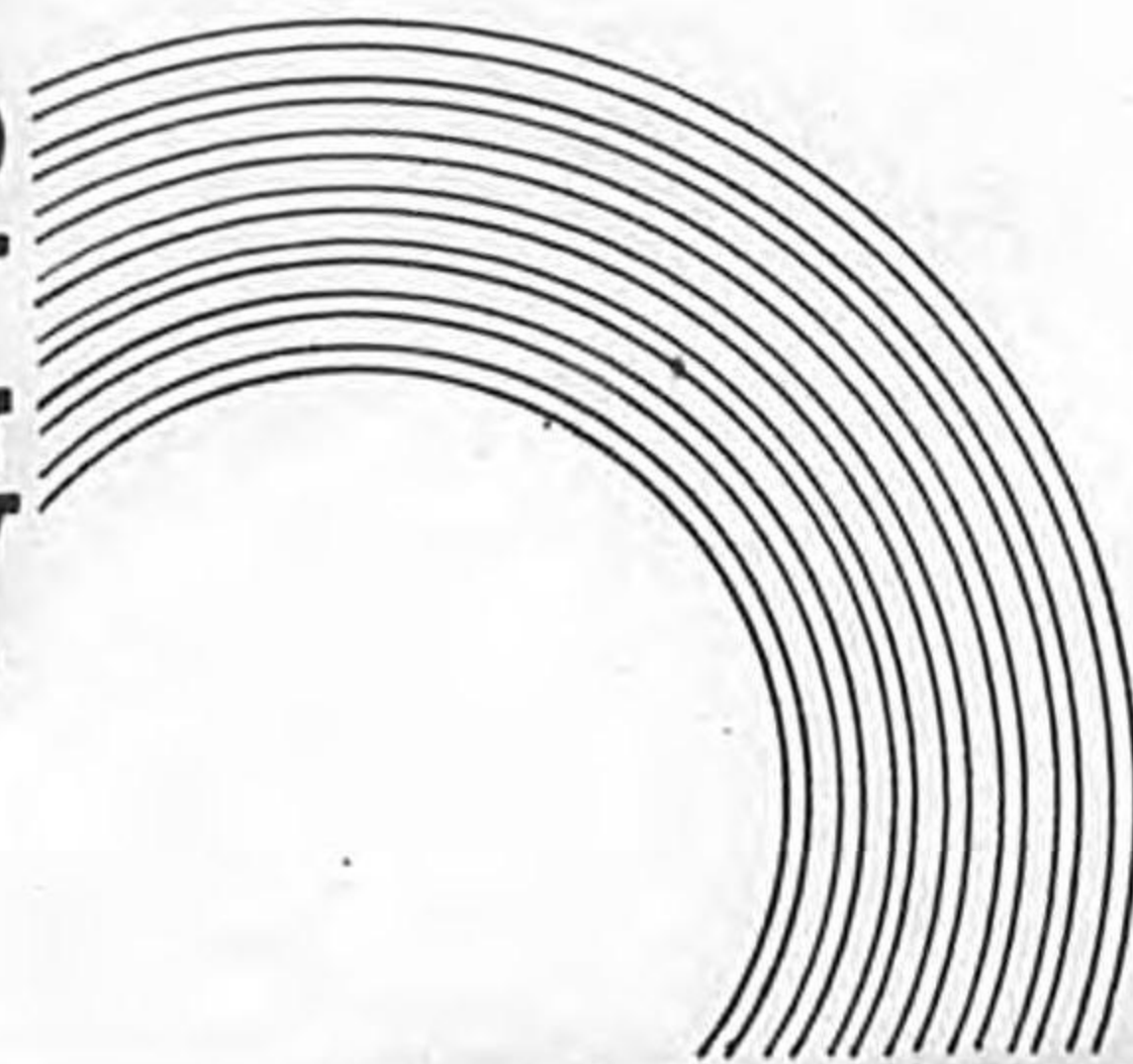
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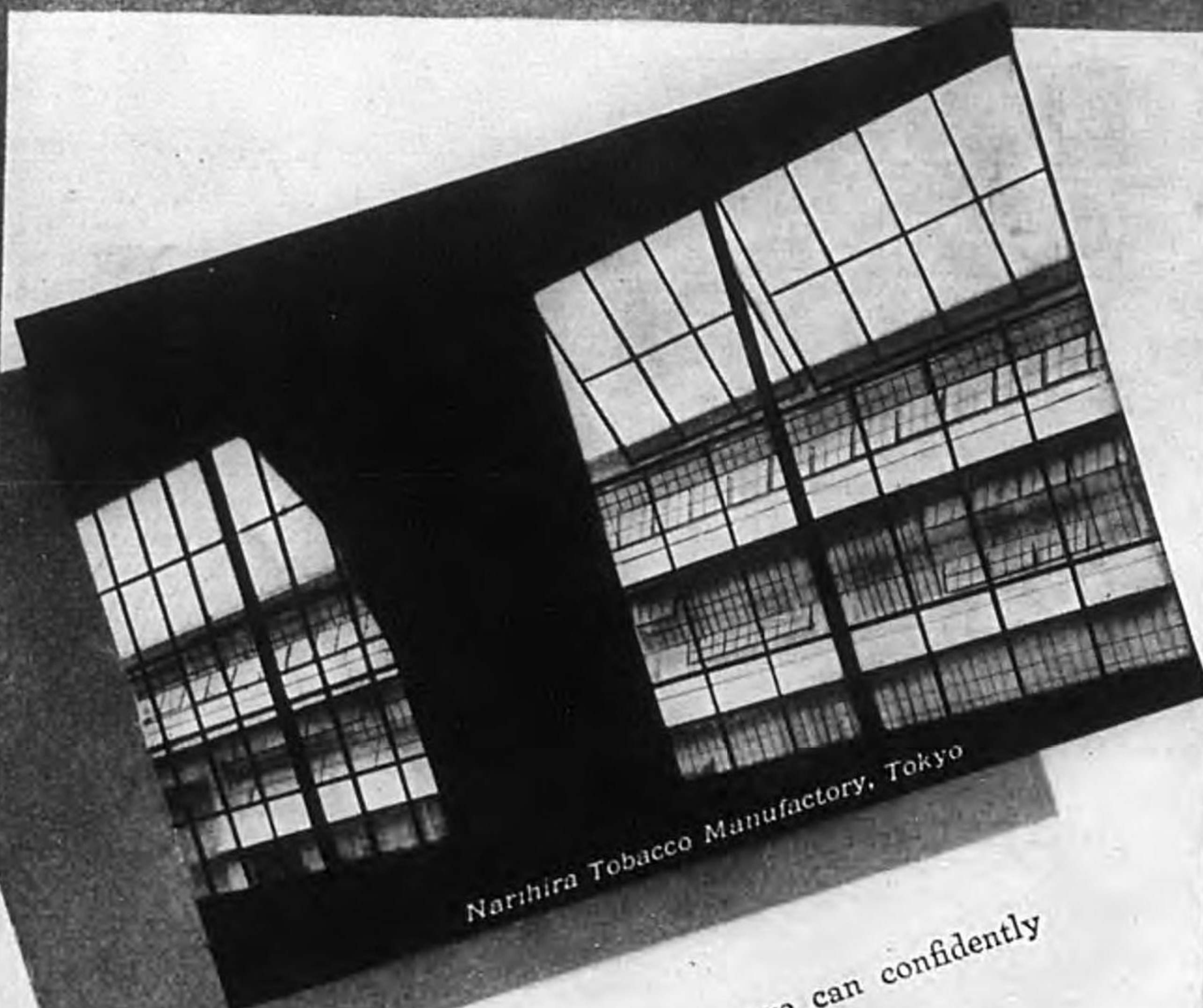
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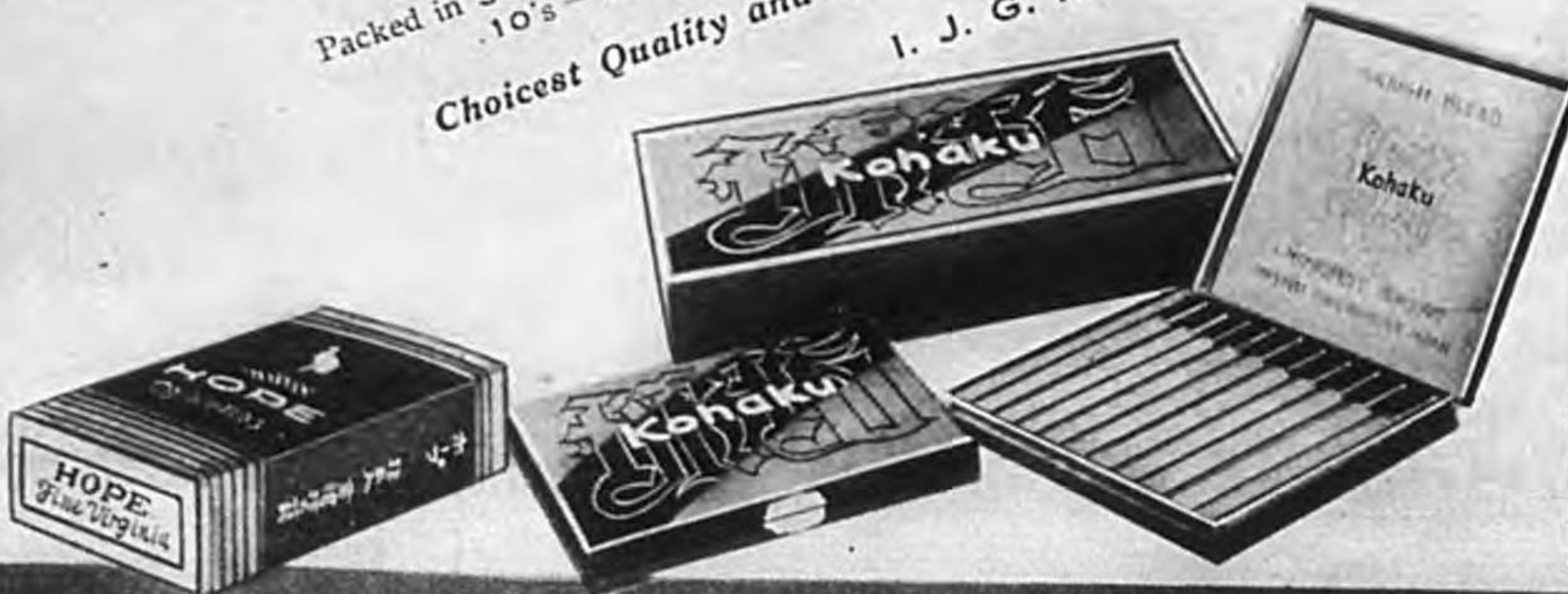
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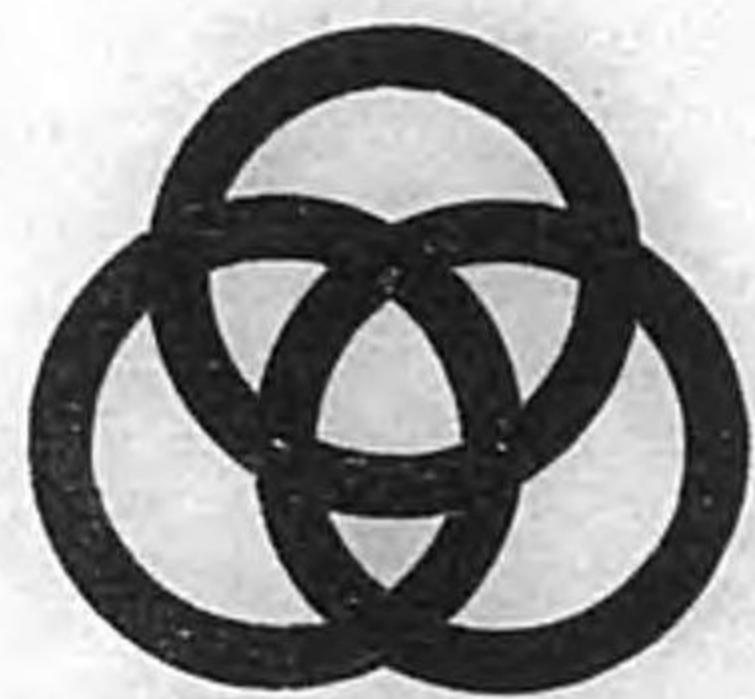
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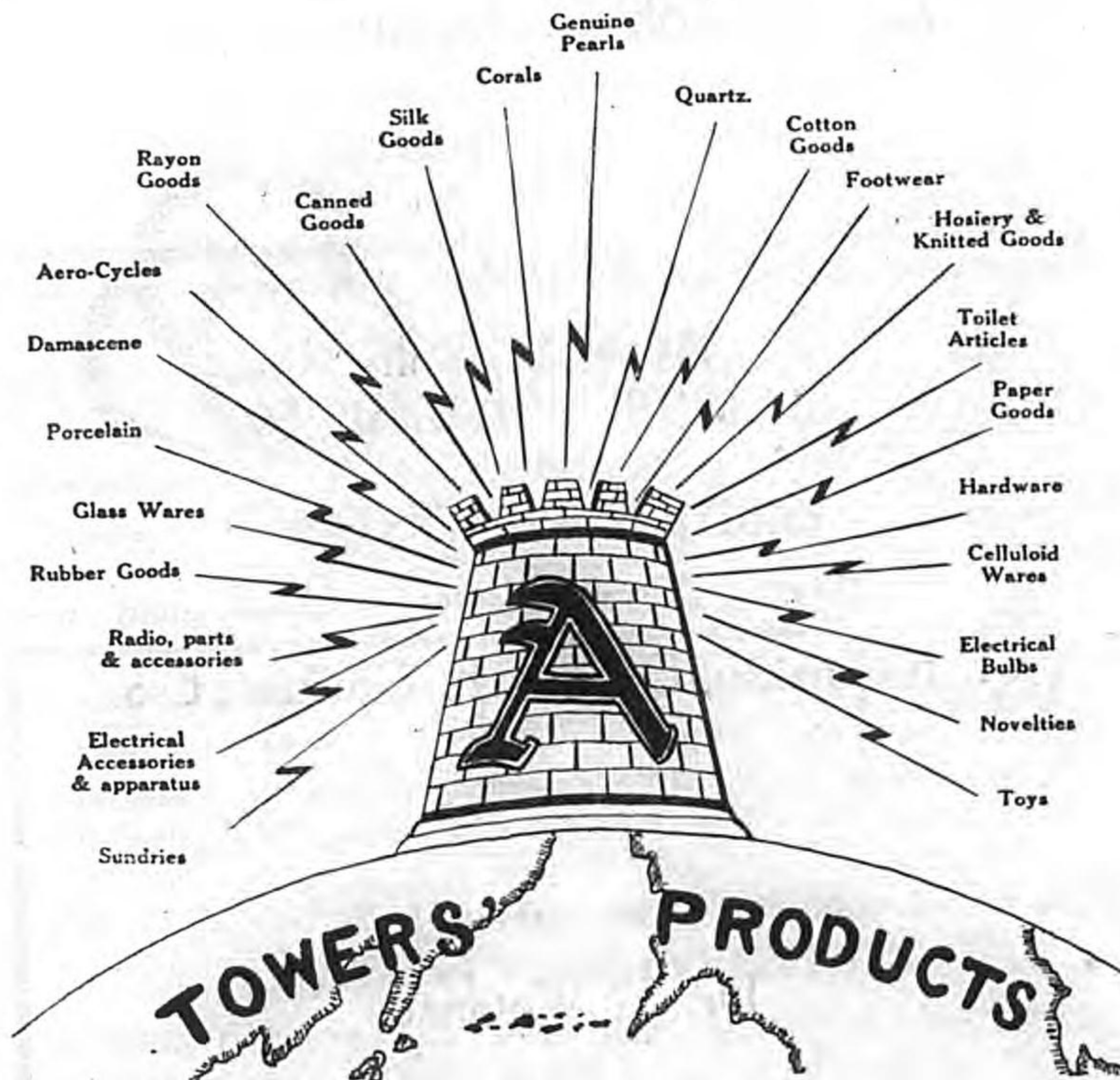
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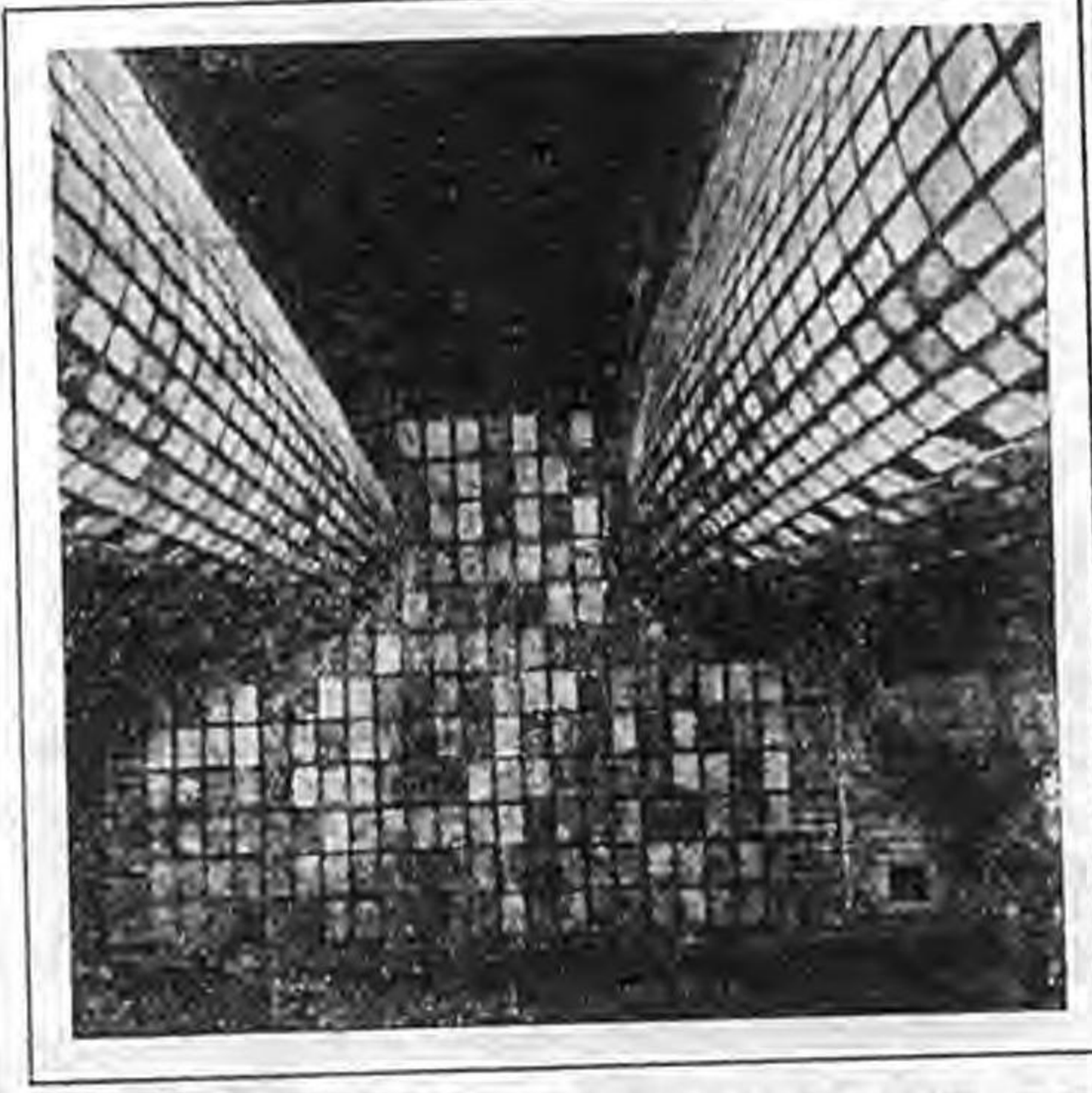
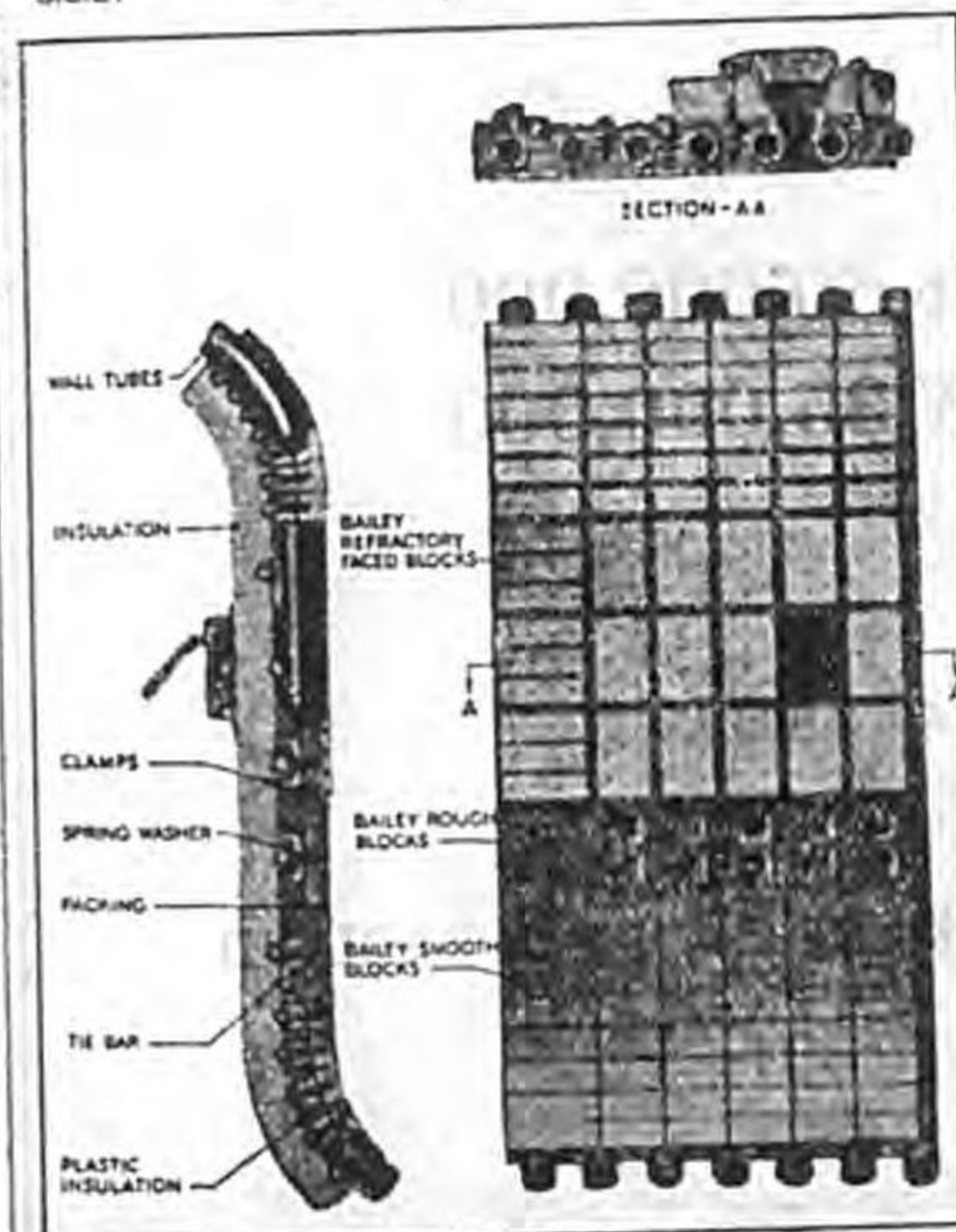
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PREFACE



THE far reaching political and economic changes which have taken place in the Far East within recent years have created the need for a year book covering the Japanese Empire and Manchoukuo. Especially to be noted is the growing relationship between Japan and Manchoukuo; hence any volume which discusses one, without consideration of the other, would be incomplete.

To fill this need, the editors of the present volume have undertaken this work and, although in any maiden effort much still remains to be desired, we believe that the main purposes in view have been attained.

The work has not been without its difficulties. The rapid changes which are taking place, especially in Manchoukuo, and the comparative lack of data on many important phases of its development, preclude any exhaustion of the subjects dwelt on. If, however, the present volume provides such information as may be indicative of present trends and developments, the editors will be satisfied.

In publishing this volume, the editors wish to express their obligation and gratitude to their many collaborators and friends who have kindly assisted in making the present work possible.

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WEIGHTS, MEASURES AND MONEYS

WITH ENGLISH AND FRENCH EQUIVALENTS

DISTANCE AND LENGTH

<i>Ri</i> =36 <i>cho</i> =2160 <i>ken</i>	=2.44030 miles	=3.92727 kilomètres
<i>Ri</i> =(marine)	=1 knot	=1.85318 kilomètres
<i>Ken</i> =6 <i>shaku</i> =60 <i>sun</i>	=5.965163 ft.	=1.81818 mètres
<i>Shaku</i> 10 <i>sun</i> =100 <i>bu</i>	=0.994194 ft.	=0.30303 mètre
<i>Shaku</i> (cloth measure)	=1.25 <i>shaku</i>	
<i>Tan</i> (cloth measure)	=a roll of about 25 <i>shaku</i>	

LAND MEASURE

Square <i>ri</i> =1296 <i>cho</i>	=5.95505 sq. miles	=15.42347 kilomètres carrés
<i>Cho</i> =10 <i>tan</i> =3000 <i>tsubo</i>	=2.45064 acres	=99.17355 ares
<i>Tsubo</i> or <i>bu</i>	=3.95369 sq. yards	= 3.30579 centiares
<i>Ko</i> (Formosa)=2934 <i>tsubo</i>		

QUANTITY, CAPACITY AND CUBIC MEASURES

<i>Koku</i> =10 <i>to</i> =100 <i>sho</i>	= { 4.96005 bushels 47.95389 gallons (Liquid) U.S.A. 5.11902 bushels (Dry) U.S.A. }	=1.80391 hectolitres
<i>Go</i> (10th of a <i>sho</i>)		
<i>Koku</i> (capacity of vessels)=10th of a ton		
<i>Koku</i> (timber)	=about 1 cubic ft.×10	
<i>Koku</i> (fish)	=40 <i>kan</i> (in weight)	
<i>Shakujime</i> (timber)	=about 1 cubic ft.×12	
<i>Taba</i> (fagot, etc.)	=about 3×6×6 ft.	

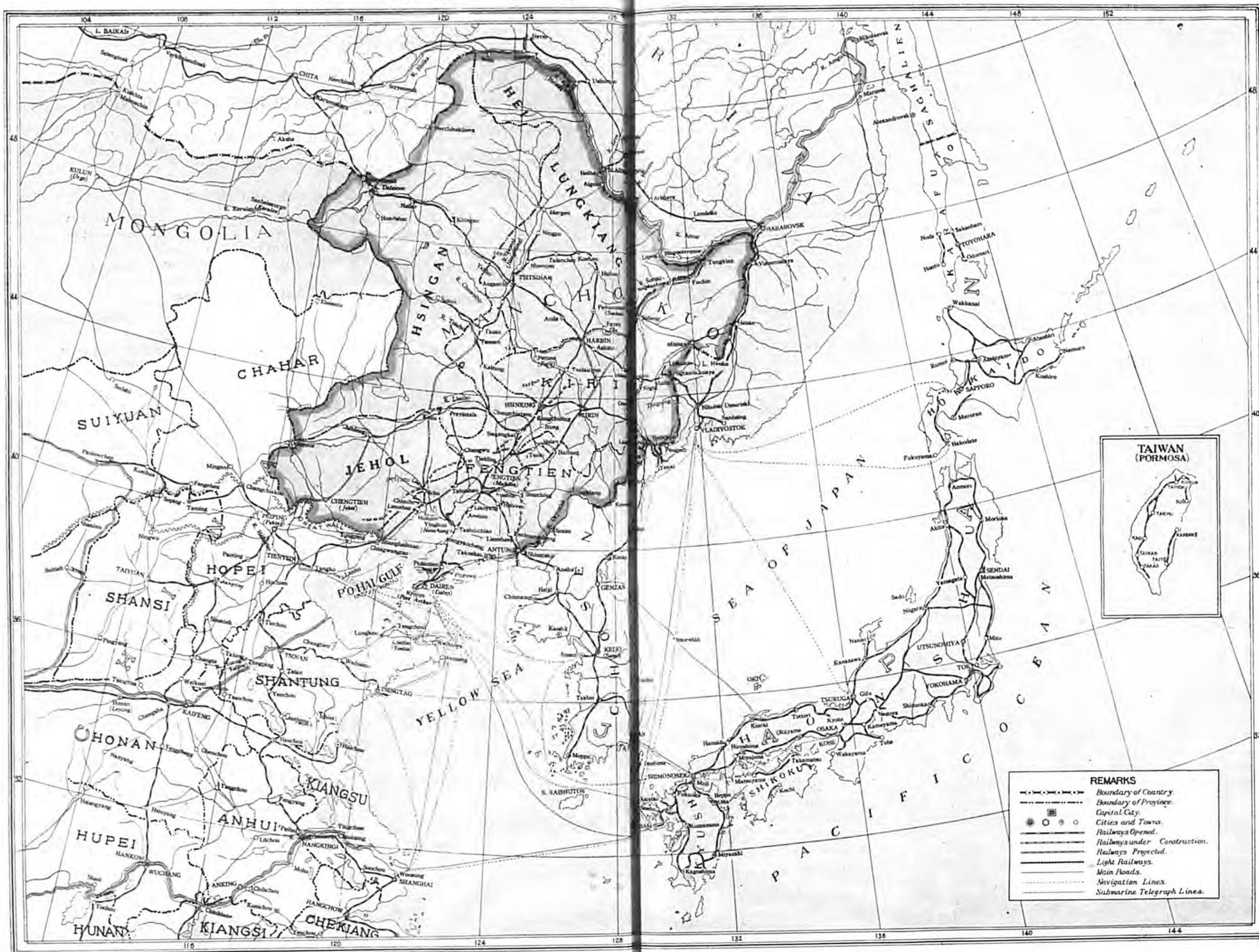
WEIGHTS

<i>Kwan</i> (<i>Kan</i>)=1000 <i>momme</i>	= { 8.26733 lbs. (Avoir) 10.04711 lbs. (Troy) }	=3.75000 kilogrammes
<i>Kin</i> =160 <i>momme</i>	= { 1.32277 lbs. (Avoir) 1.60754 lbs. (Troy) }	=0.60000 kilogrammes
<i>Momme</i> =10 <i>fun</i>	= { 0.13228 oz. (Avoir) 0.12057 oz. (Troy) }	=3.75000 grammes

MONEYS

<i>Yen</i> (¥)=100 <i>sen</i> =1000 <i>rin</i> =2 ⁰ 0 ⁴ 581	=2.583 francs
	=0.4984 dollars (U.S.A.) =2.0924 marks (Ger.)

Map of Japan and Manchoukuo



REMARKS

- Boundary of Country.
- - - - - Boundary of Province.
- Capital City.
- Cities and Towns.
- Railways Opened.
- Railways under Construction.
- Railways Projected.
- Light Railways.
- Main Roads.
- Navigation Lines.
- Submarine Telegraph Lines.

CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY

POSITION, TERRITORY, AREA, PHYSICAL FEATURES, CLIMATE, FAUNA AND FLORA

Japan is situated in the east of the Continent of Asia and in the west of the Northern Pacific lying between 21° 45' and 50° 56' N. latitude and 119° 18' and 156° 32' E. longitude. The territory comprised within this limit consists of six large islands, i.e. Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, Hokkaido, Taiwan (Formosa), Southern Karafuto (Saghalien below 50° lat.) and the Peninsula of Chosen (Korea), and about six hundred smaller islands. Of these islands Sado, Oki, Tsushima, Iki, Awaji and the four archipelagoes of Hoko (Pescadores), Chishima (Kuriles), Ogasawara (Bonin) and Ryukyu (Luchu) may deserve mention, all the rest being insignificant. Japan proper consists of the

four large islands of Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, and Hokkaido, and is exclusive of Taiwan and its adjoining islands, Karafuto and Chosen.

After the China war (1894-1895) Japan acquired Taiwan including the Pescadores, and after the Russian war (1904-05) the Southern half of Saghalien, and also obtained a free hand in Korea, which she has since annexed and renamed it Chosen. The realm now covers 260,704.23 sq. miles or 673,658 sq. kilometres, distributed as follows as to area:—

Position.....21°45'—50°55' N.L. 119°18'—156°30' E.L.
Area673,658 sq. kilometres
Of which, arable 60,304,056 sq. km.
mountainous..... 227,123,066 sq. km.

	Area		Percentage of area	Coast line (miles)
	(sq. miles)	(sq. kilometre)		
Japan proper (incl. outlying islands).....	147,651.65	381,860	56.64	17,179.98
Honshu (" " ").....	86,771.75	230,182	33.28	6,040.87
Shikoku (" " ").....	7,030.95	18,768	2.70	1,649.18
Kyushu (" " ").....	15,587.08	44,349	5.98	4,506.90
Hokkaido (" " ").....	29,976.95	88,279	11.61	1,587.37
Other (Kuriles, Luchu, etc.).....	9,886.66	21,270	3.06	3,388.35
Taiwan (Formosa)	13,889.50	35,974	5.33	973.29
Karafuto (Saghalien).....	2,024.30	36,090	5.34	945.01
Chosen (Korea)	85,288.68	220,017	32.69	9,324.00
Total	260,704.23	1,076,789		
Kwantung		3,462		
(Pacific Mandate Islands).....		2,149		

Population.....(Average density per sq. kilometre—134)
Japan proper...(" " " " " —169)
Japan proper 64.45 millions
Taiwan 4.59 "
Karafuto 0.20 "
Chosen 21.06 "
Kwantung..... 1.33 "
Pacific Mandate Islands 0.07 "

Note.—All the outlying islands having coast line of over 2 miles and also smaller islands that are inhabited are included in the total area.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

Mountains.—The land is mountainous and volcanic. The most conspicuous ranges are,

in the west and south, two branches of the Kwen-Lun system of China of which one, the Chugoku range, traverses Kyushu and finds its way into the middle part of Honshu, while the other coming from Shikoku also enters the middle Honshu. In the north there is the Saghalien system which forms the ridges in Hokkaido and northern Honshu. These ranges encounter at the middle of Honshu, thereby producing upheavals popularly known among mountaineers as the Japan Alps, and other prominent peaks such as Fuji, Norikuradake, etc.

Many volcanoes occur in these ranges. The Aso and Nasu volcanic chains form part res-

pectively of the branches of the Kwen-lun and the Saghalien systems, while the Fuji volcanic range traverses the Seven Islands and Peninsula of Idzu and joins the two main systems at the middle of Honshu, which in this part rise in peaks of over 10,000 ft. in height. The Fuji range divides Honshu into two main sections, Southern Japan and Northern Japan.

The Nasu volcanic range and Chugoku range part Honshu into what are called the Omote (front) Nihon, or Pacific board and the Ura (back) Nihon, or Japan Sea board, these two presenting striking difference in climate and other physical conditions as well as civilization. The Kirishima volcanic range occurs in the Luchu and Osumi Islands and enters Kyushu while the Kuriles have also a volcanic chain which stretches to Hokkaido. Chosen and Taiwan have their own mountain ranges and volcanic chains. In the latter there are 48 peaks of above 10,000 ft.

There are in Japanese territory over 231 mountain peaks each measuring above 8,000 ft., of which the first 39, with the sole exception of Mount Fuji, are in Taiwan. The following are the principal peaks in Japan proper, Taiwan and Chosen:—

Japan Proper			
Name	Locality	Height	
		(metres)	(feet)
Mt. Fuji	Suruga-Kai	3,778	12,394
Shirane Kitadake	Kai	3,192	10,472
Shirane Ainotake	Kai-Suruga	3,189	10,462
Yarigatake	Shinano-Hida	3,180	10,432

Flowing into	Name	Length		Drainage basin		Navigable length*	
		miles	km.	sq. miles	sq. km.	miles	km.
Japan Sea	Agano (Honshu)	105	169	3,212	8,340	217	585
	Go-no "	124	200	1,471	3,810	124	200
	Ishikari (Hokkaido)	227	365	5,401	14,250	—	—
	Mogami (Honshu)	134	216	2,858	7,400	215	459
	Jinzu "	78	126	1,073	2,780	27	55
	Noshiro or Yoneshiro (Honshu)	85	137	1,584	4,100	124	228
	Omono (Honshu)	93	149	1,614	4,180	142	334
	Rakuto (Chosen)	327	525	9,212	23,860	215	344
	Shinano (Honshu)	229	369	4,734	12,260	344	703
	Teshio (Hokkaido)	193	306	2,247	5,820	—	—
	Tumen (Chosen)	325	521	4,061	10,513	54	85
	Pacific Ocean	Abukuma (Honshu)	122	196	2,114	5,480	81
Arakawa "		110	177	1,209	3,130	154	475
Kiso "		144	232	2,513	9,100	278	448
Kitakami "		152	243	4,139	10,720	225	605
Naka "		78	126	1,262	3,270	68	118
Shingu "		100	161	942	2,440	183	295
	Fuji "	100	161	1,749	4,530	55	90

Higashidake	Suruga	3,146	10,321
Akaishidake	Shinano-Suruga	3,120	10,236
Oku Hodaka	Shinano-Hida	3,103	10,180
Hodaka	"	3,090	10,137
Arakawadake	Suruga	3,083	10,114
Ontake	Shinano-Hida	3,063	10,047
Shiomidake	Shinano-Suruga	3,047	9,996
Senjogatake	Shinano-Kai	3,033	9,950
Kita Hodaka	Kai	3,033	9,950
Shirane			
Nodoridake	Kai-Suruga	3,026	9,927
Norikuradake	Shinano-Hida	3,026	9,927
Hirijidake	Shinano-Suruga	3,011	9,878

Taiwan

Niitaka (Mt. Morrison)	3,950	12,959
Tsugitaka (Mt. Sylvia)	3,931	12,896
Shukoran-san	3,833	12,575
Maborasu-san	3,806	12,486
Nankodai-san	3,797	12,457
Chuo Senzan	3,715	12,188
Kwan-san	3,667	12,030
Daisuikutsu-san	3,645	11,958

Chosen

Peiku-tu-san	2,774	9,100
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Rivers.—Due to the insular position and complicated topography, rivers are comparatively short and of rapid current. They are not navigable for large sea-going vessels, but owing to frequent rainfalls they sufficiently serve the purpose of irrigation and hydraulic power.

Principal rivers are given below with their length, drainage area, etc.

Tenryu	134	216	1,888	4,890	176	357	
Tokachi (Hokkaido)	122	196	3,389	8,780	—	—	
Tone (Honshu)	200	322	6,086	15,760	415	852	
Yoshino (Shikoku)	146	236	1,429	3,700	146	236	
Inland Sea	Yodo (Honshu)	49	79	3,246	8,410	220	660
Okhotsk Sea	Tokoro (Hokkaido)	90	145	1,027	2,660	—	—
East China Sea	Chikugo (Kyushu)	88	141	1,102	2,850	117	189
	Dakusui (Taiwan)	95	165	—	—	—	—
Yellow Sea	Daido (Chosen)	273	439	6,437	16,673	161	260
	Kan "	320	514	10,147	26,279	205	330
	Yalu "	491	790	12,255	31,739	434	698

* Including tributaries.

Lakes and Ponds.—There are many of these inland water basins, adding much to the scenic beauty of the country, though most of them are small in size. They are generally of volcanic or seismic origin, or have been formed by gradation. Among lakes of over 1.5 sq. mile in size and lying at high altitude may be mentioned Suganuma (1,755 metres above sea level) and Lake Chuzenji (1,616 m. above sea level). As regards depth, Lake Shikotsu (247 fathoms), Lake Tazawa (223 f.) and Lake Towada (205 f.) head the list.

The area and circumference of principal lakes are as follows:—

Lakes	Province	Area (sq. km.)	Circumference (km.)
Biwa	Omi	674.80	235.20
Hachiro-gata	Ugo	221.20	80.63
Taraika	Karafuto	180.06	80.63
Kasumigaura	Hitachi	177.50	150.42
Tomnai	Karafuto	168.18	90.90
Saroma	Hokkaido	151.17	77.00
Inawashiro	Iwaki	103.64	56.08
Nakanoumi	Izumo	101.60	95.83
Shinji	"	83.13	50.50
Hamana	Totomi	80.26	126.22
Towada	Akita-Aomori	78.02	46.20
Shikotsu	Hokkaido	77.60	40.98

Chuzenji in Nikko (23.35 sq. km.), Ashi-no-ko in Hakone (20.2 sq. km.), Suwa-ko in Shinano (18.18

Name	Watered by	Noted towns	Area (sq. km.)	Approximate No. of inhabitants
Kwanto	Tone, Ara, Tama, Naka & Sagami	Tokyo, Yokohama, etc.	13,000	11 millions
Nobi	Kiso system (Ibi and Nagara)	Nagoya, Gifu, etc.	18,000	3 "
Kinai	Yodo	Kyoto, Osaka & Kobe	1,250	5 "
Echigo	Shinano and Agano	Niigata	1,800	1 1/2 "
Sendai	Kitakami and Abukuma	Sendai	1,500	1 "
Ishikari	Ishikari	Sapporo	2,100	1/5 "
Tsukushi	Chikugo	Kurume	1,200	2 "

Adjacent Seas.—The East China Sea is shallow except for the portion near Taiwan and the Luchu, but the Sea of Japan is deeper, the maximum being 1,880 fathoms. Great depres-

km.) and Towada in Mutsu (78.02 sq. km.) are noted mountain lakes.

Plains.—As might be expected from the hilly nature of her topography Japan cannot boast of large plains, and indeed land inclined 10° and below does not exceed a quarter of the whole area. But small alluvial plains are not scarce, the valleys of larger rivers being especially fertile. Of these the Kwanto plain, watered by two large rivers, Tone and Arakawa, is most important and contain Tokyo, Yokohama and many other towns and cities, supporting altogether over 10 millions of souls. The Nobi plain consists of the valleys of Kiso and other rivers and feeds over 2 1/2 million people, clustered in Nagoya and other towns and cities. Other plains in Honshu are the Kinai plain with Kyoto, Osaka, Kobe, etc. in it, containing 4 1/2 million people, and traversed by the Yodo and other rivers; the Echigo plain traversed by the Shinano and Agano rivers; the Sendai plain watered by the Kitakami and the Abukuma. Hokkaido has Ishikari and six other large plains. The Tsukushi plain in Kyushu contains coal fields, where 60 percent of the coal produced in Japan is mined. In Chosen the valleys of the Kan-go (River Han) are reputed to be among the most developed. Principal plains in Japan proper are as follows:—

sions are found in the Pacific waters not far from the coast. One of them, the Tuscarora deep, discovered by the American steamer Tuscarora in 1874, which extends for about

400 miles along the Chishima Islands (Kuriles) has a maximum depth of 4,655 fathoms (8,514 metres), the Ryukyu deep being credited with 4,041 fathoms. The deepest sea-bottom in the sea about Japan which hitherto was believed to be the Tuscarora deep has been ascertained to be a spot lying about midway between Hachijo and Ogasawara (Bonin) islands, 30° 49' N.L. and 142° 18' E.L., where a maximum depth of 9,435 metres was sounded by the warship *Manshu* in October, 1926.

Ocean Currents.—Warm and cold currents encounter in Japanese seas, which has a favourable effect upon the fishing and marine product industries of the country. The great warm current in the North Pacific, the Black Current (or Japan Current), runs along the south-eastern shores of Taiwan and Japan proper to about 35° 6' N. latitude where it bifurcates and takes a northeasterly course. The Tsushima Current which branches from the above near the Luchu Is. passes through the Strait of Tsushima and washes the Japan Sea board of Honshu, finally reaching Saghalien. The cold currents in the Japan Sea are the Liman Current which, after touching the continental shores, streams along the northeastern coast of Chosen, and the Okhotsk Current in the Okhotsk Sea. The Oyashio or Chishima Current is also cold and washes the Pacific side of the Kuriles, Hokkaido, and northeastern Honshu. It meets one of the branches of the Black Current off the Ojika Peninsula, where there is a bank that furnishes a good fishing ground.

Though visited by cold streams the Japanese seas are ice-free, save in the extreme north of the Korean waters where ice-breakers are necessary in winter. Part of the Northern Pacific north of Cape Erimo (Hokkaido) is also visited by floating ice and ice-fields which are a menace to navigation from January to April.

Tides.—Tides register a very high range on the Yellow Sea and East China Sea coasts, reaching as much as 34.5 ft. at Jinsen (Chemulpo) in Chosen. In Japan proper the highest range is 18 ft. at the port of Miike in Kyushu. The difference is 6-13 ft. in the Inland Sea, 6-9 ft. on the Pacific coast and 4-5 ft. on the Okhotsk. The Japan Sea is one of the waters with the smallest tidal range in the world, being scarcely more than 2 ft. except at the Tsushima Straits. At Naruto, one of the narrow straits by which the Inland Sea communicates with the Pacific, the tidal

streams form eddies and whirlpools which present a unique sight.

Harbors and Bays.—The Pacific coast is far more diversified in outline than the Japan Sea coast. The coast line of the former measures in aggregate 10,310.3 miles against 2,818.6 miles of the latter. In Honshu alone the outer coast measures 3,199.3 miles and the other only 1,588.6 miles. The eastern coast of northern Japan, i.e., from Cape Shiriya to Cape Inubo outside of Tokyo Bay, has only one continuous large inlet, the Bay of Sendai and the Bay of Matsushima embraced by the Ojika Peninsula, but for about 146 miles north of Sendai it is rich in smaller indentations and forms a Ria coast. The southern coast of Honshu extending from near Tokyo Bay to Cape Satta in Kyushu abounds in large indentations and furnishes several excellent anchorages. These inlets are Tokyo Bay, Gulf of Sagami, Bay of Atsumi, Bay of Ise, Straits of Kii and Gulf of Tosa.

The Inland Sea may practically be regarded as one large inland basin, being connected with the outer sea by four very narrow straits, i.e., Shimonoseki, Hayatomo, Yura and Naruto. It is dotted with small islets and renowned for its charming scenery.

The China Sea coast of Kyushu is much indented, and over the sea are scattered the islands of Goto, Hirado, Amakusa and Koshiki. In the northwest the Nishisonogi, Nomo and Shimabara peninsulas divide the coast into the four bays of Omura, Nagasaki, Sasebo and Miike. The Bay of Kagoshima also may be mentioned, for it contains the volcanic island of Sakurajima on which there was an eruption years ago.

The western part of the Japan Sea coast is much zigzagged and between Chosen and Kyushu there exists a narrow strait rather shallow in depth. This strait is further divided into three, i.e., Iki, East Tsushima and West Tsushima channels, by the two islands of Iki and Tsushima which lie in it. The West Tsushima channel is only 4,700 metres wide.

The monotonous nature of the Japan Sea coast of Honshu is somewhat diversified by the presence, here and there, of lagoons formed by the action of waves and wind. Nakanoumi Lagoon is one of such depressions. The only noteworthy indentation along the whole coast is that forming the Gulf of Wakasa on which are situated the secondary naval port of Maizuru, and the harbors of Miyazu, Tsuruga, etc. One interesting geographical feature is that ow-

ing to the presence of the gulf the most constricted neck of Honshu exists there.

Between Gulf of Wakasa and Tsugaru Promontory the curves formed by Noto and Oga Peninsulas are worthy of mention, whatever other inlets there may be being insignificant and at best forming river ports of no great value. The Oga Peninsula encloses the Hachiro-gata, a lagoon with beautiful scenery. The Gulf of Mutsu, in which lie Aomori and Ominato, a secondary naval port, opens to the Tsugaru Straits but the mouth is narrowed by the Shimokita Peninsula. The Tsugaru Straits separates Hokkaido from Honshu with a width of only 20,000 metres and a maximum depth of 111 fathoms. It is well known as Blackeston's line.

The coast of Hokkaido and of Taiwan is not much better off for anchorages. The former is characterised by the presence of sand dunes formed by strong wind and sediments brought down by rivers. The Volcanic Bay and Oshima Peninsula, Nemuro Bay and Ishikari Bay only deserve mention. The coast of Taiwan presents a sharp contrast in the eastern and western shores, the former ending abruptly in deep water and the latter terminating in shelving bottom with shoals. The three large islands of the Pescadores group enclose among themselves an important anchorage. The Japan Sea coast of Chosen is very monotonous, while the Yellow Sea board is rich in indentations of which West Chosen and Gunsan Bays are the largest, containing Ryugampo (Yongampo), Jinsen (Chemulpo), Gunsan (Kunsan), Moppo and other harbors. This part also abounds in islets. The south coast of the Peninsula is not marked by large zigzags but has excellent anchorages, such as Masan and Fusan.

Harbors Open to Foreign Steamers

Yokohama (Honshu)	Nawa (Luchu)
Kobe "	Hakodate (Hokkaido)
Niigata "	Otaru "
Osaka "	Kushiro "
Yokkaichi "	Muroran "
Shimonoseki "	Nemuro "
Taketoyo "	Keelung (Taiwan)
Shimizu "	Tamsui "
Tsuruga "	Takao "
Nagoya "	Kyuko "
Ebisu "	Anping "
Fushiki "	Goro "
Sakai "	Rokko "
Hamada "	Toseki "

Miyazu (Honshu)	Gosei (Taiwan)
Itozaki "	Mako "
Aomori "	Fusan (Chosen)
Tokuyama "	Moppo "
Imabari (Shikoku)	Gunsan "
Nagasaki (Kyushu)	Jinsen "
Miike "	Yuki "
Wakamatsu "	Chinnampo "
Moji "	Shin-Gishu "
Hakata "	Ryugampo "
Karatsu "	Gensan "
Kuchinotsu "	Joshin "
Misumi "	Seishin "
Suminoye "	Masampo "
Kagoshima "	Chinkai "
Sasuna (Tsushima)	Otomari (Karafuto)
Shishimi "	Maoka "
Izugahara "	

CLIMATE

Atmospheric Pressure and Wind.—The climate of Japan is chiefly governed by the prevalence of monsoons, that is, the prevailing winds that periodically change their directions about every half year. During the warm seasons what is called the summer monsoon prevails, its direction being generally south to southeasterly, while the winter monsoon that prevails during the cold seasons is north to northeasterly in direction. From the latter part of September to March a large area of high barometric pressure covers the whole of Eastern Siberia, its centre being the districts surrounding Lake Baikal. At the same time an area of low pressure appears over the northern Pacific, extending to the south of the Aleutian Islands. This results in the prevalence of anti-cyclonic wind over the whole of the Far East, its direction being west to northwest in Hokkaido, northwest in Japan proper, north in the Luchu Islands and northeasterly in Taiwan. One of the characteristics of the winter monsoon is its marked constancy in strength. It continues to blow for many days together, being broken only by an occasional visitation of the atmospheric disturbances called "cyclonic storm." From the latter part of April to the last decade of August what is known as the grand Pacific high pressure occupies the central part of the north Pacific Ocean, its western margin reaching as far as the eastern coast of Japan. Then in the Tibetan plateau there develops a great low area, with a secondary low area also developing over the Mongolian desert. Thus a system of cyclonic circulations of air is established all over the Far Eastern coast, and the air current from the Pacific flows

in into the Continent past Japan and her neighbouring seas. This summer monsoon, however, is generally variable in strength and its duration is short.

Below are given the mean monthly baro-

metric reading at a few stations as reduced to the sea-level and given in mm. and a table showing the direction of prevailing winds at principal localities:—

Atmospheric Pressure (in mm.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	66.0	65.0	63.4	60.6	57.7	55.2	54.4	53.8	57.0	61.3	64.1	65.7	60.4
Fukuoka	66.6	65.7	64.5	62.0	59.1	56.3	56.4	56.2	59.0	63.2	65.7	66.7	61.8
Kagoshima	66.0	65.0	63.8	61.6	59.0	56.6	56.9	56.3	58.3	62.1	65.1	66.1	61.4
Hiroshima	66.1	65.3	64.4	62.0	59.3	56.6	56.8	56.6	59.2	63.1	65.6	66.0	61.8
Osaka	65.1	64.4	63.9	61.0	59.3	56.7	57.0	56.9	59.3	62.7	65.0	65.0	61.4
Nagoya	64.2	63.6	63.3	61.9	59.3	56.9	57.2	57.2	59.5	62.5	64.4	64.3	61.2
Kanazawa	64.4	64.2	63.9	61.9	59.2	56.6	56.9	56.9	59.5	63.0	64.7	64.2	61.3
Tokyo	62.4	62.1	62.4	61.7	59.2	57.0	57.3	57.6	59.9	62.6	63.6	62.4	60.7
Niigata	63.5	63.3	63.5	62.1	59.3	56.8	57.0	57.2	59.8	63.1	64.3	63.2	61.1
Ishinomaki	62.1	62.0	62.5	61.7	59.2	57.2	57.4	57.7	60.2	62.8	63.4	62.1	60.7
Hakodate	62.1	61.2	61.6	61.0	58.7	56.8	57.0	57.7	60.0	62.4	62.5	60.7	61.0
Nemuro	58.9	59.7	60.2	60.4	58.7	57.7	57.7	58.5	60.6	61.7	60.6	58.3	59.4
Bonin	63.2	62.5	62.8	61.9	59.7	59.3	59.0	56.7	58.8	60.2	62.2	63.9	60.8

Directions of Prevailing Wind

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ENE	E	E	E	E
Fukuoka	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE
Kagoshima	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW
Hiroshima	NNE	NNE	NNE	NNE	S	SW	SW	SW	NNE	NNE	NNE	NNE	NNE
Osaka	W	N	N	NE	NE	NE	WSW	NE	NE	NE	NE	W	NE
Nagoya	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	S	S	S	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW
Kanazawa	SE	SE	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	SE	E
Tokyo	NW	NW	NW	NW	S	S	S	S	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW
Niigata	NW	NW	W	W	W	SE	N	SE	SE	SE	S	NW	S
Ishinomaki	NW	NW	NW	NW	S	S	S	S	N	N	N	NW	NW
Hakodate	W	W	W	W	SE	SE	SE	ESE	E	N	W	W	W
Nemuro	NW	NW	NW	SSW	S	S	S	S	S	SSW	NW	W	SSW
Bonin	N	N	N	S	SSW	S	SE	E	E	E	NE	N	N

Cyclones and Typhoons:—In speaking of winds in Japan and her neighbourhood, it is necessary to mention the violent rotatory storms called cyclones and typhoons. The former are also known by the name of Continental cyclones, and belong to the same category as the European rotatory storms. A cyclone is caused by the intruding polar front of general circulation in the higher latitude. These continental cyclones are most frequent in winter and are very rare in summer. The

typhoon is of tropical origin as hurricanes observed in the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic and the cyclones visiting the Bay of Bengal and Arabian Sea. It is most frequent from July to October, the severest occurring usually in August and September. In winter this kind of atmospheric disturbance is rarely met with. Below is given the frequency of both kinds of rotatory storms, the statistics being quoted from Father Froc's well known memoir "L'Atmosphère en Extreme Orient":—

Frequency of Cyclones and Typhoons (1893-1918)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Cyclones	101	114	157	165	159	123	60	37	50	87	97	114	
Typhoons	30	17	18	14	33	34	90	93	109	96	52	43	

Air Temperature.—In winter the cold is intense in Japan proper for its latitude, owing to the cold air currents brought over from the Asiatic Continent by the winter monsoon, while being much milder than in the districts of the same latitude in Manchuria, Siberia, etc. The climate of Chosen (Korea) is more continental and colder than that of Japan proper, the territory forming part of the Continent. In Japan proper the interior of Hokkaido is also marked by continentality of climate, the temperature once recorded in Asahigawa being as low as -41° C.

In the hot season the air temperature on land being already high due to insolation, the effect of the summer monsoon there prevails is chiefly shown in the close or sultry air owing to the moisture borne from the sea. Summer in Taiwan (Formosa) is most unbearable, because of the high temperature which lasts

from the daytime far into the night, though the maximum is comparatively low. In Honshu and other islands of Japan proper, however, the heat lessens in the evening and morning. In Hokkaido it is as hot as in Honshu in the daytime when tropical clothes are needful, but it grows so cool before sunrise and after sunset, that people are liable to catch cold. On the coast of the Setonakaikai, or the Inland Sea districts, land and sea breezes are well developed, and consequently morning and evening calms marking the pause of these breezes occur very regularly. In the hours 7 to 9 p.m. during the hot season, the air in these districts is as still as dead, not a puff quivering the blades of grass, and one feels as if shut up in a hot house.

The appended tables show the monthly mean air temperature and the daily mean maximum and minimum temperature:—

Monthly Mean Temperature of Air (in $^{\circ}$ C.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	15.2	14.7	16.9	20.6	23.9	26.6	28.1	27.9	26.1	22.9	19.7	16.7	21.6
Fukuoka	5.0	5.1	8.1	13.1	17.0	21.3	25.6	26.4	22.2	16.3	11.5	6.9	14.9
Kagoshima	7.1	7.4	10.8	15.5	18.8	22.2	26.0	26.7	24.2	19.0	13.8	8.8	16.7
Hiroshima	4.0	4.3	7.4	13.0	17.1	21.3	25.6	26.8	23.0	16.8	11.1	6.0	14.7
Osaka	4.2	4.4	7.4	13.3	17.5	21.8	26.0	27.3	23.4	17.1	11.5	6.5	15.0
Nagoya	3.2	3.9	7.0	13.1	17.3	21.5	25.7	26.6	22.9	16.6	10.6	5.3	14.5
Kanazawa	2.5	2.4	5.3	11.1	15.5	20.0	24.2	25.5	21.5	15.4	10.1	5.1	13.2
Tokyo	3.0	3.7	6.8	12.6	16.6	20.4	24.2	25.5	22.0	16.0	10.5	5.3	13.9
Niigata	1.4	1.4	4.4	10.3	14.8	19.4	23.8	25.6	21.4	15.2	9.5	4.1	12.6
Ishinomaki	0.3	0.2	3.1	8.9	13.2	17.3	21.2	23.2	19.8	13.7	7.8	2.4	10.9
Hakodate	3.0	2.3	0.7	6.4	10.4	14.4	18.0	21.5	17.8	11.7	5.6	0.2	8.5
Nemuro	5.0	5.5	2.5	2.9	6.5	9.8	14.3	17.2	15.2	10.5	4.4	1.4	5.5
Bonin	17.5	17.4	18.3	20.5	22.7	25.5	27.1	27.1	26.8	25.4	22.8	19.3	22.5

Mean Daily Maximum Temperature of Air

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	19.1	18.4	20.9	24.8	28.3	31.4	33.1	32.8	30.8	27.2	23.6	20.5	25.9
Fukuoka	9.5	9.7	13.0	18.5	22.6	26.1	30.0	31.2	27.4	22.3	17.1	11.6	19.9
Kagoshima	11.9	12.1	15.6	20.3	23.5	26.1	30.0	31.0	28.5	24.0	19.0	13.9	21.3
Hiroshima	9.0	9.4	12.7	18.2	22.3	25.6	29.7	31.6	27.8	22.6	17.0	11.4	19.8
Osaka	8.6	8.9	12.3	18.3	22.6	26.2	30.3	32.1	28.1	22.3	16.7	11.3	19.8
Nagoya	8.2	9.1	12.6	18.7	22.9	26.3	30.4	31.7	27.7	22.0	16.5	10.5	19.7
Kanazawa	6.1	6.3	9.8	16.3	20.6	24.5	28.5	30.4	26.4	20.5	14.8	9.0	17.8
Tokyo	8.3	8.8	11.8	17.5	21.2	24.5	28.2	29.9	26.0	20.4	15.7	10.8	18.6
Niigata	4.2	4.7	8.5	15.1	19.7	23.7	27.8	30.0	25.8	19.6	13.4	7.4	16.6
Ishinomaki	3.4	4.2	7.3	13.3	17.3	20.8	24.4	26.4	23.4	18.1	12.3	6.3	14.8
Hakodate	0.3	1.3	4.5	10.9	14.9	18.4	22.6	25.3	22.2	16.7	9.6	3.2	12.5
Nemuro	2.0	2.2	0.8	6.7	10.6	13.8	18.2	20.9	18.6	14.0	7.7	1.6	9.1
Bonin	20.5	20.4	21.5	23.7	25.7	28.8	30.9	30.4	30.2	28.7	25.7	22.2	25.7

Mean Daily Minimum Temperature of Air

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	12.3	11.8	14.0	17.3	20.5	22.9	24.2	24.1	22.5	19.8	16.7	13.8	18.3
Fukuoka	0.9	0.8	3.1	7.4	11.4	17.0	22.0	22.5	18.4	10.8	6.2	2.5	10.3
Kagoshima	2.7	3.1	6.1	11.0	14.5	18.9	22.7	23.3	20.8	14.9	9.2	4.3	12.6
Hiroshima	0.2	0.1	2.4	7.6	11.9	17.3	21.8	22.8	18.9	11.9	6.1	1.5	10.2
Osaka	0.3	0.4	2.9	8.4	12.7	17.9	22.5	23.4	19.6	12.7	6.9	2.3	10.8
Nagoya	1.0	0.7	2.0	7.8	12.1	17.3	21.8	22.6	19.0	11.9	5.7	0.8	10.0
Kanazawa	0.5	0.9	1.3	6.1	10.7	15.9	20.3	21.5	17.7	11.4	6.2	1.8	9.3
Tokyo	1.5	0.6	2.2	8.1	12.1	16.9	20.9	22.2	18.7	12.3	6.0	0.6	9.8
Niigata	1.2	1.4	1.0	6.1	10.8	15.9	20.5	22.0	17.9	11.7	6.1	1.2	9.2
Ishinomaki	3.8	3.3	0.7	4.8	9.3	14.1	18.4	20.4	16.6	9.7	3.6	1.2	7.3
Hakodate	7.3	6.9	3.5	1.7	5.7	10.5	15.5	17.7	13.1	6.1	1.0	4.3	4.1
Nemuro	8.8	9.6	6.3	0.5	2.9	6.6	11.0	44.2	12.1	6.7	0.6	5.0	2.0
Bonin	14.3	14.2	14.1	17.7	20.1	22.7	24.1	24.6	24.2	22.8	19.9	16.3	19.6

Precipitation.—During the cold season the northwesterly monsoon that comes from the Continent blows across the Japan Sea, where it takes up considerable quantities of moisture. This inflowing air current strikes the coast and is forced to ascend the slope of the central mountain ranges running almost parallel to the coast. Due to the adiabatic cooling of this ascending moist air a considerable quantity of precipitation, especially in the form of snow, falls as long as the wind continues blowing. In consequence, during winter deep snow covers the ground in the districts facing the Japan Sea, i.e. from northern Kyushu to Hokkaido, especially the region extending from Kanazawa to Otaru. In the prefecture of Niigata, especially in the upper valley of River Shinano, 10 to 20 feet of snow is the rule. In 1893 it measured 25 feet in Aoyagi village, Nakakubiki-gun, in that prefecture. The snowfall is also heavy in Hokkaido. Once a depth of 13 feet was recorded in Ebishima village, Ishikari province. In those snowy districts the drifts reach the eaves, so that the inhabitants make tunnels through them, or more generally live in the upper storey rooms, the street traffic being carried on the beaten track over the snow. As a drift frequently piles up to several feet in a single night, it baffles the operation of the Russel plough and railway trains are often held up for days. On the Pacific board, which is separated from the Japan Sea coast by the central mountain ranges, the northwesterly monsoon blowing as a descending current the weather is mostly fair with the sky so clear and serene that not a speck of cloud dots it. Thus the winter weather along the Pacific and that along the Japan Sea board with high ridges in between, are characterized by almost

contrary phenomena. Only in the northeastern districts where the central ranges are not so high the loaded current from the Japan Sea is borne over to the Pacific coast, so that the region extending from Aomori to Sendai and Koriyama is mostly covered with snow all through the winter, though the district south of these latter cities is free from the precipitation.

"Bai-u" or "Plum-rain".—During the warm season the situation is quite different. Besides the general rainfall caused by the occasional visitation of cyclones and typhoons, a long spell of wet weather prevails from the second decade of June to the first decade of July. The rainy season is commonly known as "Bai-u" or "Plum-rain", as it occurs when the plums are getting ripe. This "Plum-rain" season begins earlier in the lower latitude and progresses to the higher latitude. Thus the Luchu Islands have the rainy season in May, while in North Chosen and Manchuria it occurs in July. The characteristic of the "Bai-u" lies not so much in the heaviness of rainfall as in the long spell of drizzling. Heavy precipitation in a short space of time mostly occurs with the visitation of typhoons in August and September, when torrential downpour of rain often causes the rivers to swell and overflow their banks. It is in these months that inundations and landslides frequently paralyze the railway service. In short, heavy precipitation takes place twice, in winter and summer, on the Japan Sea coast, and once, i.e. in summer, on the Pacific coast.

The following tables give the average monthly rainfall in mm. and the number of wet days:—

Amount of Precipitation (in mm.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	83.8	127.8	172.1	141.6	236.2	281.1	213.2	292.6	258.7	131.9	74.3	78.2	2091.6
Fukuoka	69.8	82.8	116.4	136.8	123.9	255.5	257.5	130.5	186.8	106.6	74.0	78.8	1615.9
Kagoshima	87.8	98.3	160.9	224.5	214.7	413.8	229.9	184.8	228.2	136.2	95.0	81.3	2225.4
Hiroshima	54.9	64.9	112.2	171.8	150.1	252.6	222.9	105.4	186.0	112.8	67.6	52.3	1553.5
Osaka	49.3	60.1	105.0	142.1	129.0	201.4	155.0	107.6	181.6	130.5	75.6	48.1	1385.1
Nagoya	59.6	70.5	125.7	165.3	162.9	229.0	191.2	177.2	246.0	154.1	87.2	55.8	1724.5
Kanazawa	277.0	187.8	167.9	163.4	144.6	183.8	209.8	164.6	241.9	204.2	268.7	352.6	2566.2
Tokyo	56.6	73.7	111.5	131.7	155.4	166.6	141.6	160.5	228.2	192.4	101.5	53.3	1572.9
Niigata	191.6	127.8	110.1	104.4	91.9	128.5	159.6	120.7	192.9	159.1	196.0	231.0	1813.6
Ishinomaki	43.3	51.0	75.5	91.1	111.6	117.6	131.2	121.2	164.4	127.8	62.7	41.9	1142.4
Hakodate	62.6	58.5	66.2	69.2	83.6	94.8	133.7	128.4	166.8	120.8	102.8	75.9	1162.4
Nemuro	35.7	27.1	56.0	75.5	96.3	95.4	98.1	106.6	147.3	98.8	82.4	58.0	977.2
Bonin	112.2	85.6	109.8	117.9	216.3	114.2	101.1	188.5	137.6	128.0	141.4	136.2	1588.7

Number of Days with Precipitation

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	16.3	16.7	17.3	14.8	16.1	15.2	13.4	15.2	14.4	15.0	16.1	16.4	186.9
Fukuoka	16.7	14.7	15.7	14.0	11.9	15.4	14.1	11.2	14.4	11.4	12.0	16.0	167.6
Kagoshima	13.9	13.1	16.1	14.9	14.3	18.7	16.6	14.0	14.8	11.5	10.1	12.8	170.9
Hiroshima	11.4	10.0	13.2	13.2	11.5	14.0	12.7	9.8	13.6	9.3	9.1	9.1	136.9
Osaka	8.9	9.6	13.1	13.4	12.5	14.8	12.6	10.1	14.3	10.8	9.8	9.2	139.1
Nagoya	9.6	8.9	12.7	12.7	12.4	15.1	14.8	12.2	15.8	11.8	10.2	9.4	145.5
Kanazawa	26.7	22.6	21.0	15.5	14.1	15.3	15.3	12.0	16.8	17.5	20.8	25.8	223.4
Tokyo	7.4	8.2	13.4	14.2	14.0	15.7	14.8	12.6	16.7	14.4	10.0	6.6	147.9
Niigata	27.7	22.9	21.4	15.2	13.9	14.3	14.6	11.4	17.0	19.0	21.9	27.1	226.4
Ishinomaki	10.4	10.3	12.2	12.1	12.6	13.9	15.6	13.8	15.5	14.0	11.5	10.9	152.9
Hakodate	21.0	17.7	17.9	11.8	12.9	12.9	13.9	12.7	16.4	15.2	18.8	21.6	192.7
Nemuro	11.7	9.7	12.1	12.1	13.0	14.5	14.8	14.6	15.3	13.4	12.9	12.7	156.7
Bonin	17.1	15.6	16.0	14.5	18.3	11.2	14.0	17.2	16.9	18.4	17.3	17.1	193.6

Frost.—The invasion of cold wind from the Asiatic continent often causes killing frost, which frequently inflicts heavy damage on young mulberry leaves, and hence to spring sericulture. The following is the record of late frost in various sericultural centers:—

Districts	Average time	As occurred last
Nagoya	Apr. 13	May 13, 1902
Gifu	" 22	" 19, 1893
Matsumoto	May 14	" 29, 1921
Nagano	" 6	" 30, 1891
Maebashi	Apr. 19	" 13, 1902
Kumagai	" 16	" 16, 1917
Fukushima	May 5	" 25, 1895, 1912

Humidity.—Due to her geographical position the climate of Japan is very moist, and this fact is responsible for the southerly wind in summer that travels with the Black Current and the northerly wind in winter which blows with the Tsushima Current. For reasons already stated, Japan is one of the rainiest regions in the world, the average record of rainfall ranging from 700 m.m. in

Saghalien and Northwestern Chosen, and 3,312 m.m. in Hachijo Island off Izu Peninsula. In Southern and Northern Taiwan, Luchu Is., and on the southeastern and Japan Sea coasts of Japan proper, it is generally above 2,000 m.m. In the middle part of the Inland Sea coast, the inland basins in Nagano and other prefectures the gauge registers below 1,200 m.m. The Pacific coast of Northern Japan has generally little rain.

The following tables show the records of average humidity and average precipitation taken at principal observatories:—

Average Humidity (Percent)
(taking saturation as 100)

Observatory	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Year	Min.
Taihoku	83	83	78	81	82	29
Kumamoto	78	77	82	79	79	18
Fukushima	74	67	80	82	76	12
Kanazawa	80	74	82	79	78	19
Kure	71	72	79	74	74	22
Osaka	72	72	77	76	74	16
Nagoya	75	72	78	78	75	21

Tokyo	64	73	83	80	74	8
Matsumoto ...	79	70	80	83	77	17
Niigata	3	76	83	79	80	20
Hakodate	77	72	86	74	77	19
Sapporo	80	72	84	79	79	8
Fusan	50	66	82	64	65	5
Keijo (Seoul)..	68	67	80	73	71	17

Average Precipitation (m.m.)

Observatory	Jan.	April	July	Oct.	Yearly total	Max. per day
Taihoku.....	88	135	228	133	2,072	287
Kumamoto...	65	163	273	113	1,789	187
Kure	59	150	199	111	1,457	163
Osaka.....	49	142	146	132	1,370	175
Nagoya	58	167	190	154	1,721	240
Tokyo	56	131	140	191	1,561	194
Matsumoto..	46	89	132	124	1,162	156
Fukushima..	52	85	150	166	2,028	165
Kanazawa...	277	166	205	201	2,543	156
Hakodate ...	63	69	131	121	1,157	147
Niigata	192	107	160	155	1,811	133
Sapporo.....	82	55	88	106	1,012	124
Fusan.....	53	162	275	72	1,419	251
Keijo (Seoul)	34	85	326	39	1,263	355

As a natural consequence of the heavy precipitation of rain or snow, the number of sunny days is comparatively small. Rain or snow claims 150 days on an average, the remaining 215 days being fair. Thus Japan may approximately be said to have, in a year, 4 sunny days for every 3 days of rain or snow. The Pescadores (94.5 days) and Kamo (245.3 days) are the two extremes. In Chosen and Western Taiwan wet days do not exceed 120 while in Japan proper they seldom fall below the figures. The Japan Sea board of Honshu and Luchu, Bonin and Kurile Islands have more than 200 wet days. In the first-named region gloomy weather prevails in winter months (Nov. to Feb.) and over 23 days of the month are rainy or snowy.

Japan has two wettest seasons, one from the middle of June to the beginning of July, and the other from the beginning of September to October. The former called "bai-u" or "tsuyu" is especially marked on the Pacific coast or Southern Japan, due to the appearance of low pressure areas in the Yangtze valley of China which travel north-eastward. It occasions a long spell of drizzling rain. The latter is caused by the low atmospheric pressure that originates from the South Sea and is characterised by heavy precipitation.

Average No. of Wet Days

Observatory	Jan.	Apr.1	July	Oct.	Yearly total
Taihoku.....	16.5	15.5	13.6	14.9	186.6
Kumamoto...	12.4	13.8	15.8	10.4	155.3
Kure	8.5	12.3	11.6	9.0	125.4
Osaka.....	8.7	13.0	12.3	10.5	137.3
Nagoya	9.5	12.4	14.5	11.8	143.9
Tokyo	7.1	14.0	14.3	14.3	146.2
Matsumoto..	11.6	12.1	15.6	12.5	148.1
Fukushima..	14.3	11.8	15.8	13.3	167.6
Kanazawa...	26.8	15.5	15.3	17.6	224.1
Niigata	27.7	15.3	14.2	19.1	226.9
Hakodate ...	20.7	11.9	13.5	15.1	192.1
Sapporo.....	20.5	12.5	13.0	17.0	194.7
Fusan.....	6.3	10.0	13.9	7.5	106.7
Keijo Seoul)	7.8	8.4	16.3	6.9	112.8

The Aerological Observatory at Tateno.—

The aerological observatory established in 1929 at Tateno in Miyazaki prefecture (Kyushu) at the cost of approximately ¥25,000, is the only one of the kind in Japan. The observatory exchanges communications as to daily meteorological phenomenon with the Central Meteorological Observatory (Tokyo) and the meteorological stations at Kumagai (Saitama pref.), Nagano, Osaka, Kobe, Hiroshima, Fukuoka, Jinsen (Chemulpo), Heijo (Phongyang), Nawa (Luchu), Saipan (South Sea Islands), and other places.

FAUNA AND FLORA

Japan is very rich in fauna and flora, for three reasons, i.e. (1) the land is very much elongated from north to south, (2) the coasts are highly indented, and (3) there are many high mountains. Species found in the northern parts of Japan, i.e. Karafuto (Saghalien), Chishima (Kuriles), and Hokkaido, and Chosen (Korea) have much in common with those of Manchuria, Siberia and Europe, while the southern parts, i.e. Taiwan (Formosa), Ryukyu (Luchu Islands) and Ogasawara (Bonin Islands) compare with South China, Oceania and India.

Fauna

So far as is known at present, the approximate number of species of some principal animal groups is as follows:—

Mammals, 270; Birds, 800; Reptiles, 110; Amphibians, 80; Fishes, 2,500; Insects, 10,500; Molluscs, 4,000.

Land Fauna

The land fauna of Japan may be divided into two principal groups, one Palaearctic, and the other Oriental. Of these, the Palaearctic elements are chiefly found in the northern territories, while the Oriental ones range over the islands of Taiwan (Formosa) and Ryukyu (Luchu). The Japanese archipelago may, therefore, be divided into the following faunal areas:—

1. Palaearctic region: (a) Eurasian sub-region, consisting of Kurile group, Saghalien; (b) East Asian sub-region, including Chosen (Korea) and Japan proper, the latter consisting of Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu.

2. Oriental region, comprising the islands of Taiwan (Formosa) and Ryukyu (Luchu).

The Kurile Group.—Of about 22 species of animals known in this group, two appear to be endemic and are spread over the two northern sub-groups, namely, the Kurile field vole (*Microtus uchidae*) and the Kurile mouse (*Mus kurilensis*). The birds observed in the islands are much less in number than those of Hokkaido and apparently less peculiar. This is also true of reptiles and amphibians. There is a radical difference between the sub-region of islands not very far removed each other. Beyond doubt, the northern sub-group zoogeographically belongs to Kamchatka, and the southern to Hokkaido. Of land snails, *Zonitoides chishimanus* and *Karafutohelix urupensis* are the endemic species, the former being the smallest species of the land snails.

Karafuto (Saghalien).—Of about 30 species of mammals known in the island, 13 are identical with those of Amurland and these remain in the island without making their way to Hokkaido. The long-tailed mouse (*Sicista caudata*) is supposed to be the sole species in existence found nowhere else. The Schrenck's fox (*Vulpes anadylensis schrencki*) furnishes a very valuable quality of fur, and this has led to the establishment of breeding farms with imported fox.

Some additional light may be thrown upon this subject by the avifauna which is less rich, having about 150 species, a majority of which are almost or quite identical with those of the adjacent land and islands.

Reptiles and amphibians are extremely scanty, and only 6 species are known, of which *Bufo saghalinensis* and *Hynobius cristatus* are considered as endemic.

Of butterflies about 74 species and sub-

species are found in the island, most of them being representative of the form limited, in distribution, to the north of the Soya Strait, such as *Melitoea matura intermedia*, *Argynnis amathusia miyake*, *Lycæna karafutonis*, etc. The land snail, *Karafutohelix fuscina*, is common.

Hokkaido.—In mammals, the island appears to be less rich, having only about 25 species, of which more than a half are related to those of Saghalien and the continent, either as identical or allied species. Amongst them, the species common to the districts just mentioned are Pallas' ground squirrel (*Eutamias asiaticus*), Siberian ermine (*Mustella erminea kanei*), sable (*Martes zibellina*) and others, which are not found in Honshu.

Turning to birds we find an enormous number of species which are quite identical with, or closely allied to, those found in Saghalien and on the Continent. The species considered as peculiar are Yeso-ptarmigan (*Sittiparus varius*), *Dryobates leucotos subcirris*, *Lynx torquilla hokkaidi*, etc.).

With reptiles the case is different, because the number of the species which may be considered as those with southern affinities appear to exceed that of Eurasian types. Amphibians are represented by *Bufo vulgaris hokkaidoensis*, *Rana temporalis* and *Hynobius retardatus*, etc.

Passing on to the insect fauna, we find a large number of species which also inhabit Saghalien and Amurland. Of butterflies we have several species of Eurasian character. Frequently to be met with are such land snails as *Acusta gainesi*, *Eulota blakei*, *E. septentrionalis*.

Chosen (Korea).—In the Korean peninsula the fauna belongs decidedly to the Palaearctic region but with a small number of Oriental types.

Of mammals it possesses more than 50 species, of which about a half are identical with those found in China, Siberia and other adjacent districts. The species and sub-species which are considered as peculiar are numerous, comprising the Korean hare (*Lepus coreanus*), Korean wolf (*Canis lupus coreanus*), Korean red fox (*Vulpes peculiosus*), Korean badger (*Meles melanogenys*), tiger (*Felis tigris coreensis*), etc.

Of birds we are now acquainted with more than 300 species and sub-species, of which the majority are almost or quite identical with those of the Continent. Recorded from the peninsula are about 16 species of reptiles, most

of which are not discovered in Japan proper. Coming to amphibians we find many species which are known to occur on the adjacent mainland. Characteristic species are *Cacopoides tornieri*, *Rana temporaria koreana*, *Hynobius leechii*, etc. Dwelling in the peninsula is found a large number of butterflies, most of which also inhabit the immediately surrounding countries. Intermingled with them are seen such Oriental types as *Papilio protenor demetrius*, *Hestina assimilis*, etc.

Freshwater bivalves are represented by *Cristaria parvula*, *Anodonta woodiana*, etc., and the land snails by *Strobilops hirasei*, *Eulota orientalis* and others.

Japan Proper.—The majority of animals in this region are related to those of the two palaeartic sub-regions, though a small number are of an Oriental character.

Of mammals there are more than 60 species which are invariably confined to the south of Tsugaru Strait. Recently specified as "protected" is the racoon dog (*Nyctereutes viverrinus*) which, with other species of this genus, is the most typical representative of the animals characteristic of the East Asian sub-region. The birds ascertained to inhabit the islands reach an enormous number, greater majority of them being represented by forms widely distributed in China and Korea. The number of species and sub-species which appear to be peculiar are 6 in Kyushu and 17 in Honshu. One of the most notable species is the Japanese ptarmigan (*Lagopus mutus japonicus*) with habitat in the Japan Alps at the snow line. Recently specified as "protected" are some birds, which comprise, beside the Japanese ptarmigan, the cranes (*Megalornis monachus*, *Pseudogreanus vipio*, *Sarcogreanus leucogreanus*, *Anthropoides virgo*, etc.), the Japanese stork (*Ciconia ciconia boy-ciana*), black-tailed gull (*Larus crassirostris*), swans (*Cygnus cygnus*), long-tailed fowl, the Chinese magpie (*Pica pica sesicae*) and the Japanese shearwater (*Puffinus leucomelas*).

Reptiles number about 13 species, most of them being related to those of Korea and chiefly inhabiting the southern region. The endemic species are *Achalinus spinalis*, *Dinodon orientale*, *Amyda japonica*, etc. We are acquainted with about 13 species of frogs and toads which, with the exception of an Oriental type, seem to be of a Palaeartic character. The urodeles, the majority of which are considered as peculiar, are represented by *Hynobius nebulosus*, *H. stejnegeri*, *Onychodaetyus japonicus*, etc.

Most noteworthy is the giant salamander (*Megalobatrachus japonicus*) which inhabits the cool mountain streams of provinces in Honshu and Kyushu. Intermingled here are found a large number of insects which are of three different characters, Eurasian, East Asian and Oriental. The so-called alpine species inhabit the high mountain districts of central Honshu, these being represented by *Aporia hippia japonica*, *Erebia Ligea takanonis*, *Oeneis jutta japonica*, etc. The molluscs are very abundant and varied. The freshwater bivalves and land snails of the endemic species very frequently met with are *Hyllopsis schlegeri*, *Cristaria spatiosa*, *Margaritana margaritifera*, etc., and *Eulota senkenbergiana*, *E. quaesita*, *Megalophaedusa martensi*, etc.

Taiwan (Formosa).—The mammals so far discovered are more than 60 in number, while the species which appear to be peculiar to the island number 45, the majority of them being considered only varieties of the species found in the Oriental and Palaeartic regions. The species not found anywhere outside of the island are Formosa flying fox (*Pteropus formosus*), Formosa macaque (*Paradoxurus lervatus*), etc. The squamata is represented by a single ant-eater (*Manis pentadactyla*).

Of birds we find more than 330 species and sub-species, of which 33 are common to the island, China and the Philippines, and about 87 belong to peculiar forms. One of the most notable species is the Mikado pheasant (*Neocalophasis mikado*) which lives in the central and eastern mountainous parts, 6,000-9,000 feet above the sea level. More than 65 species of reptiles and amphibians are known to inhabit the island, and very frequently to be met with is *Trimeresurus gramineus*, a poisonous snake, which is of an almost uniform green colour and widely distributed in tropical districts.

The insect fauna is exceedingly rich and varied. We are acquainted with about 319 forms of butterflies, most of which are known from the tropical countries.

Of freshwater bivalves and land snails we find such species as *Corbicula maxima*, *C. fulmenea* and *Dolichelota formosensis*, *Formosana taiwanica*, *Tortaxis matsudai*, etc.

The Ryukyu (Luchu) Group.—The animal forms of this group are of two different characters, Oriental and Palaeartic, the former types considerably exceeding the latter in number. About 36 species of mammals have been recorded, the most notable being Ishigaki

great leaf-nosed bat (*Hipposideros turpis*) in the Ishigakijima sub-group and Amami hare (*Pentalagus furnessi*) in the Amami-Oshima.

Of birds the species which appear to be peculiar amount to 11 in the Sakishima, 6 in the Okinawa and 8 in the Amami-Oshima sub-group. The most notable species are Pryer's woodpecker (*Sapheopipo moguchii*), Lidth's jay (*Lalocitta lidthi*), the latter furnishing beautiful feathers for ladies' hats and now specified as "protected." The reptilian fauna is very rich, having 30 species, of which one-third is the same as those found in the Oriental region, and the rest are those not found elsewhere. About 15 species of amphibians are known, characteristic forms being *Bombina holsti*, *Rhacophorus owstoni*, *Babina subaspera*, etc. The land snails are rich, peculiar ones being *Cyclophorus hirasei*, *Japonia barbata*, *Ganesella largillierti adelinae*, and many species of *Luchuphaedusa*.

The Ogasawara (Bonin) Group.—This oceanic island group, together with Sulphur group, shows tropical features in its fauna. Most remarkable of mammals is Bonin flying fox (*Pteropus pselaphon*) which flourishes here. One of the most notable features of the fauna of this island group is the fair abundance of birds. The endemic species in the group are *Horornis cantans diphone*, Bonin-island Bulbul (*Microseclis amaurotis squamiceps*), etc., and those in the Sulphur, Sulphur-island white eye (*Zosterops palpebrosa alani*), Sulphur-island crane (*Poliolimnas cinereus brevipes*), etc. *Cryptobrepharus boutonii* is the only one representative of reptiles found in the Bonins. The endemic genera of molluscs are of *Hirasea*, *Mandarina*, *Otesia*, *Fametesta*, etc.

Marine Fauna

Japanese waters command a very rich and varied marine fauna, there being found two types of animal life, the Indo-Pacific region and northern region.

1. Northern Zone.—It extends from the shore of the Kurile group to the north of Kinkasan. Amongst the carnivorous mammals the sea-otter (*Enhydra lutris*) is confined to the north of Hokkaido, while the Stellar's sea-lion (*Eumetopias jubata*) and several seals (*Phaco vitulina*, etc.) frequent the more southern waters. The northern fur-seal (*Callorhynchus ursinus*) which is of economic importance particularly abounds in Kaihyo-to. We find three whalebone whales, such as the southern right whale (*Balaena glacialis*), Arctic right whale (*Balaena mystice-*

tus) and Californian gray whale (*Rhachianectus galucus*). Around the Kuriles, Hokkaido and Saghalien are found in immense quantities a great variety of fishes such as cods, salmon and herrings, which are of same greatest economic importance as in Norway, Scotland and other countries. Much less developed here than in the tropics are a number of echinoderms. Amongst sea-cucumbers, *Sticopus japonicus* and *Cucumaria japonica* are of great economic value in this country. In the sea ranging from the Behring Sea to the Japan Sea occurs *Paralithodes camtschatica* which attains very large size and is of great economic importance. A large number of molluscs are also known from this district, the most valuable species being *Ostrea gigas*, *Maetra sachalinensis*, *Pecten yessoensis*, *Ommastrephes sloani pacificus*, etc.

2. Middle Zone.—Most of the types characteristically Japanese belong to this zone. Some whalebone whales may be recorded which are of great economic importance. As principal species of fishes, the abundance of which distinguishes this zone from the others, may be counted *Cynias manazo*, *Hyporhamphus sajori*, *Apogon semilineatus*, *Halichoeres poecilopterus*, etc. Echinoderms are plentiful, they comprising a number of interesting species.

Amongst crustaceans, most notable is the giant crab *Macrocheira kaempferi*, which attains more than 3 meters in extent of legs. Beside we find *Tachypleus tridentatus* in the inland sea of Seto and Ariake Sea. In the depth of the Tosa, the Kli and the Sagami Seas occur three species of *Pleurotomaria* which are of great interest on account of their representing a relic of the geological period. One of the notable cephalopods is an oegopsid, *Watasenia scintillans*, which emits luminosity. It appears abundantly in Toyama Bay, about May every year. Also in the deeper parts of the Pacific side, there are found *Hyalonema*, *Euplectella*, *Rhabdocalypus* and other silicious sponges.

3. Southern Zone.—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. Of fishes we find a number of forms which are all of great economic importance, and some forms are found to extend northward up to the middle zone. We also find a large number of species of molluscs, e.g. *Terebra*, *Conus*, *Cyprea*, *Strombus*, *Tridaena Hippopus*, *Pteria* and others.

The Noted Specialists.—C. Ishikawa, D. Sci., A. Oka, D. Sci. (for Hirudinae), N. Yatsu, D. Sci., S. Hata, D. Sci., C. Sasaki, D. Sci., (Entomologist), M. Matsumura, D. Sci., (Entomologist), T. Komai, T. Kawamura, D. Sci., H. Oshima, D. Sci., (for Echinoderms), S. Uchida (Ornithologist), H. Kishida (for mammals).

Principal Societies and Publishing Organs.—Zoological Magazine (in Japanese); Annotations Zoologicae Japonensis (in foreign language) issued by Zoological Society of Japan (Tokyo); Insecta Matsumurana (Sapporo); The Magazine of Applied Zoology (in Japanese) (Tokyo); Annotations Ornithologicae Orientalis (Tokyo); Bulletin of the Bio-geographical Society of Japan issued by Bio-geographical Society of Japan (Tokyo); Japanese Journal of Zoology (Tokyo); Tori or "Birds" (in Japanese) (Tokyo); The Venus (in Japanese) by Malucological Society of Japan (Kyoto); Folia Anatomica Japonica (Tokyo); Zephyrus (in Japanese) issued by Chô-rui Dôkôkwaï (Fukuoka); Konchû or "Insects" (in Japanese) issued by Tokyo Entomological Society (Tokyo).

Flora

Owing to the peculiar topographical condition the flora of the Japanese Empire consists of several distinct groups, and at present nearly 10,000 flowering plants and ferns are known, with possibility of new addition through further study. In point of fact no small number of new genera have already been established by Japanese botanists, and of these may be mentioned *Taiwania*, Hayata (Conifer), *Chosenla*, Nakai (Salicaceae), *Hanabusaya*, Nakai (Campanulaceae), *Mitrastemon*, Makino (Rafflesiaceae), *Hakonechloa*, Makino (Gramineae), *Matsumurella*, Makino (Labiatae), etc., etc. The names of Dr. T. Makino and Dr. T. Nakai stand out prominent as regards discoverers, the latter as specialist in Korean flora having enriched it with 190 genera and some 440 species and varieties, while the former, who chiefly devoted himself to the main island, is responsible for some new genera and several hundreds of new species.

In 1929 a remarkable genera *Japanolilium* was established by Dr. T. Nakai, represented only by *J. Osense* found at Ose in Nikko. It is a small preinal weed. Another striking discovery is that of two new species belonging to family *Podostemonaceae* in Kyushu by S. Imamura. None of this family had been found in Japan up to this discovery in 1927.

Many new lichens both new to Japan and to science are enriching the lichen flora through Dr. Asahina's discoveries. Japan is rich in bamboos with over 60 species and a number of new species still coming to the light, most of them belonging to new genera which are indigenous to Japan. Merit in this direction is due to Dr. T. Makino.

So far known the flora of Japan consists of about 17,087 species classified as follows:—

Flowering plants	About	9,000	species
Ferns	"	700	"
Moss and Hepatic	"	2,000	"
Mushrooms	"	3,500	"
Lichens	"	700	"
Sea-weeds (marine algae)..	"	691	"
Fresh-water algae	"	323	"
Slime molds (Mycetozoa).	"	173	"

Speaking of some common familiar plants there grow in Japan some 130 species and varieties of violets, according to Dr. T. Nakai. About 30 species of primroses are known to grow in the alpine districts. *Primula Sieboldii* is growing wild even near Tokyo and is "protected." *P. japonica* was introduced into England as early as 1863 and was called "Queen of Primrose" by Robert Fortune.

Trees and shrubs number over 600 species. To mention those that are noted for ornament, or use, or both, there are Japanese mountain cherries growing wild everywhere, of which *Prunus serrata* var *spontanea* is most common. In high altitude are found *P. nipponica*, *P. Maximoviczii*, *P. incisa*, etc., the last mentioned growing abundantly at the foot of Mt. Fuji and flowering in May. Of conifers we have *Cryptomeria japonica* and *Chamaecyparis obtusa*, two of the most important timber and ornamental trees; then among the *Pinus* may be mentioned *P. Thunbergii* and *P. densiflora*. The *quercus* family is represented by nine important species, while of *Rhododendron* (*Azalea*) Japan boasts about 50 species with the garden variety numbering several hundreds. *R. Komiyamae* is a new addition recently found near Mt. Fuji. An interesting species belonging to this family is *Teusiophyllum Tanakae*, Maximovicz that grows on mountain rocks at some limited localities in Middle Japan; it is a dwarfish tree with scaly green leaves and white tube-shaped flowers. As regards willows our salicologists say that the final enumeration as to number of existing species should be reserved for future, but so far some sixty species have been identified.

Bamboos are counted by over 50 species in Japan proper, exclusive of numerous garden varieties.

Timber trees extant number over 100, but those that are valuable for wood do not exceed thirty species or so (Vide Chapter on Forestry)

Ornamental plants, wild or cultivated, count about one hundred, according to the list prepared by the Garden Committee of the Meiji Shrine erected in Tokyo in 1920. The list includes 34 evergreen trees, 41 deciduous trees, 7 evergreen and 9 deciduous shrubs, and 10 herbs.

Special plants were first placed under protection of law in 1920, and 137 are now on the list.

Noted Specialists:—In Systematic botany there is a long list of distinguished men, as Dr. J. Matsumura, Dr. T. Makino, Dr. Yabe (noted for his South Manchuria and North China flo-

ra), Dr. B. Hayata (for Formosan flora), Dr. T. Nakai (for Korean and Japanese flora), Dr. Y. Kudo (for Hokkaido flora), Dr. K. Miyabe (for Hokkaido and South Saghalien flora), Dr. M. Honda (for grasses), Dr. K. Okamura (specializing in marine algae), Dr. S. Okamura (in mosses and liverwort), Dr. S. Kawamura (fungi), Drs. R. Nakazawa and K. Saito (yeasts), Mr. K. Minakata (slime molds), Dr. Y. Asahina (lichens).

Pathology is represented by Drs. K. Miyabe, K. Shirai, and M. Hori; Phylogeny by Dr. S. Ikeno; Cytology and Anatomy by Dr. K. Fujii, Dr. Y. Kuwata, etc.; Physiology by Drs. K. Shibata, H. Kooriba, H. Hattori, S. Kusano.

Publishing Organs:—Publishing organs consist of the Imperial University Bulletin, the Tokyo Botanical Magazine, the Japanese Journal of Botany by Dr. Fujii, and the Journal of Japanese Botany, the last named edited by Dr. T. Makino.

CHAPTER II

OUTLINE OF JAPANESE HISTORY

ANCIENT TIMES

Mythical Period.—The "age of gods" preceding the accession of the first Emperor Jimmu Tenno is, like the corresponding period in Greek history, made up of strange tales of the gods and demi-gods. In this age flourished the Sun-Goddess, or Amaterasu O-mikami, enshrined in the Great Shrine of Ise, her brother the impetuous Susanoo-no-Mikoto to whom the Great Shrine of Izumo is dedicated, and all the host of "milliard deities."

Legendary Period.—From the accession of the first Emperor Jimmu Tenno (660 B.C.) to about the reign of Yuryaku Tenno (456-480 A.D.), the Imperial House was chiefly employed, according to the time-honored legends and traditions, in subjugating the northeastern region still held by the earlier inhabitants, namely the Ainus, and Kyushu which was probably in close touch with the ancient kingdoms in the Korean Peninsula. In the dim light of this prehistoric period move such heroic figures as Yamatodake-no-Mikoto who was sent to subjugate the regions in the north and the south, while the name of the Empress Jingo stands conspicuous as the conqueror of the hostile Korean kingdoms. Her grand counsellor, Take-nouchi-no-Sukune, is a Japanese Methuselah, being recorded to have attained the age of 300.

Introduction of Buddhism.—We begin to tread on surer ground from the reign of Kimmei Tenno when, with the introduction of Buddhism and Chinese classics through Korea, Japan gradually advanced toward civilization through contact with the more enlightened Korea, and through her with China. The arrival of this exotic religion occasioned a fierce internal discord between the rival clans of the Moriya and the Soga, and the latter, which was in favor of adopting it, came out triumphant. The Soga family assumed the real power of the country, assassinated an Emperor who was unfriendly to them, and through their encouragement and that of Prince Shotoku, Buddhism spread both in the Court and among the masses. This caused a marked rise of Japanese art, principally of a religious character, especially

in the reign of Empress Suiko (592-628 A.D.), the first female monarch in Japan. The Horyuji temple in Yamato, built more than 1300 years ago and the oldest wooden structure existing in the world, is one of the temples erected at that time. In 607 A.D. Japan first sent an embassy to China, then under the Tung dynasty. The arrogance of the Soga family invited their downfall in the reign of Tenji Tenno (661-670), who, before accession to the throne, had headed the faction that destroyed the family. The Court then recovered its supreme authority. Meanwhile Yezo (present Hokkaido) was subdued and the victorious arm was even extended to northern Manchuria. On the other hand, Japan lost the suzerainty over Korea. The reign of Kotoku Tenno (645-654), the predecessor of Tenchi, is remarkable for having thoroughly remodelled the administrative system on that of China, and introduced the Chinese custom "year name." Gemmyo Tenno (708-715), the 5th Empress, removed the seat of the Court, which had been shifting its seat from one place to another, to Nara, where for about seventy years art and culture burst into splendor seldom equalled in some respects, as may be judged from the treasures, over 3000 articles in all, kept in the storehouse of the Shoso-in Temple at Nara, and comprising the articles that were used by Shomu Tenno and presented to the temple after his death in 756. The first Japanese book extant, Kojiki, and first Japanese anthology, Manyo-shu, were the production of the Nara period. Buddhism retained its greater influence over the Court to such an extent that an infatuated Empress Koken Tenno (749-758) even contemplated elevating her favorite monk Doko to the Throne, though from this fate Japan was saved by the fearless opposition of Wake-no-Kiyomaro.

Court at Kyoto.—Established as the Imperial capital in 794 A.D. Kyoto was the centre of power and culture for about 400 years till 1192 when Yoritomo established at Kamakura the Shogun government, and reduced the position of the Imperial city to one of nominal impor-

ance. Meanwhile the actual power at the Imperial Court had passed to the ministerial family of Fujiwara which was founded by Kamatari, Tenchi Tenno's righthand man in the plot against the Soga family. Art and literature made a striking development. The Court gave itself up to the refined amusement, leaving the sterner duty of maintaining peace to warrior classes of which the Taira or Heike, and the Minamoto or Genji family came to the front. The period witnessed the invention of the "kana" scripts, an innovation of immense educational importance as it helped the spread of learning among the people, and made possible the appearance of such classics as Genji Monogatari by Murasaki Shikibu, Makuranososhi by Sei Shonagon, Yeigwa Monogatari by Akazome-emon, and others, all maids of honor. Ki-no-Tsurayuki who compiled another anthology, Kokin-shu, furnished a model of the mixed style of Chinese characters and "kana" in his classic daily Tosa-nikki. The custom of sending students to China for study had already been discontinued.

The effeminacy of the ruling class at the Court was followed by the rise of the military family of Heike which overthrew its rival the Genji and assumed the administrative authority as successors to the Fujiwara. It proved a very short ascendancy of only about 20 years, for living amidst the enervating atmosphere of Kyoto the original warlike spirit was soon sapped, and the Heike fell an easy prey to the fierce attack of the rough and rude followers of the Genji who had been watching their opportunity in the provinces. The battles fought between the rival armies near Kobe, Yushima and Dannoura, furnish romantic chapters in the history of Japan.

Period of Kamakura.—Yoritomo brought the whole of Japan under complete subjugation, not sparing even his own brother Yoshitsune who had destroyed the Heike clan. Around Kamakura grew up culture of a severer type agreeable to the simpler taste of the warrior classes. The power soon passed to the Hojo family from which came the wife of Yoritomo, and for about a century this humbler family wielded the supreme authority as Shikken, or Regents, to the boy Shoguns selected from among children of courtiers at Kyoto, and ruled the country in peace and prosperity. The era is memorable for the arrival first in 1274 and next in 1281 of the Mongol armada, which was, however, annihilated with the help of the

"divine wind" or typhoons in modern parlance.

The Imperial Court that had long been chafing under the humiliating treatment of military rulers repeatedly attempted to recover its legitimate authority, and an abortive rising in 1221 resulted in the wholesale exile of the three retired Emperors. A similar attempt by Godaigo Tenno (1319-1399) fared no better at first, but by this time the maladministration of the Hojo had very much alienated public support. Kusunoki Masashige first raised the anti-Hojo banner near Kyoto and he was followed by Nitta Yoshisada, and lastly Ashikaga Takauji. Kamakura was sacked and taken by Nitta, and the Hojo regency ceased to exist. Godaigo, who had been exiled to Oki, reascended the throne and the restoration of the Imperial power was consummated, but only for a short while. The courtiers and favorites claimed the lions share in the distribution of the vast domains hitherto held by the Hojo, and there was only a little left to be given to those generals and their followers who at the cost of their lives and blood pulled down the Hojo. Takauji read the signs of the times, raised the banner of rebellion at Kamakura and set up one of the Imperial princes as his own Emperor. For half a century Japan had two Imperial Courts, the Southern Court, which was supported by the followers of the unfortunate Godaigo, and the Northern Court backed by the Ashikaga. Kusunoki, Nitta, Kitabatake, and others who remained faithful to the Southern Court were killed in one battle after another till the rival courts were fused in 1392.

Ashikaga Shogunate.—The rule of the Ashikaga shogunate established at Kyoto was never a strong one and the powerful barons in the provinces were practically left a free hand. As regards matters of taste and refinement, however, this period made a very valuable contribution to the history of civilization in Japan. Thus it was in the time of the 8th Ashikaga Shogun Yoshimasa (1436-90) that the art of tea ceremonial, the lyric drama called "No" and other arts were originated in this country. The period is also memorable for having revived trade with China, then under the Sung dynasty, and witnessed the visit of many Japanese artists to and learned priests from the opposite shore. Japanese freebooters also ventured out in their frail craft and spread terror along the coast of Korea and China. The arrival of the first Portuguese ship in 1541, of the

Spaniards not long after, and of Francis Xavier, a Jesuit missionary in 1549 are noteworthy incidents in the history of the Empire.

For more than a century, from about the middle of the 15th century, a state of anarchy prevailed, the shogunate having completely lost its prestige. By force of arms and by crafty schemes all the ambitious barons were bent on annexing the domains of weaker neighbors. One of them, Oda Nobunaga, of Owari, succeeded in subjugating all the neighborhood, and the way to Kyoto thus cleared, he was able to advance to the Imperial capital, which must have been left in a state of utter desolation in consequence of repeated battles fought in and about it. His victorious troops conquered in the east and the west. In this expedition of territorial expansion Hideyoshi, one of his generals who had entered his service as a mere menial retainer, distinguished himself over all the veteran generals of Nobunaga. When Nobunaga was killed by one of his generals Mitsuhide in 1582, Hideyoshi came back in a hurry, revenged his lord upon the traitor in a pitched battle fought near Kyoto, and by promptly forestalling all the other generals of the unfortunate Nobunaga, made himself the master of the grand edifice nearly completed by his chief.

Nobunaga had even adopted the policy of encouragement to Christianity, chiefly to check the rampant tendency of the Buddhist priests against whom he had led a crusade. Tokugawa Iyeyasu, the lord of Mikawa, Totomi and Suruga, was an ally of Nobunaga, but with the assumption of power by Hideyoshi to the exclusion of Nobunaga's two sons, Iyeyasu adopted an attitude of neutrality, and next one of hostility when one of the two sons, for having sided with an enemy of Hideyoshi, fled to Iyeyasu. The latter took up the cause of the refugee, fought with the overwhelming host of Hideyoshi, and routed his advance army. Hideyoshi judged it wiser to win over Iyeyasu by peaceful means instead of by war, and the two houses were reconciled.

Hideyoshi brought the whole country under his sway, built a castle at Osaka, and then another at Momoyama at Fushimi, besides a magnificent mansion at Kyoto. His love of splendor and display was reflected on the art of this period, and painting, architecture and so forth developed a bold style.

Hideyoshi next turned his attention to the ambitious project of subduing China, and in 1592 the invading army landed in Korea. For

seven years, with the interruption of three intervening years, the invaders routed the Koreans and their allies the Chinese army. The expedition, however, was rendered abortive by the death of Hideyoshi in 1598.

Tokugawa Shogunate.—Iyeyasu was now the most powerful man, for Hideyoshi's son Hideyori at Osaka was still a minor. The jealousy of a number of the followers of Osaka brought about in 1600 the great battle of Sekigahara between them and Iyeyasu in which the two houses of Mori and Shimazu that sided with the former fared hard. Iyeyasu's victory further strengthened the position of the Tokugawa family, which then provoked war upon Osaka and the latter fell in 1615.

Japan enjoyed on the whole peace and prosperity during the regime of the Tokugawa Shogunate that lasted over two centuries and a half. Christianity that had been tabooed by Hideyoshi was at first tolerated, and intercourse with foreign countries was encouraged. Thus in 1610 the Spaniards who were wrecked on the coast of Japan were sent to Mexico by a Japanese ship, while in 1614 Date Masamune, the lord of Sendai, dispatched Hasekura Rokue-mon to Rome to inspect the state of affairs there. This liberal policy was soon superseded by one of prohibition owing to the rivalry between the Dutch and the Portuguese traders. The outbreak of the Christian rebellion at Amakusa (Kyushu) in 1637 was followed by a severer policy against Christianity and foreign commerce, exception being made only in favor of the Dutch and the Chinese. Japan remained secluded till the arrival of Commodore Perry's mission in 1853 to demand the opening of the country for commerce.

Learning was encouraged by the Shogunate, chiefly to check the war-like propensity of the daimyos. Indirectly it fostered historical and literary research by our scholars and it is interesting to note these researches brought home to their mind the abnormal state into which the executive power of the country had fallen and especially to the encroachment of the military classes on the sovereignty of the Court. Meanwhile the extravagance of the successive shoguns highly impaired their credit, while the arrival of foreign missions one after the other in quick succession in the early 19th century, demanding the conclusion of treaties of commerce, further tended to reveal their internal decay. Chiefly to gain time, the shogunate applied to the Court at Kyoto for permission to

open the country and thus involuntarily placed itself under the direction of the legitimate rulers. The Court then ordered the expulsion of the foreign missions. It was a highly irresponsible decision, but the Court had been long estranged from active politics and was more-over inclined to obstruct and annoy the Shogunate out of spite. It was in such peculiar circumstances that the sentiment of loyalty to the legitimate rulers became strangely associated with the anti-foreign policy, and gave rise to the "Sonnojoji" (loyalty to the Court and expulsion of foreigners) agitation, the slogan that swept over the whole country at that time. But the foreign missions would no longer accept delay, so that the senior counsellor of the Shogunate of the day, Ii-Kamon-no-Kami, signed tentative treaties in 1858, and for the resolute step he took he was assassinated by a band of the "sonno-joji" upholders. The bigoted and dangerous cause was considered sacred by the general public, and even some powerful daimyos, as Choshu and Satsuma, who had a spite against the Tokugawa from one cause or another, tried to carry out the "Joi" order to the letter, and at slight provocation or none at all killed or injured foreigners or fired upon foreign warships. The Government was in utter dismay, for the foreign representatives made on every such occasion a strong demand for reparation. These repeated troubles were too great for the impotent shogunate to settle, and at last the Shogun Keiki, the last of the illustrious line, surrendered the vicarious power of ruling the country, for he was enlightened enough to perceive the trend of the times, and thus the Imperial Court recovered its full prerogative which had been kept in abeyance for about ten centuries. This memorable event was not consummated without some bloodshed, through an armed struggle, fortunately of short duration, between a section of the misguided partisans of the Tokugawa and the Imperial adherents.

Meanwhile those young patriots who had so zealously taken up the bigoted and dangerous cause were disillusioned of their fatal error from the knowledge though scanty, which they obtained either by staying abroad a short while, as Ito, Inouye and some others of the Choshu clan did, or by some indirect means. Their attitude was completely changed, for it now was "Learn of foreigners where they are strong and remedy our defects." By the time the Shogunate had fallen the "joi" agitation had prac-

tically disappeared, in fact most of the agitators were soon converted into radical reformers.

MODERN JAPAN

The 45 years of the reign of the late Emperor Meiji will forever remain in the history of Japan as the most illustrious epoch in the development of the nation, besides supplying to the history of human progress a memorable chapter, teaching how a nation, even when placed under serious disadvantage, may, by dint of untiring diligence and patriotic endeavours and perseverance, succeed in pushing ahead the prosperity of the nation and in expanding its prestige and credit. Fifty years ago Japan was a terra incognita or at best a mere geographical name, but today she is a respected member of the great comity of nations.

The Meiji government was very fortunate in that it was guided from the outset by such able court nobles as Iwakura and Sanjo and by the young samurai of progressive ideas and burning patriotism sent by the awakened feudal clans of Satsuma, Choshu, Tosa and Saga clans that were chiefly instrumental in overthrowing the Tokugawa shogunate. Among such young samurai were Yamagata, Okubo, Kido, Saigo, Itagaki, Soejima and Goto. It was fortunate too that they had sprung from comparatively humble ranks in their respective classes, for they had no particular compunction in doing away with old traditions and ancient manners. The first thing which they advised the boy Emperor, who was only 16 when he ascended the Throne, to do was to swear an oath of five articles and to proclaim it to the nation, it running to this effect: "All governmental affairs shall be decided by public discussions; both rulers and ruled shall unite for the advancement of the national interests; all base customs of former times shall be abolished; knowledge shall be sought for far and wide." Next year (1869) the Imperial Court was removed to Tokyo.

The task which these young Councillors of State had to undertake was really herculean. First they had to reduce the internal administration to some kind of unity and order, and to this end they persuaded their feudal lords to follow the example of the Shogunate and to surrender their fiefs to the Court. The chieftains did not hesitate to comply and early in 1869 they, under joint signatures, memorializ-

ed the Court for permission to surrender their ancient trusts. All the other fiefs, for there were no less than 262 such principalities large and small throughout the land, exclusive of the Shogunate's domains, vied with each other in submitting similar memorials, so that in less than six months the whole territory was brought under the Imperial Government. No sooner was the centralization effected than grave troubles, both domestic and foreign, and these reacting upon each other, demanded the attention of the Government. The domestic troubles involved the country in a series of civil wars, as described later.

Foreign Troubles.—When the Imperial Government was restored, the news was duly conveyed to Korea with the idea of reminding the latter to send a congratulatory envoy as had been invariably done whenever a new Shogun was installed, but which courtesy had been neglected by Korea in the latter days of the Tokugawa Shogunate. While this question of Korean discourtesy was still pending the Iwakura mission started for the West in October 1871 with the object of having the one-sided Treaties of Commerce revised the following year, as expressly stated in the documents. When the mission returned in September 1873, humored at most places but sincerely advised at a few others to effect first of all a thorough internal reform before approaching the Powers to revise the treaties, Iwakura, Okubo, Kido, Ito and others that formed the mission found their colleagues fully determined to send a punitive expedition to Korea, if the returning ministers approved. The latter stoutly opposed the decision and the first serious split in the new Government was the result, Saigo, Soejima, Itagaki and other Ministers resigning office. The other foreign complications in which the new Government was involved were the expedition to Formosa in 1874 for chastising the natives who had murdered the shipwrecked fishermen of Luchu, for China had tried to disown responsibility on the ground that the island was outside her control; the protracted negotiation with Russia about the delimitation of boundary in Saghalien, resulting in the relinquishment of Japan's claim to the island in exchange for the absolute control of the Kuriles (Chishima Islands) in 1875; definite recognition by China, through President Grant's intercession, of Japan's right over Luchu which had been feudatory to the House of Shimazu (former feudal Lord of Satsuma) for

centuries but which had secretly maintained a relation of vassalage to China.

Civil Wars.—The ministerial split of 1873 soon brought two civil wars as a sequel of the Korean question. The first broke out in 1874 at Saga under the ex-Minister of Justice Eto, but was fortunately suppressed in a few weeks, but the other started in February 1877 in Kagoshima by the faithful adherents of Saigo proved a rebellion of the gravest character, for it took some seven months before the Imperial Government could subdue the rebels who, led by men that held high offices in the Imperial army, offered desperate resistance. The rebellion was the most formidable crisis which the Meiji Government had to encounter at home, for since the memorable ministerial dissension the whole country had been seething with discontent and Saigo, who was a simple-mannered soldier of strong personal magnetism, had numerous friends in many parts of the country ready to rise and take up his cause at the first opportunity. The rebellion served as an occasion for demonstrating most emphatically that the much despised son of farmers, if properly disciplined, could make as good soldiers as the young samurai who formed the bulk of Saigo's army. There occurred minor uprisings shortly before Saigo's rebellion, at Kumamoto, Akitsuki and Hagi, but they were merely explosions of those who were roused to see the time honored manners and customs ruthlessly superseded by the foreign and "barbarous" ways. The suppression of the rebellion ended in establishing on a firm basis the prestige of the Meiji Government and bringing the country into unity, but the cost paid for it was very dear, not only on account of the vast disbursements, over ¥40 millions, but in the loss of hundreds of men of uncommon ability and usefulness. The great Okubo was assassinated by a number of Saigo's adherents in the year following the subjugation of the Satsuma rebellion.

Administrative Reform and Political Agitation.—The whole energy of the Government was now bent upon pushing industries and projects for promoting general prosperity, while at the same time steps were taken for reorganizing the administrative system after the Western pattern. It is interesting to note that the popular activity at this period was chiefly political and was aimed at the speedy establishment of representative government, and equally interesting is the fact that the

movement was started by ex-civilian Ministers, such as Itagaki, Soejima and Goto, and it looked as if the Korean expeditionists had changed their tactics with the object of harassing their former colleagues in power. The agitation lasted with growing intensity till 1881 when an Imperial Edict promising the creation of a National Assembly ten years later was issued.

The opening of the Diet in 1890 occasioned between the Government and the Lower House prolonged contests that were bitter and fierce. The members returned were all serious politicians of strong conviction and staunch views who had staked all they had in promoting the cause of constitutional movement. They were most of them veterans in speech and debate, and completely out-argued cabinet ministers and their lieutenants on the platform, and out-voted them, too, for it was significant as a sign of the times that ministerial candidates were held in utter contempt by the general public and had little chance of getting into the House. When the attempts made by the bureaucrats to form their own party in the House failed, they next adopted the conciliatory policy of admitting one or another leader of a predominant party into the Cabinet but of course this paltering measure could not long keep the opposition in silence.

At last in 1898 the retiring Premier Ito (late Prince Hirobumi) took a heroic step; he recommended Okuma and Itagaki, leaders of the amalgamated Opposition, as his successors. The result was the formation of the Okuma-Itagaki Ministry in which all the portfolios, with the exception of the army and navy, were held by leading party men. It was the first though incomplete party cabinet in Japan. Unfortunately the Cabinet was short-lived, for obsessed with a sense of security from the attack of the Opposition numerically quite contemptible, the followers of Okuma and those of Itagaki quarrelled over the division of the spoils of their combined victory. At last the Itagaki contingent struck their tents and withdrew, and thus the first attempt towards party government collapsed miserably. From that time till the fall of the last bureaucratic ministry headed by Terauchi, Japanese politics was literally a game played by the bureaucrats, the Seiyu-kai and the Kensei-kai with the Genro standing by as arbiters. (For details vide Chapter on Politics).

Revision of Treaties

It took about half a century before Japan succeeded in getting revised the one-sided treaties concluded by the Tokugawa Government in 1858, containing the humiliating clause of extra-territoriality and restriction of customs duty to the very low level of 5 per cent. This grave problem demanded most strenuous efforts from both Government and people, and it must be said that the natural though ambitious aspiration exerted a salutary influence in hastening the internal improvement, especially as regard judiciary, though thirty years of untiring investigations and deliberation had to pass before Japan could complete the codification of all the important laws on a Western model with the assistance of a number of foreign experts.

Between 1882 and 1892, when the treaty was revised first of all with Great Britain, the Foreign Office changed its Minister no less than five times, not only because of the strong opposition offered by the Treaty Powers to Japan's proposals but because, in its later stage when the substance of the draft had leaked out, public opinion began to object violently to the clause concerning the mixed tribunals with foreign judges as assessors, though this clause was gradually attenuated in the Okuma draft in its application and was intended at last to cover only the Supreme Court. Still the public agitation was by no means appeased; on the contrary, led by a section of those demagogues who had long training as agitators in upholding the constitution movement, the cry against the mixed court clause grew in intensity in the House and outside of it. These stalwarts declared that Japan could not submit to the humiliating treatment Egypt and some other semi-independent countries had; they were well contented to do without such shameful revision. At the same time they argued that Japan must guard her interest reserved by the existing treaties, especially about restriction of freedom of residence and travel in the interior. They even passed a resolution to that effect in the House, the Diet having been inaugurated in the meanwhile, and it invited its dissolution. It was to the lasting credit of the late Count Mutsu that a revised treaty was signed at London in 1894, and the example set by Britain was soon followed by the United States and other countries, and Japan thus obtained a treaty for the first time on a basis of equality.

However it was not till 1911 that complete tariff autonomy was secured.

National Expansion

While Japan was bent upon the stupendous task of reorganizing her institutions on a Western model and introducing the important innovations of modern civilization, her two nearest neighbors, Korea and China, were still stubbornly wedded to their effete routine, hating to open the countries to foreign intercourse and generally despising foreign ways. They were too haughty and self-important to perceive how greedily the aggressive Powers of the West were watching them, ready to pounce at the first favorable opportunity. China was the worse sinner of the two as regards this attitude of apathy and defencelessness, for Korea, though an independent kingdom, contented herself with being a slavish imitator of her great neighbor, allowing the latter to assume the relation of a suzerain. Japan concluded a treaty of commerce with Korea in 1876, for she wanted the latter to be sufficiently strong to protect herself against foreign aggression. In Korea Japan stood for progress and China for reactionary interest; Korea herself was divided by two native rival factions which kept the country in interminable disturbances. These ceaseless troubles at last involved their two patrons in open war in 1894.

Sino-Japanese War.—Japan made short work of the enemy's resistance on land and sea, drove the Chinese troops from one position to another in Manchuria, and soon the way was open for her army to march on Peking. Another detachment, in co-operation with the fleet, reduced Weihaiwei in Shantung and moreover annihilated the once proud Northern fleet. China sued for peace, and the result was the Treaty of Shimonoseki concluded in April 1895, by which China agreed (1) to the complete independence of Korea, (2) to cede the Liaotung peninsula and littoral and (3) Formosa and the Pescadores; (4) to pay an indemnity of 200 million taels, and also to open to commerce four inland ports and the Yangtze for navigation. The 2nd clause Japan was obliged to renounce owing to the pressure brought to bear upon her by Russia, Germany and France in the interest of the "peace of the Far East," and had to console herself with the 30 million taels paid extra by China. When Japan had conclusively shown that the once dreaded "sleep-

ing lion" of China was really sickly, if not moribund, the Powers lost no time in offering their services to the humiliated China as honest brokers. True to their secret purpose, on one pretext after another, Germany established herself at Kiaochau, Russia in Manchuria, France got some lease and railway concession in the south, and even Britain to preserve the balance of power, felt obliged to demand the lease of Weihaiwei, while Japan obtained from China the pledge of non-alienation of the Province of Fukien that lies opposite Formosa to any other Power.

The Boxer Trouble.—All these successive intrusions made by the Powers on her rights and domain roused in 1899 the bitter anti-foreign agitations in China known as the Boxer Trouble. Japan in a hurry despatched the 5th Division, which formed the bulk of the allied army organized for rescuing the diplomatic and foreign communities besieged in Peking by the insurgents who killed the counsellor of the Japanese legation and the German Minister. The trouble cost China 450 million taels in indemnity payable in instalment.

Russo-Japanese War.—Meanwhile Russia had been steadily gaining influence in Korea, for her subservient court, now that China had lost prestige, began to lean upon the northern Power, leaving the special relation of Japan to the Peninsula utterly disregarded. With her basis of operation firmly established in Manchuria, Russia thought that she could treat Japan's protest with impunity, and when Japan made a conciliatory offer, Russia replied with a high-handed counter offer, so that in spite of all the conventions and memoranda exchanged for defining the relative positions of the two in Korea, the relations between them became more and more strained, especially after Russia's occupation of Manchuria subsequent to the Boxer Trouble. And so in 1904, just ten years after the Sino-Japanese war, Japan was forced to draw her sword once more to defend her very existence and preserve the peace of the Far East.

The whole nation, except perhaps a handful of pacifists, went into this war as one man, with the grim resolution to conquer or to die, for all believed implicitly that on the issue of the war depended the very existence of the nation. On the other hand, to the muzhiks the war had no meaning; they could not understand why they should have to give their lives in fighting Japan. General Kuropatkin, the unfortunate Com-

mander-in-Chief in the disastrous battle of Mukden, must have thoroughly measured the fighting strength of the Japanese army when he visited our country a few years before the outbreak of the war, but evidently he did not take into full account this vital factor in the psychology of the two warring nations. Better equipped than their foe, strongly entrenched, the Russian army was dislodged from one position after another, lost Port Arthur, though after a heroic defence lasting for about six months, was routed in the great battle of Mukden, and when the Baltic fleet, after having effected with credit the weary voyage, was literally wiped off the face of the Japan Sea by Admiral Togo in May 1905, Russia decided to give up the hopeless war. The result was the Portsmouth Treaty signed by the representatives of two hostile countries on 5th Sept. 1905 through the mediation of President Roosevelt. Russia refused to pay any indemnity, but agreed to recognize Japan's supremacy in Korea, to hand over to Japan the lease of the Liaotung Peninsula and the South Manchuria Railway with the mining and other rights pertaining to it and to cede to her the southern half of Saghalien.

Anglo-Japanese Alliance.—It was in 1902, or a little before the Russo-Japanese war, when the attention of the European Powers was directed to the Far East, that Japan and Great Britain entered into an Agreement for Alliance, the two parties mutually recognizing as well as safeguarding their own interests in China, and Britain admitting Japan's special position in Korea. In 1905 the Agreement was enlarged in scope and was replaced by a new stipulation designed to cover the maintenance of general peace in Eastern Asia and India; was further modified in 1911 and made effective till July 1921. The dual compact on the whole worked with marked success, and while it greatly strengthened the position of Japan in the Far East, it enabled Britain to concentrate her fleet at home.

Korean Annexation.—By virtue of the Portsmouth Treaty Japan proceeded to place Korea under her protection and this was followed in 1910 by the Treaty of Annexation, the year after the assassination of Prince Ito, the first Viceroy of Korea, at Harbin by a Korean fanatic.

Japan in International Politics

The two wars internationally raised the status of Japan; she was no longer obliged to ap-

peal to the magnanimity of the Powers in guarding her interests and rights. The Powers were now willing to make advances and to seek her hand. They even began to watch her movements with jealous and suspicious eyes, and for this altered attitude of the Powers toward Japan the responsibility was laid chiefly on the so-called militarists, who, flushed with the success of Japan's arms in foreign warfare, grew arrogant and too often insisted upon their way in shaping domestic policy and determining foreign relations. Be that as it may, Japan's position was now sufficiently established to warrant the Powers with special interests in the Far East in entering into agreement with her for guaranteeing the general peace in this region, for maintaining the respective situations and territorial rights of the contracting parties, safeguarding the integrity of China and upholding the principle of equal opportunity and open door in that country. It is true such a covenant with Britain was concluded first in 1902, to be afterward expanded into an offensive and defensive alliance with certain restrictions, but those with France, Russia and America were arranged after the Russo-Japanese war. At the same time the United States and the British dominions of Canada and Australia began to place obstacles in the way of free immigration of Japanese laborers and to try to subject those already residing there to unfair treatment. This has given rise to a grave problem of racial discrimination, a question that has begun to arrest the serious attention of thinkers the world over in the interest of the general peace of the whole human race and of humanity.

Death of Emperor Meiji.—On July 31, 1912, Meiji Tenno died before attaining his 60th anniversary, but it may be said that his memorable reign was brought to a fitting close. His memory will forever be held in profound veneration by the people as one of the most illustrious sovereigns that have ever ruled over the country. With the immediate accession of his son Prince Yoshihito (Emperor Taisho) to the Throne began the new era of Taisho.

The European War and Japan

When the World War broke out in 1914, it was a foregone conclusion that Japan should cast in her lot with Allies, and so in August 1914 she declared war on Germany, and a few days later treaty relations with Austria-Hun-

gary also ceased. In November the fort of Tsingtau was captured in co-operation with the British contingent. This was followed by occupation of the German possessions in the South Seas, the effective expulsion of German commerce-raiding cruisers and the despatch of a Japanese fleet to the Mediterranean to assist the Allies in their naval activities.

When the hostilities came to an end in November, 1918, with the conclusion of the Armistice, the Peace Conference was held from January to June 1919, at which Japan was represented by five delegates including Marquis Saionji, Baron Makino and Viscount Chinda. By the terms of the Peace Treaty concluded on June 28th Japan acquired rights and privileges concerning Shantung, which she pledged herself to restore to China with all its rights, only keeping to herself the economic privileges that had once been granted to Germany. By virtue of the Peace Treaty and the League of Nations Covenant Japan was given a mandate over the German South Sea territories north of the equator, including the Marshall and Caroline Islands and the Island of Yap. Later, a controversy regarding Yap arose between Japan and U.S.A. due to the latter's protest against the decisions in December 1919 of the Supreme Council with regard to the assignment of mandatory territories, but the question was at length settled in September 1921 before the opening of the Washington Conference, Japan recognizing the right of U.S.A. and other countries to land the submarine cables on the Island. Another question that commanded keen interest at the Peace Conference was that of the abolition of racial discrimination as submitted by the Japanese delegates before the League of Nations Committee, though Japan had to withdraw and reserve it for future discussion.

Siberian Expedition.—The military expedition of Japan to Siberia was originally undertaken in common accord and in co-operation with the United States in August, 1918. It was primarily intended to render assistance to the Czecho-Slovak troops who, in their homeward journey across Siberia from European Russia, found themselves in grave and pressing danger at the hands of hostile forces under German command. Great Britain, France, Italy and China also joined the expedition and sent their troops to Vladivostok. The allied forces fought their way from Vladivostok far into the region of the Amur and the Trans-Baikal Pro-

vinces to protect the railway lines which afforded the sole means of transportation of the Czecho-Slovak troops from the interior of Siberia to the port of Vladivostok.

With the termination of the Great War, England and France began to withdraw their troops from Siberia and the withdrawal of Italian and Chinese troops was also completed in 1920. In January, 1920, the United States decided to end its military undertaking in Siberia, and ordered the withdrawal of its forces. For some time thereafter, Japanese troops continued alone to carry out the duty of guarding the Trans-Siberian Railways in fulfilment of Inter-Allied arrangements and of affording facilities to the returning Czecho-Slovaks. After the departure of the latter in September 1920, Japan completed the evacuation of the Trans-Baikal and the Amur Provinces, but the protection of resident Japanese subjects in Eastern Siberia and the menace threatening the Korean frontier made it necessary for the Japanese troops to remain in North Manchuria and the southern portion of the Maritime Province up to October 25, 1922, when the last column of Japanese troops left Vladivostok and the evacuation was completed.

The affair has proved a costly one to Japan. Since August 18, 1918, when her troops first landed at Vladivostok, Japan despatched in turn 11 divisions; the number of these troops amounted in November, 1918, to about 70,000 (including non-combatants) but this was soon reduced to 26,000 by the end of that year, to be further withdrawn thereafter. The total casualties numbered about 1,475 officers and men killed and over 10,000 wounded, besides 610 who fell victims to illness. The expenditure of the military operations that spread over five years drained the national coffers of about ¥700 millions.

Occupation of Saghalien.—The occupation of the Russian Province of Saghalien by Japanese army was in reprisal for the incident of 1920 at Nikolaievsk, where more than 700 Japanese were cruelly tortured and massacred, and was, therefore, wholly different, both in nature and in origin, from the stationing of troops in the Maritime Province. The occupation was effected early in July, 1920, and lasted for nearly five years.

On the establishment of the Soviet Government of Russia conferences were held between the representatives of the two Governments with a view to finding basic principles for solv-

ing the pending problems between Japan and Russia and restoring the former diplomatic relations, first conference at Dairen in 1921, next at Changchun in 1922, and a third in Tokyo in the summer of 1923. But each time the negotiations proved futile owing to the difficulty of reaching a satisfactory settlement of the Saghalien question. The fourth and final conference between the Japanese Minister in Peking (Yoshizawa) and the Ambassador (Karahana) of the Soviet Government of Russia in Peking, that was opened in the summer of 1924, was satisfactorily concluded on January 20, 1925, and the treaty signed by the two plenipotentiaries received sanction by the Prince Regent on February 25. By the exchange of formal ratification of the treaty between the two plenipotentiaries in Peking the next day the restoration of diplomatic relations between the two countries was at last accomplished. The Japanese Army was promptly withdrawn from the occupied territory and the protracted trouble disturbing peace in this quarter of the globe was definitely settled.

Washington Conference

Japan's interest in this International Conference was far more vital than in the Peace Conference at Versailles, as it was held for the express purpose of limiting naval armament and discussing the Pacific problems with special reference to China. Japan was represented by Admiral Baron Kato, then Minister of the Navy in the Hara Cabinet, Prince Tokugawa, President of the House of Peers, Baron Shidehara, Japanese Ambassador at Washington, and Mr. Hanihara, Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The Conference clarified the relations between Japan and other countries represented at the Conference table and, in particular, went far to remove the suspicions and misunderstandings entertained abroad regarding Japan's attitude toward China.

Death of Emperor Taisho and Dawn of a New Era

His Majesty Yoshihito, the 123rd Emperor, passed away on December 25th, 1926, at the

Imperial Villa at Hayama, and on the same day Crown Prince Hirohito ascended the Throne as the 124th sovereign of the Empire. According to the traditional custom of the Imperial House the late Majesty was given the posthumous title of Taisho Tenno, while the new era named Showa was adopted for the present reign.

It was probably in conformity with the trend of the times that the two events of such supreme national importance (departure of an Emperor and accession of his successor) were officially proclaimed according to actual fact; the time-honored custom could never have allowed their occurrence outside the Imperial Palace.

Prior to this, namely, in March-September 1921, the Crown Prince made a journey to Europe to make observations and exchange courtesies with the sovereigns and rulers of European countries. It was an event unprecedented in the history of Japan, and was moreover an unqualified success in every respect. Then in November of the same year the Crown Prince was appointed Regent to undertake the conduct of State affairs in place of his Imperial father who was suffering from chronic illness and was incapacitated from attending to public duties. In the spring of 1924 the Crown Prince married Princess Naga-ko, first daughter of Prince Kuni. The Crown Prince's foreign tour was followed by that of his younger brother Prince Chichibu, 2nd Imperial son, who proceeded to England for study leaving Japan in May, 1925. He entered Oxford in October, 1926, which he had to leave on learning that his father was critically ill and returned home in January 1927. Then, in the spring of 1930 Prince Takamatsu, younger brother of Prince Chichibu, accompanied by his consort Princess Kiku-ko, made an extensive tour to Europe visiting the British Court on Imperial mission and also the Courts of other European countries, returning home in the spring of 1931 by way of America.

CHAPTER III

GEOLOGY, VOLCANOES, MINERAL SPRINGS AND EARTHQUAKES

A. GEOLOGY OF JAPAN

Geologists suggest that the islands constituting Japan proper are the summits of a great mountain system that originally formed part of the Altai and other ranges in China and that got detached later by the depression of the intervening land. The presence of great marine depressions along the external or eastern side of a fanciful festoon that stretches parallel to the Pacific coast of the Asiatic Continent seems to confirm this hypothesis. This chain of islands from Hokkaido to Taiwan (Formosa) curves towards the northwest, the concave or the Japan Sea side being called by scientists "Inner zone" or arc, and the convex or Pacific side "Outer zone" or arc. The two zones present points of marked contrast geographically and otherwise. Another interesting geological feature of Japan is that the Main Island or Honshu is divided into "North Japan" and "South Japan" by the so-called Fuji volcanic

zone that runs across its middle from the Japan Sea to the Pacific Ocean, the zone containing the great cone of Fuji and other volcanoes.

Geological Composition

The geological composition of Japan as investigated by the Government Geographical Survey is as follows:—

	Area (km.)	%
Paleozoic	75,426	16.39
Mesozoic	46,498	10.11
Tertiary	93,276	20.27
Quaternary	90,101	19.50
Igneous (older)	73,673	16.02
Igneous (younger).....	81,048	17.62
Total.....	460,022	100.00

The sedimentary formation and contemporaneous igneous rocks of Japan are tabulated below:

	Sedimentary Formations Recent Pleistocene Loam Terrace Deposits	Igneous Rocks Liparite, Andesite, Basalt
Cainozoic	Quaternary	
	Tertiary	Liparite, Andesite, Basalt.
Mesozoic	Cretaceous	Granite, Porphyrite, Gabbro, Serpentine, etc.
	Jurassic	Porphyrite.

Triassic	Rhaetic; Plant Bed of Yamanoi. Noric; Pseudomonotis Beds.	Porphyrite.
	Ladinic; Daonella Beds of Rikuzen and Tosa. Anisic-Skytic; Geratites Beds.	
Palaeozoic	Permian and Carboniferous	Granite, Diorite, Gabbro, Diabase, etc.
	Pre-Carboniferous	
	Middle and Upper divisions of the Chichibu system.	Granite, Amphibolite, Serpentine.
	Mikabu Series (Lower division of the Chichibu System), Sambagawa Series.	

The Chichibu System

As the oldest fossil-bearing strata in Japan and one existing within a few hours by railway from Tokyo, the Chichibu system was first studied by the German geologist Dr. Nauman who was in the service of the Japanese Government about 1877. It is a cradle as also the most popular field of geological researches in Japan. This hilly mass is further noted as containing various strata characteristic of the geological formation of the land.

Economic Geology of Japan

Carboniferous and similar Paleozoic strata formed in Japan are, unlike those in the West, not generally coal-bearing as they originated under the sea, though with a few exceptions. Coal-seams of economic importance exist in Japan in Tertiary formations, that is, in Kyushu, Hokkaido and the Joban (Hitachi-Iwaki) districts. Oil-fields chiefly occur in the younger Tertiary of the Inner zone, mostly in Echigo, Akita and Hokkaido. Mr. Kanehara writes that the coal-bearing series of northern Kyushu is an important representative of the Japanese Palaeogene, the fossils found being mainly of Eocene forms. Thus the Takashima coal-field has yielded *Sabal nipponica*, Kryst, also *Osmunda*, *Lastrea*, *Salvinia*, etc., the Miike coal-measure *Aturia*, *Pholadomya*, *Crassatella*, *Cardiat*, etc. One noteworthy thing is that in the coal-fields of Sasebo and Imari, economically less important than the two others mentioned, an *Anthracotherid* tooth and *Brachyodus* were discovered, these judged to be of Lower Oligocene origin. The plant and shell fossils as found in the coal-measures of Hokkaido and Karafuto are nearly identical with those of northern Kyushu. The Neogene in the Joban district consists of the Shiramizu (Miocene), the Yunagaya (Miocene) and the Shirado

(Pliocene) series, the lowest part of Shiramizu being now extensively worked for its bitumen. In the meridional and western parts of northern Honshu, the Neogene extends from Shinano and Echigo on the southwest to the northern end of Aomori through Akita. The older Neogene of this region often contains coal-seams in the lower part while the younger is often petroliferous, constituting the oil-fields of Echigo, Akita and Aomori. Then the lower Neogene found in Shizuoka prefecture is Miocene and petroliferous. In Taiwan there exists the coal-bearing Neogene in the north, while in the south it is petroliferous. In Hokkaido the Tertiary consists of the Lower, the Middle, the Upper and the Uppermost. The Lower is the coal-bearing Palaeogene and the other three range between Miocene and Pliocene or Pleistocene. The Middle Tertiary has the Poronai series in its lower part and the Kawabata series in the Upper, the Momijiyama series lying between being of a transitional formation. The Upper Tertiary is often oil-bearing, its rocks resembling those of similar formation in northern Honshu.

Minerals.—Number of species is 208 exclusive of those of organic origin. Minerals or crystals characteristic of Japan are—radial concentric aggregations of rhombohedra of arsenic; magnificent crystals of stibnite; large and beautiful crystals of galena, zinc-blende, enargite, danburite and topaz; beautiful crystals of pyrrhotite, axinite and columbite; needle forms or triangular crystals of chalcopyrite; twinned crystals of quartz; unusually large crystals of augite, andalusite, glaucophane and piedmontite; xenotime and zircon in parallel growth; zircon containing some rare earths; cordierite crystals occurring in lavas, etc.

Mineral Deposits:—These are chiefly found in the Tertiary terrain. Gold quartz and cupri-

ferous pyrite-quartz veins are common in the Tertiary liparite or andesite and their tuffs. Cupriferous pyrite deposits imbedded in the Palaeozoic schists and clayslates are of a great economic importance. Magnetite masses and hematite veins in granite, and galenablende masses or veins are found respectively in the Palaeozoic limestone and Tertiary tuffs. The coal-seams and oil-fields are as mentioned before.

B. VOLCANOES

Volcanoes number 165, of which 54 are active and consist of seven zones, those noteworthy being:—

Fuji zone that cuts across the middle of Honshu from the Japan Sea to the Pacific Ocean and continuing to the Seven Islands of Izu, Bonin Islands, Sulphur Islands and to the Mariana and Caroline Group. The zone contains Myoko-san, Togakushi-yama, Tadeshina-yama, Yatsugatake, Fuji-san, Hakone, Amagi, etc.

The Nasu chain forms the backbone of North Japan and extends further north to Hokkaido, the chain comprising Osore-zan, Ganshuzan, Nasu-san, Nantai-san (Nikko), Akagi, Haruna, Asama, etc. The other chains are the Chokai that runs parallel to the Nasu chain, the Chishima chain that extends from Hokkaido to Chishima (Kuriles) and further to Kamchatka, the Hakusan chain that contains Hakusan, Daisen, Sambeyama, etc., and the Kirishima chain which traverses the western margin of the island of Kyushu. With Kirishima as centre it extends to Unzen on the north and to the volcanic islands in the Ryukyu archipelago. For the past half century Japanese volcanoes have invariably been of the Strombolian type as exemplified in the eruption of Bandai-san (1888), Azuma-san (1893), Adataro-yama (1900), and the Torishima (1902). Asama, Yariga-take and Kirishima are known for their paroxymal,

though not destructive explosions. Also in the Kirishima chain is a complex volcano with its highest cone towering 1,592 m., which is perhaps the largest volcano in the world, its crater extending about 15 miles north and south, and 10 miles the other way.

C. HOT SPRINGS

As a redeeming feature to compensate for the presence of so many volcanoes, a large number of mineral springs, both hot and cold, are found throughout the country. Japan, in fact, occupies a very high place in the world as to number of mineral springs and especially those possessing high medical value.

Hot springs of note number about one thousand, mostly in northern and southern parts of the country, and of these those that are popular from easier access or medical quality occupy at least one quarter, as shown in the accompanying table. In composition simple and salt springs predominate, followed by sulphur springs.

Number and Kinds of Hot Springs

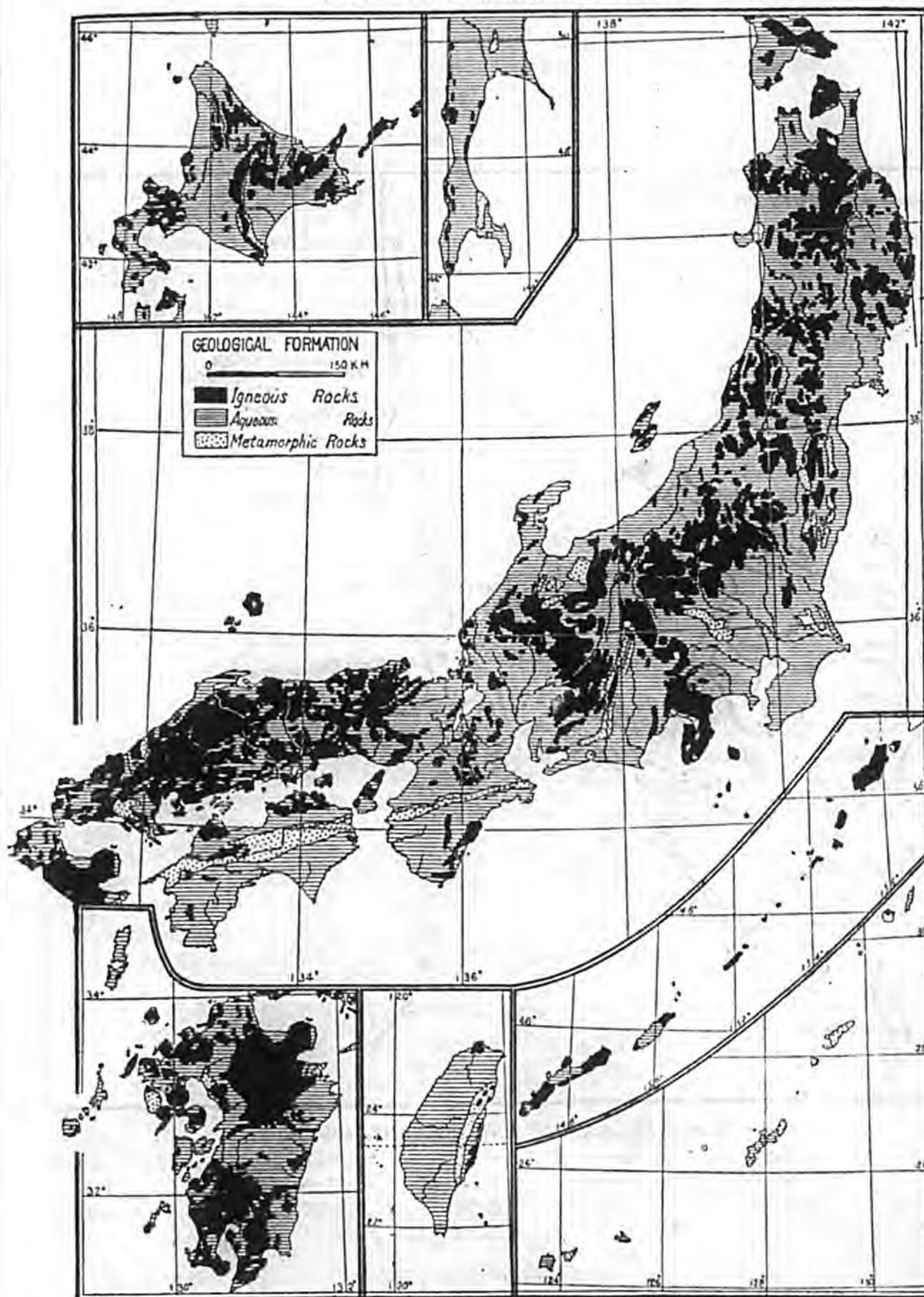
	Honshu (Mainland)	Hokkai-do	Kyushu	Total
Simple cold springs ...	134	1	20	155
Simple hot springs ...	152	3	70	225
Simple Acid springs...	17	1	3	21
"Earthy" acid springs	12	1	3	16
Alkaline acid springs...	94	20	35	149
Salt springs.....	155	5	19	179
Bitter springs.....	58	4	16	78
Iron springs.....	29	1	2	32
Sulphur springs.....	95	14	18	127
Sulphuric acid springs	10	—	1	11
Acid vitriol springs ...	5	—	—	5
Alum vitriol springs...	7	—	1	8
Springs (not examined)	82	—	17	99
Total.....	850	50	205	1,105

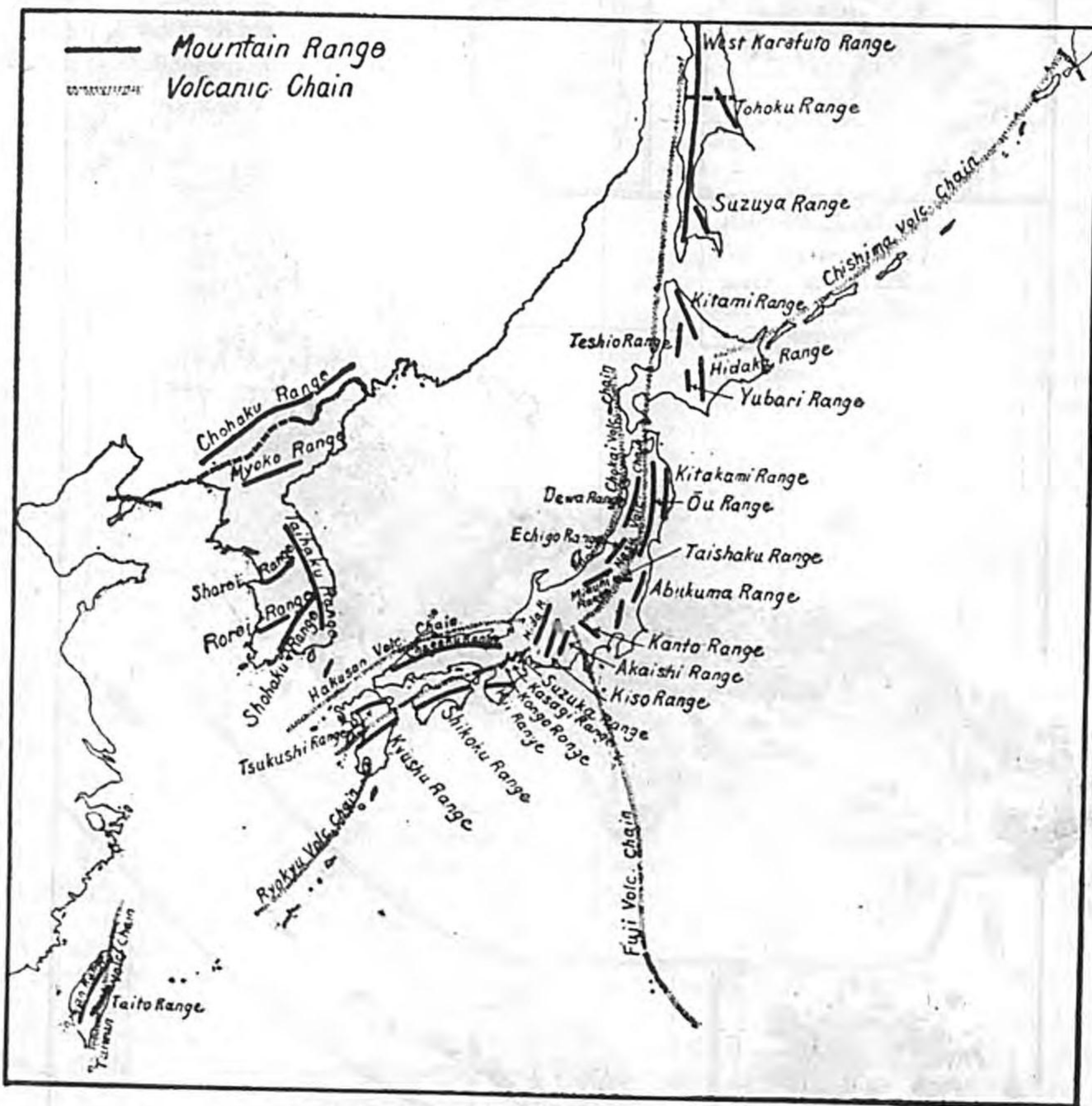
Besides, there are 68 and 27 hot-springs in Chosen (Korea) and Taiwan (Formosa) respectively.

List of Popular Hot Springs

Name	Nearest Rly. station	Character	Above sea level (ft.)	Ave. Temperature	
				C.	F.
Arima	Arima	Simple carbon-dioxated	1,287	57.8°	136.0°
Asamushi	Asamushi	Concentrated common salt (Seaside)	—	—	113.9°
Atami	Atami	Sulphated bitter	74	79.0°	174.2°
Beppu	Beppu	Simple thermals	50	53.0°	127.4°
Dogo	Dogo	Simple thermals	35	44.5°	112.1°
Hakone	Odawara	Alkaline common salt.....	1,377	—	137.3°
{ Miyanoshita	{ Ashinoyu	Sulphur	2,760	—	137.0°
Higashiyama		{ Aizu	Saline bitter	(about)850	47.5°
	{ Wakamatsu				

GEOLOGICAL FORMATION OF JAPAN





MOUNTAIN RANGES AND VOLCANIC CHAINS

Ikao	Shibukawa	Sulphated bitter	2,800	46.0°	114.8°
Ito	Atami	Simple thermals (Seaside).....	—	46.9°	116.4°
Kinosaki	Kinosaki	Earth-muriated common salt	—	—	126.1°
Kusatsu	Kusatsu	Acid vitriol.....	4,500	62.0°	143.6°
Misasa	Kurayoshi	Simple thermals	50	71.0°	159.8°
Nagaoka	Nagaoka	Simple thermals	100	48.5°	119.3°
		(about)			
Nasu	Kuroiso	Hydrogen sulphide	4,500	—	82.4°
{ Nikko	Nikko	Hydrogen sulphide	(about)4,500	—	113.9°
Yumoto					
Noboribetsu	Noboribetsu	Vitriol	660	97.0°	206.6°
Shibu	Toyono	Sulphated common salt	6,950	76.0°	168.8°
Shima	Shibukawa	Earth-muriated common salt	2,500	93.0°	199.4°
Shiobara	Nishinasuno	Alkaline	1,150	—	132.4°
Shuzenji	Shuzenji	Saline common salt	330	77.0°	170.6°
Unzen	Isahaya	Acid hydrogen sulphate	2,400	51.5°	124.7°
Wagura	Nanao	Earth-muriated common salt (Seaside)	—	—	179.2°
Yamanaka	Daishoji	Sulphated sulphur	—	—	120.2°
Yamashiro	Daishoji	Saline sulphur	—	—	149.5°
Yugawara	Yugawara	Common salt	351	8.5°	191.38°

The distinctive feature of Kusatsu, Nasu, Noboribetsu and others is that they carry free mineral acids in their alumina and iron contents, and this peculiarity is especially marked in Kusatsu and Nasu. Many springs contain small proportions of boric acid and iodine, bromine, lithium, manganese and other compounds.

Reference to the map given elsewhere will show that the regions traversed by the volcanic chains mentioned before are especially rich in these natural baths. The Izu Peninsula in the Fuji zone, has, for instance, Atami, Ito, Shuzenji, Nagaoka, Yugawara, Izusan, Kona, and other minor spas.

The three important clusters of hot-springs are Hakone-Izu, Kusatsu, and Beppu. Classi-

fied as to altitude, Kusatsu and its subsidiaries Shibu, Shima, etc. stand highest, while Atami, Asamushi, Wagura, etc. are found near the seashore.

Radio-activity of Japanese Mineral Springs

Many of those springs are of strong radio-activity, these being as below, giving both hot and cold springs. It will be seen that compared with the famous radio-active springs in Europe, Masutomi is second only to Joachimsthal and Brambach, but surpasses Gastein, Landeck, Baden-Baden, etc. Misasa is only next to Ischia in Italy and almost rivals Gastein in this respect. All these Japanese mineral springs are found in granite regions.

List of Radio-Active Springs (Emanation per liter of water in Mache's unit)

Name	Prefecture	Mache's units	Character	Temperature	
				C.	F.
Misasa	Tottori	142.14	Simple	71.0°	159.0°
Sekigane	"	33.47	Sulphur	42.0°	107.6°
Tochiomata	Niigata	25.86	Simple	39.0°	102.2°
Tokatta	Miyagi	14.58	Carbonated	56.0°	132.8°
Hot Springs					
Cold Springs					
Masutomi	Yamanashi	1,425	Earthy common salt	23.0°	73.4°
Takayama	Gifu	281	Simple	10.0°	50.0°
Ikeda	Shimane	187	Carbonated	17.0°	62.6°
Arima	Hyogo	87	—	24.0°	75.2°
Hirukawa	Gifu	60	Simple	12.0°	53.6°

D. EARTHQUAKES

Japan is a land of volcanoes and earthquakes. It owes its beautiful scenery, in many instances, to volcanic agency, while the graceful outline of the snow-capped Fujiyama with its logarithmic curves, an emblem of purity and sublimity, is a common art motif. With regard to seismic disturbances, it may be said that in Japan the telluric energy is still in the young and vigorous stage of development, and earthquakes have naturally made a profound impression upon our countrymen from the earliest times, the first record of an earthquake in authentic history dating back to the reign of the Emperor Inkyo (416 A.D.). In former times an earthquake catastrophe was believed to be a divine warning of some great event, and it is a noteworthy fact that an earthquake often served as a stimulus for raising the courage of our people in time of danger. Thus, on the occasion of the famous shocks of the first year of Ansei (1854), the year in which the treaty with Commodore Perry was concluded, the Daimyo of Tosa issued proclamations enjoining his subjects to take these disasters as censures from Heaven and to rouse themselves to guide the Empire through the difficult epoch of internal troubles and foreign complications. The attempt to guard against the effect of seismic disturbances is, as may be expected, shown in the style of various ancient Japanese buildings. Thus, a properly built "sammon" (temple gate), "kanetsukido" (bell tower), and "gojunoto" (five-storeyed pagoda) can never be overturned by an earthquake, however violent. The last-named structures are in principle exactly conformable with the modern instrument called the duplex pendulum seismograph, since they consist of the outer portion or tower, which may be likened to an inverted pendulum, and of the central suspended column which forms a pendulum whose lower end is not in contact with the ground; these two systems which are respectively in unstable and stable equilibrium, combine into a building capable of lessening the disaster of seismic shocks. On the occasion of the great Ansei earthquake (1885) of Yedo, the "gojunoto" at the Kwanno Temple in Asakusa had its "kurin" (large vertical metal rod on the top) considerably bent, but the building itself sustained no damage. Again, the curved form of a large stone "ishigaki", or dry masonry retaining wall, is a feature peculiar to the Japanese castle building not to be found in the

architecture of China, Chosen and other countries. Its origin was probably in the idea of making the stonewall earthquake-proof. The wall curve forms a parabola, and a noteworthy fact is that column whose wall is parabolic has the property of being seismically uniform in strength, namely, of possessing a stability against the earthquake which remains constant for the different sections. A stone retaining wall with a parabolic form is thus free from the defect of being weakest at the base, thereby lessening the risk of the production of the "marginal vibration", which may result in the formation of cracks along the upper edge and the sliding down of the side surface. As no cementing was used in the construction of the stone castle walls, the old Japanese civil engineers had evidently to give the "ishigaki" a form calculated to possess in itself a sufficient strength and stability.

Japanese Arc

Where great mountain ranges are arranged on chains of islands in the form of a circular arc, the convex, or outer portion, which corresponds to the tension side, is often shaken by great earthquake; while the concave, or inner portion, corresponding to the compression side, is disturbed only by occasional local shocks. This is notably the case with the Japanese arc, whose convex side is turned toward the Pacific, parallel with and off whose coast there runs the principal earthquake and Himalaya-Mediterranean lines of disturbance. Since the great shocks of 1854 the southern and western parts of Japan have not been visited by great seismic disasters and "tsunami" (tidal-waves) that very often follow them, excepting those of 1924 and 1925.

Volcanoes whether active, dormant, or extinct are located only on the Japan Sea side, or the compression portion, of the Japanese islands and along the Fuji volcanic chain, which may be regarded as a sort of crack in the arc.

Small Earthquakes

The number of earthquakes happening in different parts of Japan gives the average yearly frequency of some 1500, or of about four shocks per day. In Tokyo a sensible shock occurs on the average once every three days.

The Great Earthquake of Tokyo in 1923

In point of magnitude of damage inflicted on life and property the great earthquake of Sep-

tember 1, 1923, that overwhelmed the region bordering on the Bay of Sagami is indeed without a parallel in the world's history, the disastrous fire that burst out on the wake of the tremendous upheaval having reduced to ashes in a couple of days about one half of Tokyo, and practically the whole of Yokohama. Scientifically the 1923 earthquake belongs to what is called "world shaking earthquakes", and was recorded, for instance, at Granada, Spain, at 12h 12m 33s of September 1st, while at Sydney it began at 12h 9m 8s.

To the lasting regret for accuracy of seismological investigation it should be noted that the instruments at both the Seismological Institute of Tokyo Imperial University, and the Central Meteorological Observatory (Tokyo) broke down just at the critical moment, so that the only reliable observation carried out at Tokyo indicated that the preliminary tremor lasted about 12.1 s. and that at Tokyo it occurred at 11h 58m 46s of the central standard time, that is, the time of the 135 meridian; that taking various factors into consideration, the depth of the seismic centre must have been about 45km. and the position of the epicentre at the bottom of the northern part of Sagami Bay.

The seismographical record taken at the Central Meteorological Observatory consisted of the following elements:

Initial time	11h 58m 46s 5
Duration of preliminary tremor...	12s 1
Maximum amplitude	89mm
Intensity	disastrous
Epicentre	Northern part of Sagami Bay;
	Longitude 130°2' E.....Latitude 35°2' N.

As to the origin of this terrestrial disturbance the hypothesis offered is that, judging from the distribution of geological strata and the nature of topographical features of the affected area, it was not probably due to the powerful strain to which the earth-crust between Izu peninsula, the most elevated portion, and the Sea of Sagami, the most subsided portion, in this region, must have been subjected for a considerable period of time. The shock caused severe dislocation of the strata of the disturbed area, the shores of Sagami Bay and the west coast of Boso Peninsula marking sudden upheaval, as much as 55 metres at some places, while on the other hand the bottom of Sagami Bay fell by 20 to 400 metres. Among other noteworthy phenomena was the visit of seismic sea-waves or "tsunami" which attained the

height of 8 metres at some parts on the eastern shores of Izu Peninsula, though on the coast of Tokyo Bay the height was generally below one metre. Landslides occurred here and there, notably along the eastern shores of Izu Peninsula, one at Nebukawa, about midway between Atami and Odawara, being most disastrous, while the hilly district of Hakone was also severely damaged from this particular dislocation of earth-crust.

As is usual with most strong earthquakes the 1923 convulsion was followed by long trains of after-shocks, and it is believed by experts that some three years must elapse before the dislocated strata could settle to normal condition. Here is the record of after-shocks observed at the Central Meteorological Observatory.

Number of After-shocks (Sept. 1, 1923—Sept. 1, 1925)

Felt	about 1,600
Not felt	„ 6,100

The seat of after-shocks is naturally shifting. So far two very strong passing vibrations of this description have occurred, one on September 2, 1923, off Katsu-ura on the southern coast of Boso Peninsula and the other on January 15, 1924, in Sagami Bay. Its intensity is indicated by the following data:—

Initial time	5h 50m 25s
Duration of preliminary tremor.....	7s 6
Maximum amplitude	22mm
Whole duration	12m
Intensity	Strong
Epicentre	Sagami Bay, L. 139°2' E.....L. 35°2' N.

Now when it is remembered that a destructive shock means removal of an abnormal underground stress accumulation, it may naturally be concluded that its repetition from one and same area is a contingency of remote possibility.

The earthquakes felt in Tokyo in recent years originated chiefly in the following six zones:—

Boso peninsula and the bottom of its outside sea; the vicinity of Mt. Tsukuba and Kasumi-ga-ura lagoon; the Hakone district and vicinity; a zone off the eastern coast of the Main Island; Sagami Bay and neighbourhood; the low Musashi plain, in which Tokyo is situated, and especially the valley of the River Kinu.

The destructive effect of a strong earthquake, as that of September 1, 1923, is closely related to the geological formation, as the valley of a

river, reclaimed land, etc., the boundaries of two geological formations, and so forth suffer more than that resting on harder strata. The uptown sections of Tokyo being of diluvial formation, for instance, escaped with a comparatively slight damage in the 1923 quake.

Earthquake in Tajima

After having been immune from a severe shock for about three centuries, the province of Tajima, or more exactly a limited area of about 6 sq. m. along the River Maruyama and containing two towns, Toyo-oka and Kinasaki (a popular spa), was visited by a destructive earthquake a little before noon on 23 May, 1925. Its intensity is judged to have been roughly 1/4 of that of the 1923 catastrophe and is indicated by the following record obtained at the Kobe Marine Observatory:—

Initial time	11h 10m 02s
Duration of preliminary tremor ...	13s 3
Maximum amplitude	2mm
Whole duration	18m 25
Intensity	moderate
Epicentre.....	about 20 km. north to Tsuiyama Bay, L.134°50'5 E.—L. 35°38'7 N.

Seismic Record in Japan

More disastrous earthquakes recorded in the pre-Tokugawa period were:

- 684 A.D. An area of about 3 sq. miles in Tosa subsided and was covered by seawater.
- 869 .. Earthquake with tidal waves visited Mutsu and thousands of people were killed.
- 1361 .. Earthquakes in districts round about Kyoto.
- 1498 .. Tokaido was visited by a severe earthquake, causing death of over 20,000 persons. Hamana lagoon (Maizaka station, Tokaido Railway, formerly inland lake) was formed.
- 1596 .. Bungo (Kyushu) was visited by a severe earthquake and 700 persons killed.
- 1596 .. Districts round about Kyoto was shaken and 2,000 persons killed.

The principal calamities that have occurred since are:—

	Houses destroyed	No. of deaths
1605, Jan. 31 Tokaido & Shikoku (Pacific Coast) (with tidal waves)	—	5,000

1611, Sept. 27 Aizu in Iwashiro.....	—	3,700
1611, Dec. 2 Hokkaido and Sanriku district (Pacific coast) (with tidal waves)	—	5,000
1633, Mar. 1 Odawara	—	150
1649, July 29 Yedo (Tokyo)	— several hundreds	
1662, June 16 Places about Kyoto...	5,500	500
1666, Feb. 1 Takata in Echigo ...	—	1,500
1694, June 19 Noshiroin Ugo	2,760	390
1703, Dec. 31 Places about Yedo (Tokyo)	20,162	5,233
1707, Oct. 28 Pacific coast of Tokaido, Kyushu and Shikoku (with tidal waves)	29,000	4,900
1751, May 20 Takata in Echigo ...	6,088	2,000
1711, June 24 Ishigaki-jima (with tidal waves)	—	9,400
1766, Mar. 8 Hirosaki.....	7,192	1,335
1792, May 21 Hizen, Higo and vicinity (with tidal waves)	12,000	15,200
1804, July 10 Kisakata	5,500	333
1828, Dec. 18 Sanjo in Echigo	9,808	1,443
1830, Aug. 19 Kyoto	—	151
1847, May 8 Shinano and Echigo..	34,000	12,000
1854, July 9 Yamato, Iga and Ise	5,000	1,352
1854, Dec. 23 Tokaido and Shikoku (with tidal waves) ...	60,000	3,000
1855, Nov. 11 Tokyo.....	50,000	6,757
1858, Apr. 9 Northern Hida.....	709	203
1862, June 6 Tainan, Kagi (Taiwan)	— about 1,000	
1872, Mar. 14 Hamada in Iwami ...	50,000	600
1891, Oct. 28 Mino and Owari.....	142,177	7,273
1894, Oct. 22 Shonai in Yamagata	6,006	726
1896, June 15 Sanriku district (with tidal waves)	106,170	27,122
1896, Aug. 31 Semboku in Akita ...	5,911	206
1904, Nov. 6 Toroku, Kagi (Taiwan)	400	148
1906, Mar. 17 Kagi (Taiwan).....	6,769	1,258
1909, Aug. 14 Omi.....	976	41
1914, Mar. 15 Akita	640	90
1923, Sept. 1 Sagami Bay (epicentre), Tokyo, Yokohama and outlying districts	576,262	99,331
1924, Jan. 15 Sagami	—	14
1925, May 23 Northern part of Tajima	3,300	470
1927, Mar. 7 N.-W. part of Tango	15,413	3,020
1930, Nov. 26 Northern part of Izu	—	260

1931, Sept. 21 Western part of Saitama prefecture	—	16
1933, Mar. 3 Sanriku district (with tidal wave)	—	3,010

Seismic Zones

Ten seismic zones along the weak lines on the earth's crust are recognized by seismologists, the most noteworthy being those running parallel to the Pacific coast. Earthquakes occurring in these zones are generally of destructive world-shaking character. Japan that lies along one of these zones has her own subsidiary belts or zones as shown in the accompanying map.

Lesson from the 1923 Earthquake

The exhaustive researches of our seismologists coupled by the extensive surveying carried out by the Military and Naval surveying departments have done much towards throwing light upon the mysterious subterranean working of the earth's crust incidental to seismic activity and towards placing this infant science on definite system. The researches and surveying combined have made it clear that at the seat of the epicentre of the 1923 quake, i.e. the bottom of the Bay of Sagami, a tremendous fault occurred, resulting in an enormous depression on one part and an equally extensive upheaval on the other, and that similar extraordinary topographical changes were witnessed in the Kwanto block itself. It has also been ascertained that for two preceding years (1921-'22) the land adjoining the seat of the disturbance was undergoing secular subsidence and slight elevation, all these indicating the accumulation of a gigantic subterranean stress for many years in this particular region. Dr. Imamura's careful researches on the connection between seismic activity and secular changes of land are highly valuable as they throw important light on the obscure subject of prediction. The researches have enabled him to trace the relation between the destructive earthquake that visited the Kwanto district in 1703, and which was seismologically of similar character to that of 1923, and the topographical feature of the region. With the exception of after-shocks that disturbed it for two or three years after, but none severe, seismic quiescence with practical absence of change in land-level prevailed in the Kwanto district for 150 years. The next 70 years was a period of local shocks, the activity culminating in the memorable oc-

currence of 1923 with a number of years of settling movements to follow.

Seismic Dormancy in the Region around Tokyo

Dr. Imamura's interesting investigation for the district is carried much longer, in fact over the past 2000 years, by aid of authentic chronicles and traditions and especially by observing the holes of the boring bivalve called Lithophaga nasuta left on the elevated cliffs on the Pacific beach of the Boso Peninsula. It can only be stated here that a result of his study he ventures an explanation that in that long period the Kwanto district must have had four cycles of destructive earthquakes with accompanying crustal movements, and that the district will probably be free for a century or more hereafter from severe seismic dislocations. He writes that the shocks felt in Tokyo during the four months following the great earthquake were 1044 while the record for the four years 1924-27 were respectively 154, 68, and 65 as against the yearly mean frequency of 115 during the period from 1888 to 1921, this suggesting that the Kwanto region is now approaching the dormant state of seismic activity. It should be remembered that in 1905 the Doctor boldly announced that his historical and statistical study of destructive earthquakes in Tokyo in particular and Japan in general had suggested to him a possibility of Tokyo being visited by destructive quake in a near future and that unless the fire-prevention system be taken by a terrible disaster with a general conflagration killing 100,000 or more lives. This bold hypothesis caused something like a sensation not only among laymen but even among specialists all of whom joined in severely denouncing him as a mischievous monomaniac given to indulging in absurd and even dangerous fancy. Dr. Imamura will long be remembered as a scientific martyr in association with the Kwanto earthquake of 1923. It is of special significance that on the occasion of the catastrophe Dr. Omori, his senior, who had discredited his warning, was attending a scientific congress in Australia, and that he died soon after reaching home from the illness he had been suffering.

Seismic Prediction and Seismic Activity in the Kyoto-Osaka Region

Although the problem of earthquake prediction is still obscure, Japanese specialists

think that its solution will not be difficult. The name of Dr. Omori will long be remembered by seismologists at large for having predicted, as a result of the careful investigations of what he called the seismic zones of the Pacific coast of America and of Italy, the Valparaiso quake of 1906 and that of Messina-Reggio of 1908 and of Avezzano of 1915. Dr. Omori's investigation was chiefly devoted to places of occurrences, but it has been carried to greater scientific accuracy by two seismologists of the Research Institute of Tokyo Imperial University, Dr. Imamura and Prof. Ishimoto. In other words, by studying the space distribution of past earthquakes on one hand and the geological formation and topographical features of a given district on the other they are trying to elaborate a formula that serves to indicate a possible seismic visitation to it.

An extensive area including the southern part of Shikoku and the peninsula of Kii has been selected by Dr. Imamura as a region demanding his vigilant watch, for it was fairly well ascertained that this area had recurring seismic activity during the last 600 years with a period of 100-150 years, the last culmination occurring in 1854. The fact that the submarine basin lying between Wakayama, Kii, and Awaji Island has shown seismic activity in recent years and that the region is undergoing tilting motion similar to that which overtook the Kwanto block previous to the catastrophe of 1923 must at least be interpreted as an ominous phenomenon portending a possible calamitous visitation as that in 1923. The researches for the area, heretofore undertaken almost single-handed by Dr. Imamura and therefore necessarily imperfect, will be conducted systematically and with greater accuracy when all the observation stations mentioned elsewhere begin to function.

The Earthquake Research Machinery

The Imperial Earthquake Investigation Commission ceased to exist in 1925 after 30 years' untiring labors to investigate this least-understood though the most dreadful malady inherent to Mother Earth. The Commission has indeed bequeathed most important seismic literature ever known, it consisting of 100 proceedings in Japanese, 25 in European languages and 11 memoirs also in European, and these will stand as a lasting monument to perpetuate the memory of the Commission. To keep up the task undertaken by the Commission the Earth-

quake Research Institute was created the same year as affiliated to the Tokyo Imperial University, though on a smaller scale than the one abolished. The Institute will specially cover both sides of the Kii channel as its field of work, and its stations will be equipped with the Ishimoto clinograph and the Imamura ironometer. Though a simple instrument costing only 600 yen the clinograph is said to be highly useful, for it can be easily operated even by an amateur and yet gives a very accurate register of minute land vibrations. The research work of the Central Meteorological Observatory has also been very much enlarged, chiefly with the object of establishing a network of observation stations throughout the country. Lastly there is Dr. Imamura's private effort in similar direction with the support of some public-spirited capitalists, and three stations are to be established by Dr. Imamura in the Kwanto district.

In short the public have lately begun to show keen interest in seismological studies, and quite a number of young scientists well equipped in the knowledge necessary for this special investigation have joined the hitherto rather thin rank of experts. Evidently Japan will not suffer in future from lack of trained seismologists.

Loss of Life and Property

Dr. Imamura's data on seismic casualties in Japan are:—loss of one life per eleven houses collapsed when an earthquake is free from a consequential fire, this ratio to increase three or four times when a disastrous fire follows, as in the case of the Kwanto catastrophe of September 1, 1923. The houses collapsed in Tokyo on that occasion probably amounted to 10,000, so that according to the formula the loss of life may not have exceeded 1,000, but the actual number returned was about 100,000. For this excessive fatality the horrible fire caused by a dreadful tornado was chiefly responsible. Dr. Imamura ventures to say that the horrible disaster of September 1923 should more properly be considered as conflagrational rather than seismic. In the great earthquake of San Francisco in 1906 the damage and casualties caused were also largely due to the fire that followed the quake.

Dr. Hikokichi Honda, Chief of the Seismological Section in the Central Meteorological Observatory (Tokyo), says the earth is divided into two great seismic belts, i.e. one that start-

ing in the southern Pacific in the neighborhood of Australia runs up the coast of China passing through the Philippines and then traversing through Japan runs to the Aleutian Islands whence it goes down along the western coast of American Continent to Chile; the other starts in the Mediterranean and passing through Italy and Central Asia connects with its sister belt in the Philippines. In these two belts have occurred the most of large earthquakes in the past.

The number of earthquakes in Japan has shown a slight decrease in recent years, but this does not infer that seismic disturbances will not so frequently occur in the future. It is absolutely impossible to forecast the intervals between one large earthquake and another similar occurrence, according to Dr. Honda. There have been cases where large seismic disturbance has occurred once every half a century, but this rule is not binding and numerous examples may be cited where large earthquakes occurred irregularly. In 1932 the number of earthquakes perceptible to human bodies that occurred in Japan was 1,245, this making an average of 3.4 earthquakes per day. The figure for the previous year (1931) was 1,740, which was, however, far less than that of 1930 when altogether 5,774 shocks were felt, making an average of 14.8 per day. In 1923 when the great earthquake occurred in Tokyo, Yokohama and outlying districts on September 1, the number of seismic shocks was 48 for the first eight months (January to August) counting only those felt by human bodies, but the shocks felt during the remainder of the year numbered as many as 1,326 making a total of 1,374 for that year.

For many years there has been international cooperation in the study of seismology. In Japan there are at present 120 local meteorological stations or observatories in different parts of the country where seismological instruments (seismographs) are installed and daily records are compiled for study and researches at the Central Meteorological Observatory. The records embodying the result of such study and researches are published and sent out to the leading seismological observatories abroad at regular intervals.

The number of comparatively strong earthquakes which were within human sensibility and which occurred in the last few years was 47 in 1929, 56 in 1930, 74 in 1931 and 39 in 1932. Seven great shocks occurred in the past

ten years, the largest being the memorable great earthquake in the Kwanto district of September 1923, which was responsible for a large number of fatalities amounting to 99,330 in Tokyo, Yokohama and elsewhere. The severe earthquake of Sagami that occurred in January 1924 took 470 lives; the earthquake in North Tango of March 1927 took 3,020 lives; the earthquake in Izu of September 1930 took 260 lives; 16 lives were lost in the severe shock that occurred in Saitama prefecture in September 1931. Lastly the disastrous seismic disturbance accompanied by tidal wave that occurred on March 1933 victimized 3,010 souls in the Sanriku district.

Researches and surveying conducted during the past ten years have made it clear that at the centre of the epicentre of the 1923 earthquake, i.e. in the Bay of Sagami, a tremendous fault occurred resulting in an enormous depression on one part and an equally extensive upheaval on the other, and that similar extraordinary topographical changes were witnessed in the Kwanto block itself. It has been ascertained that during the two years previous to the great Kwanto earthquake of 1923 the land adjoining the seat of disturbance was undergoing secular subsidence and slight elevation, all these indicating the accumulation of a gigantic subterranean stress for many years in that region. With the exception of after-shocks that disturbed the country after the destructive earthquake of 1703 a comparative seismic quiescence prevailed in the Kwanto district for nearly 150 years. The following 70 years was a period of local shocks, the activity culminating in the memorable occurrence of 1923.

The number of earthquakes which occurred in different parts of Japan proper after the great earthquake of September 1, 1923, up to the end of July 1933 is shown in the following statistics based on the reports of the Central Meteorological Observatory:—

	No. of earthquakes	Daily average
1923 (after Sept. 1)	1,968	7.8
" (for the whole year).....	2,786	16.1
1924	1,200	3.3
1925	1,886	5.2
1926	1,272	3.5
1927	2,069	7.4
1928	1,450	4.0
1929	1,443	4.0
1930	5,774	15.8
1931	1,740	4.8
1932	1,245	3.4
1933 (Up to July 31)	980	4.6

As stated, the relatively large number for 1923 is due to the frequent occurrence of after-shocks that followed the great earthquake of September 1; again the large number of shocks in 1930 is accounted for by the frequent occurrence of many minor shocks in the offing of Shiofuki Point, Izu Peninsula, between March and May that year and the frequent occurrence of shocks before and after the severe earthquake at northern Izu on November 26 same year.

The following table, also based on the investigation of the Central Meteorological Observatory, shows the number of earthquakes felt by

human body that occurred in Tokyo and vicinity in the past twenty-two years (from 1911 to the end of July 1933):—

1912	119	1924	203
1913	95	1925	66
1914	86	1926	62
1915	184	1927	56
1916	122	1928	65
1917	111	1929	47
1918	110	1930	56
1919	100	1931	74
1920	68	1932	39
1921	30	1933 (Up to July 31)	17
1922	42		
1923	1,374		
(Up to Aug. 31—	48)		
(After Sept. 1—	1,326)		

CHAPTER IV

POPULATION AND EMIGRATION

POPULATION

The total population in Japan proper, as enumerated in the third quinquennial census taken on Oct. 1, 1930, stands at 64,450,005 as against 59,736,822 returned in the second census of Oct. 1, 1925, showing an increase of 4,713,183. The rate of increase in the five years was 7.9 per cent, much higher than 6.7 per cent of the previous five-year period (1920-1924), corresponding to the average annual increase of 942,637 or 15.3% per 1,000 population as against 754,754 or 13.4% per 1,000 population of the previous period. Again, the increase in the ten years, 1920 to 1930, was 8,486,952 or 15.2 per

cent, this corresponding to the average annual increase of 14.16% per 1,000 population.

Of all countries where a census was taken within the last ten years, Japan has the largest population with the exception of India (351,450,689 pop.), Russia (about 147,013,600 pop.) and the United States (about 136,968,968 pop.), being closely followed by Germany with a population of 62,568,455 according to the latest report. In the rate of average annual increase, however, Japan beats all the principal countries of Europe and America as shown in the following statistics:—

	Year	1925 census	1930 census	Increase	Average annual increase per 1,000 population
Japan.....	1920—25	55,963,053	59,736,822	3,773,769	13.14
(Japan proper only)	1925—30	59,736,822	64,450,005	4,713,183	15.30
	1920—30	55,963,053	64,450,005	8,486,952	14.16
England	1921—31	42,769,000	46,037,000	1,937,800	4.55
U. S. A.	1920—30	105,710,000	122,775,046	17,065,046	14.20
Germany	1919—25	59,175,997	62,568,455	3,393,458	9.90
France	1921—26	38,798,000	41,834,923	3,036,923	7.71
Italy	1921—31	38,711,000	43,368,000	4,657,000	6.60

Population of the Entire Realm.—The population of the three territories Chosen, Taiwan and Karafuto is given as 21,058,305, 4,592,537 and 295,196 respectively. Besides, the figures for Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Mandate Islands are respectively returned as 1,328,011 and 69,626. Adding these to the figure for Japan proper (64,450,005) the total comes up to 90,396,043, an increase of 6,939,114 (8.3%) on the figure of the 1925 census which put the total at 83,456,929. The increase in the quinquennium was 4,713,183 in Japan proper, 1,535,360 in Chosen, 599,129 in Taiwan and 91,442 in Karafuto. In the rate of increase, however, Karafuto comes first with 44.9 per cent, being followed by 15 per cent for Taiwan and 7.9 per cent for both Japan proper and Chosen. The latest statistics covering the entire realm are shown below:—

	Area sq. km.	Population	Population per 1 sq. km.
Japan proper ... (Honshu)	382,073.76	64,450,005	169

Shikoku	18,735.88	3,309,634	176
Kyushu.....	42,093.63	9,068,967	216
Hokkaido.....	88,656.13	2,812,335	32
Chosen	220,740.72	21,058,305	95
Taiwan.....	35,793.55	4,592,537	128
Karafuto	36,089.69	295,196	8
Total.....	674,877.72	90,396,043	134
Men	—	45,675,205	—
Women.....	—	44,720,502	—
(Kwantung leased territory...)	3,724.62	1,328,011	355)
(Pacific mandate islands...)	2,148.80	69,626	32)

Density of Population.—The average density of population in the Empire is 134 per square kilometre, while that of Japan proper is 169 which makes Japan one of the most densely populated lands in the world, coming next only to such industrial countries of Europe as Belgium, Holland and Great Britain. The density is the greatest in the Kwanto plain including the cities of Tokyo and Yokohama, followed by the Osaka plain and Kyoto basin, the Pacific

coast of Central Honshu, and north-western Kyushu, southern Chosen and northern Taiwan. North-eastern Hokkaido and Karafuto are less inhabited. The density for Japan, as returned at 169 on the latest census, is a gain of 13 persons on the figure of the 1925 census which returned 156 persons for every square kilometre, and a gain of 23 persons on a similar figure of the 1920 census.

Sex Ratio.—The male population is computed at 45,675,205 against 44,720,502 females, the former outnumbering the latter by 954,703. The ratio stands at 102.1 males to every 100 females as against 102.3 to 100 of the 1925 census and 100.4 to 100 of the 1920 census. Divided into Japan proper and territories, the ratio stands at 101 males for Japan proper, 104.6 males for Chosen, 105.1 males for Taiwan, 133.1 males for Karafuto, 155.9 for Kwantung leased territory and 119.7 for Pacific mandate islands to every 100 females, the figures for males showing slight decreases compared with the previous return, except in the Pacific mandate islands. The comparative figures for the past 10 years for Japan proper are shown below:—

	Men	Women	Male population per 100 females
1920	28,044,185	27,918,868	100.4
1925	30,013,109	29,723,713	101.0
1930	32,390,155	32,058,850	101.0

Distribution of Population.—Of 64,450,005 population returned for Japan proper in the last census (1930), 109 cities contributed 15,444,300, forming 24 per cent of the total population, the remainder 49,005,705 representing the population of the suburban districts. Compared with similar figures of the 1925 census, the figures for 1930 show a gain of 1,733,000 or 12.6% in the urban population and of 2,890,000 or 6.5% in the suburban population. Again, compared with the figures of the 1920 census, the latest figures show an increase of 3,175,000 or 25.9% in the former and of 5,312,000 or 12.2% in the latter. Although the rate of the natural increase of the population is higher in the suburban districts than in the urban districts, this glaring disparity in the quinquennial rate of increase between the urban and suburban population, the former nearly doubling the rate of the latter, attests to the concentration of population in great cities and towns.

	1920	1925	1930	Increase on	
				1920	1925
Urban population ...	12,269,210	13,711,120	15,442,330	3,175,000	1,733,000
Suburban population	43,693,843	46,025,702	49,005,705	5,312,000	2,890,000

Urban Population.—Of the 109 cities in Japan proper, 28 cities returned a population of over 100,000 each, Osaka taking the lead with 2,453,573 followed by Tokyo with 2,070,913, Nagoya with 907,404, Kobe with 787,616, Kyoto with 765,142 and Yokohama with 620,306. Then comes Hiroshima with a population of 270,417, being followed by Fukuoka, Nagasaki, Hakodate, Kure, Sendai, Sapporo, Yawata, Kumamoto, Kanazawa, Otaru, Okayama, Kagoshima and others in the named order. The above 28 cities, each containing a population of not less than 100,000, returned a population of 11,030,724, the figure forming 17.2 per cent of the whole population of the country (Japan proper) as against 12.1 and 14.6 per cent of the 1920 and 1925 returns respectively. The fast increase of population in large cities and towns, which testifies to the concentration of population in urban districts as stated before, is common with almost all countries. Latest returns taken in the principal countries of Europe and America puts the ratio of the population in large cities (containing over 100,000 population) to the total population at 38.9 per cent for England (1921 census), 29.4 per cent in Germany (1925 census), 25.9 per cent in the United States (1920 census), 15.5 per cent for France (1926 census) and 13.8 per cent in Italy (1921 census). Japan thus coming between the United States and France as shown in the following statistics:

	No. of Cities	Population	Ratio to 1,000 Population (total pop.)
Japan	16	6,753,598	121
(Japan Proper)	21	8,741,237	146
England ...	28	11,030,724	173
U. S. A. ...	50	16,621,703	389
Germany... ..	68	27,429,326	259
France ...	47	18,332,239	294
Italy	17	6,310,811	155
	18	5,352,041	138

Normal Growth.—Calculating the excess of births over deaths, and of emigration over immigration, Japan's yearly increase of population during the five years (1920-1924) was as follows per 1,000 population:—

	Birthrate	Deathrate	Excess Emigration	Rate of increase
1920.....	36.2	25.4	0.1	10.7
1921.....	35.1	22.7	0.4	12.0

1922.....	34.2	22.3	—	11.9
1923.....	34.9	22.8	0.3	12.5
1924.....	33.8	21.2	0.1	11.9
Average ..	34.1	22.2	0.3	11.9

Thus the yearly increase per 1,000 inhabitants stands at 11.9 so that it may be concluded that Japan's population multiplies at the rate of 1.2% per annum. Based on the above data the population returned for 1925 will be doubled in about 40 years. Meanwhile the increase per decade is estimated as follows:—

1925	59,736,822	1955	85,325,000
1935	67,275,000	1965	108,821,000
1945	75,758,000		

Japan's position in birthrate and deathrate compares with the Western countries as follows:—

	Deathrate per 1,000 people			
	1871-1880	1881-1890	1891-1900	1901-1910
Japan	25.1	28.1	29.8	32.9
Great Britain ...	25.5	32.5	30.0	27.2
Germany	39.1	36.8	36.1	33.4
France	25.4	23.9	22.1	20.7

	Birthrate per 1,000 people			
	1871-1880	1881-1890	1891-1900	1901-1910
Japan	19.6	20.8	20.5	23.5
Great Britain ...	21.5	19.2	18.4	15.8
Germany	27.1	25.1	22.2	18.7
France	23.7	22.1	22.1	10.4

Thus Japan is one of those countries with the heaviest rate both in birth and death, and is, in short, a country with excessive racial growth though not credible in quality. Analytical examination of deaths shows that diseases claim 85%, senility 6%, unnatural deaths 6% and unknown causes 3%.

The natural increase of population (for Japan proper) in 1932 is returned as 1,007,868, the rate of increase being 15.20 per 1,000 souls, or 115 per hour, according to the official returns recently announced. Compared with the preceding year's returns the figure shows an increase of 146,334. The number of births was 2,182,743, an increase of 80,737, the rate per 1,000 souls standing at 32.99.

The similar figure for deaths was 1,174,875, a decrease of 165,597 as against previous year, the rate per 1,000 souls being 17.72.

The rate of increase in recent years is, however, on the decline as shown below:—

Year	Births	Deaths	Increase
1927	2,050,364	1,209,313	841,051
1928	2,135,271	1,261,228	874,043
1929	2,077,026	1,261,228	815,978
1930	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234
1931	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893
1932	2,182,743	1,174,875	1,007,868

POPULATION IN JAPAN PROPER
Returns of "Legal" Population

End of Year	Males	Females	Total	Annual incr. per 1,000 pop.		Male per 100 females
				No.	Ratio	
1924	30,860,032	30,221,948	61,081,954	824,023	13.67	102.11
1925	31,140,278	30,704,411	62,044,649	962,695	15.76	102.08
1926	31,864,858	31,208,987	63,073,146	1,028,497	16.58	102.10
1927	32,328,509	31,676,914	64,004,721	931,575	14.77	102.06
1928	32,819,594	32,170,845	64,989,736	985,015	15.39	102.02
1929	33,271,633	32,620,469	65,891,399	901,663	13.87	102.00
1930	33,776,988	33,115,898	66,892,183	1,000,784	15.19	102.00
1931	34,247,047	33,591,234	67,837,577	945,394	14.13	101.95

Note.—Where the total disagrees with its components it is due to people of unknown sexes being included in it.

Population by Age and Sex				
Age	Real number		Total	Ratio per 1,000 population
	Males	Females		
0-4 ...	4,160,479	4,104,104	8,264,583	138.4
5-9 ...	3,491,171	3,433,261	6,924,432	115.9
10-14 ...	9,410,991	3,324,039	6,735,030	112.8
15-19 ...	2,388,370	2,896,907	5,885,277	98.5
20-24 ...	2,574,799	2,485,728	5,060,527	84.7
25-29 ...	2,256,502	2,136,969	4,393,471	73.6
30-34 ...	1,920,177	1,795,910	3,716,087	62.2
35-39 ...	1,768,538	1,680,839	3,449,377	57.4
40-44 ...	1,624,224	1,597,541	3,221,765	53.9
45-49 ...	1,539,488	1,515,661	3,055,149	51.1
50-54 ...	1,223,831	1,227,072	2,450,903	41.0
55-59 ...	981,235	1,009,582	1,990,817	23.3
60-64 ...	754,000	814,341	1,568,341	36.3
65-69 ...	601,475	692,865	1,294,340	21.6

Based on the result of the 2nd census taken October 1, 1925.

70-74 ...	401,555	515,625	919,180	15.4	Over 100.	48	139	187	0.0
75-79 ...	213,632	309,382	523,014	8.8	Unknown	—	—	—	—
80-84 ...	79,096	136,738	215,834	3.6	Total	30,013,109	29,723,713	59,736,822	1,000.0
85-89 ...	17,585	36,653	54,238	0.9	The married and unmarried population in Japan proper was first compiled in 1886, the quinquennial figures given below:—				
90-94 ...	3,515	9,209	12,724	0.2					
95-99 ...	398	1,148	1,546	0.0					

Dec.	Married			Unmarried		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1898.....	7,979,858	7,979,858	15,959,716	14,093,234	13,709,665	27,802,899
1903.....	8,229,152	8,229,152	16,458,304	15,372,488	14,902,084	30,274,572
1908.....	8,583,168	8,583,168	17,166,336	16,463,212	15,959,356	32,422,468
1913.....	9,144,727	9,144,727	18,289,454	17,819,859	17,253,369	35,073,228
1918.....	9,568,500	9,568,502	19,137,002	19,057,117	18,473,592	37,530,709
1925.....	11,860,690	11,881,960	23,742,650	16,739,639	14,454,786	31,194,425
1930.....	12,637,100	12,573,380	25,210,480	18,365,702	15,634,010	33,999,730

The figures for married males and females in 1918 do not agree because of the registration of bigamy by mistake and also of the denaturalization of a husband.

The figures for 1925 and 1930, in which the number of married males and females does not agree, are the estimates deduced from the results of the quinquennial census taken in the respective years and are not final.

Ratios of the above figures for married and unmarried per 1,000 population are as follows:—

Year	Married			Unmarried		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1898.....	182.3	182.3	364.6	322.1	313.3	635.4
1903.....	176.1	176.1	352.2	328.9	318.9	647.8
1908.....	173.1	173.1	346.2	332.0	321.8	653.8
1913.....	171.4	171.4	342.8	333.9	323.3	657.2
1918.....	168.9	168.9	337.8	336.2	326.0	662.2
1925.....	198.5	198.9	397.4	280.2	322.4	602.6
1930.....	196.0	195.1	391.1	284.9	324.0	608.9

Births, Deaths, Marriage and Divorce

The returns showing births and deaths were first prepared in 1883, and stillbirths in 1886. The following figures represent these numbers in the last four years and the average for each five years as well as ratio per 1,000 population:—

Year	Births		Stillbirths		Deaths		Marriage		Divorce	
	No.	Ratio	No.	Ratio	No.	Ratio	No.	Ratio	No.	Ratio
1928 ...	2,135,852	34.4	120,191	1.93	1,236,711	19.9	497,555	8.04	49,119	0.79
1929	2,077,026	33.0	116,971	1.86	1,261,228	20.0	497,410	7.90	51,222	0.81
1930	2,085,101	32.4	117,730	1.83	1,170,867	18.2	506,674	7.86	51,259	0.80
1931	2,102,784	32.2	116,509	1.78	1,240,891	20.0	496,574	7.60	50,609	0.77
Average for:										
1909-13	1,729,925	33.7	153,920	2.99	1,052,735	20.5	434,786	8.45	59,023	1.15
1914-18	1,803,391	32.6	141,965	2.57	1,215,254	22.0	456,074	8.07	58,495	1.06
1919-23	1,961,547	34.4	136,277	2.39	1,322,411	23.2	514,833	9.03	53,998	0.95
1924-28	2,077,121	34.4	122,278	2.02	1,215,484	20.1	504,964	8.34	50,734	0.84

Age of Marriages

	1930		1931		Ratio for 1931	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Under 15	—	34	—	26	—	0.1
15-19	9,896	105,467	8,647	96,039	17.1	193.4
20-24	145,421	263,962	144,234	267,714	290.5	539.1
25-29	209,552	77,755	205,747	76,528	414.3	154.1
30-34	70,638	27,432	70,903	26,155	142.8	52.7

35-39	28,718	12,797	27,893	12,395	56.2	25.0
40-49	27,564	13,049	24,948	11,759	50.2	23.7
50-59	10,755	5,087	10,397	4,868	20.9	9.8
Above 60.....	4,129	1,091	3,985	1,090	8.0	2.2
Total.....	505,674	506,574	496,574	496,574	1,000.0	10.0

Birthrates

Year	Males	Females	Total	Males per 100 females	Legitimate	Illegitimate
1926	1,081,793	1,022,611	2,104,405	105.8	93.1	6.9
1927	1,048,946	1,011,791	2,060,737	103.7	93.0	7.0
1928	1,018,477	1,045,150	2,135,852	104.4	93.3	6.7
1929	1,058,720	1,018,360	2,077,026	104.0	93.4	6.6
*1930	1,069,111	1,105,549	2,085,101	105.3	93.6	6.4
1931	1,073,385	1,029,399	2,102,784	104.3	93.7	6.3

* The total disagrees with its components because of its including unknown sexes.

Rates of Stillbirths

Year	Males	Females	Unknown	Total	M. per 100 F.	Legitimate	Illegitimate
1926	67,562	56,136	340	124,038	120.4	79.8	20.2
1927	63,401	53,140	381	116,922	119.3	79.8	20.1
1928	65,339	54,432	420	120,191	120.0	80.0	20.0
1929	63,553	52,992	426	116,971	119.9	80.3	19.7
1930	63,955	53,282	493	117,730	120.0	80.4	19.6
1931	63,614	52,463	432	116,507	121.3	80.2	19.8

The Average Age of Mortality

According to the investigation effected by the Statistics Bureau in 1932 on the basis of the 2nd and 3rd census, the average age of mortality of Japanese is 42.06 years for men and 43.20 for women. The average age of death for those males and females who survive five days after birth is 43.12 and 44.13, for those surviving one year 49.14 and 49.32, five years 50.35 and 50.71, ten years 46.53 and 47.00, and twenty years 39.10 and 40.38.

POPULATION OF THE PREFECTURES (Based on the Census taken Oct. 1, 1930)

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Population	Pop. per (sq. km.)	Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Population	Pop. per (sq. km.)
Aichi	5,055	2,567,378	508	Miyagi	7,274	1,142,697	157
Akita	11,724	987,702	84	Miyazaki	7,739	760,450	98
Aomori	9,631	879,814	91	Miye	5,702	1,157,404	203
Chiba	5,078	1,470,099	289	Nagano	13,557	1,717,097	127
Ehime	5,667	1,142,113	202	Nagasaki	4,118	1,232,812	299
Fukui.....	4,018	618,141	154	Nara	3,730	596,222	160
Fukuoka	4,940	2,507,079	512	Niigata	12,578	1,993,312	154
Fukushima	13,781	1,508,122	109	Oita	6,333	945,751	149
Gifu	10,462	1,178,366	113	Okayama	7,046	1,283,935	182
Gumma.....	6,336	1,186,058	187	Okinawa	2,386	577,508	242
Hiroshima	8,347	1,692,053	201	Osaka	1,813	3,539,989	1,952
Hokkaido	88,656	2,812,342	32	Saga	2,443	691,452	283
Hyogo	8,323	2,646,050	318	Saitama.....	3,801	1,186,058	187
Ibaraki	6,100	1,487,057	244	Shiga	4,050	691,631	171
Ishikawa	4,198	756,837	180	Shimane	6,618	738,473	112
Iwate	15,235	975,751	64	Shizuoka	7,769	1,797,778	231
Kagawa.....	1,845	732,818	397	Tochigi	6,436	1,141,697	157
Kagoshima	9,081	1,556,674	171	Tokushima	4,135	716,534	173
Kanagawa	2,353	1,619,584	688	Tokyo	2,144	5,408,262	2,522
Kochi.....	7,088	718,157	101	Tottori	3,489	489,269	140
Kumamoto	7,437	1,353,908	182	Toyama.....	4,257	778,963	183
Kyoto.....	4,621	1,552,813	336	Wakayama	4,723	830,734	176

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Population	Pop. per (sq. km.)	Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Population	Pop. per (sq. km.)
Yamagata.....	9,306	1,080,037	116	Yamanashi	4,465	631,037	141
Yamaguchi	6,082	1,135,637	187				

POPULATION OF THE CITIES

(Based on the Census taken Oct. 1, 1930)

Cities	Number of population	Number of households	Increase of pop. on 1925 census (%)	Cities	Number of population	Number of households	Increase of pop. on 1925 census (%)
Akashi	38,956	8,726	46	Moji	108,127	24,449	91
Akita.....	51,069	9,290	84	Morioka	62,255	11,606	163
Amagasaki	50,065	11,252	132	Muroran	55,857	10,829	116
Aomori.....	77,100	14,624	142	Nagano	73,912	14,849	111
Asahigawa	825,514	14,890	141	Nagaoka	57,866	10,938	89
Ashikaga	43,896	8,232	114	Nagasaki	204,179	42,833	80
Beppu	43,086	9,870	148	Nagoya	907,402	190,379	181
Chiba	49,086	10,538	174	Nara	52,781	11,336	80
Fukui	64,200	14,675	71	Nawa	60,527	14,302	108
Fukuoka	228,290	43,496	195	Niigata	125,106	24,817	148
Fukushima	45,691	8,314	104	Nishinomiya ...	39,361	8,398	143
Fukuyama	38,215	8,605	122	Numazu	44,026	8,134	157
Fushimi	31,538	6,960	33	Ogaki	38,496	8,233	80
Gifu	90,114	19,081	100	Oita	57,294	10,389	74
Hachioji	51,886	10,333	146	Okayama	139,221	31,021	118
Hakodate.....	197,252	38,291	203	Okazaki	65,507	14,026	111
Hamamatsu ...	109,475	22,284	188	Omuda	97,279	19,633	111
Himeji	62,174	12,552	116	Onomichi	29,084	6,682	48
Hirosaki	270,365	58,951	133	Osaka	2,453,569	541,033	160
Hiroshimu	270,365	58,951	133	Otaru	144,884	27,949	77
Ichinomiya	42,229	8,513	215	Otsu	34,380	7,816	18
Imaharu	43,730	9,301	160	Saga	46,178	8,712	95
Kagoshima	137,232	27,235	100	Sakai.....	120,347	26,318	102
Kanazawa	157,309	33,810	67	Sapporo	168,575	32,752	162
Kawagoye	34,204	6,772	72	Sasebo	133,172	23,913	202
Kawasaki.....	104,346	22,271	397	Sendai	190,177	35,237	155
Kiryu	52,906	10,255	243	Seto	37,304	8,259	193
Kishiwada	35,102	7,968	95	Shimizu	55,664	10,737	201
Kobe	787,596	178,327	118	Shimonoseki ...	98,549	22,031	68
Kochi	96,991	22,516	151	Shizuoka	136,487	26,323	128
Kofu	79,445	16,505	164	Shuri.....	20,118	4,746	23
Kokura	88,094	18,575	227	Takamatsu	79,907	17,449	11
Koriyama.....	51,364	9,499	195	Takaoka	51,760	9,920	59
Kumamoto	164,449	32,283	117	Takasaki	59,923	12,246	87
Kure	190,265	39,120	125	Takata	30,934	5,674	1
Kurume	83,008	15,030	149	Tobata	51,674	10,973	369
Kushiro	51,584	9,522	219	Tokushima	90,633	20,033	72
Kyoto	765,142	162,075	125	Tokyo	2,070,529	414,630	38
Marugame	28,842	6,309	31	Tottori	37,189	7,884	59
Matsumoto	72,141	14,485	137	Toyama	75,099	15,426	53
Matsuyama	82,479	18,242	101	Toyohashi	98,554	18,321	196
Matsuye	44,496	9,682	75	Tsu	56,088	11,916	68
Mayebashi	84,925	16,335	152	Tsuruoka.....	34,317	6,702	78
Mito	50,647	10,260	89	Tsuyama	34,159	7,379	82
Miyakonojo	35,510	7,075	167	Ube	61,171	13,899	255
Miyazaki	54,596	10,815	271	Uji-Yamada.....	51,079	10,546	140

Cities	Number of population	Number of households	Increase of pop. on 1925 census (%)	Cities	Number of population	Number of households	Increase of pop. on 1925 census (%)
Utsunomiya ...	81,380	16,544	69	Yamagata	63,423	11,232	133
Uwajima	44,281	9,919	149	Yamaguchi	31,322	6,653	10
Uyeda	35,133	7,622	78	Yawata.....	168,218	36,493	318
Wakamatsu (Fukushima-ken)	43,729	8,080	42	Yokkaichi	51,811	11,344	95
Wakamatsu (Fukuoka-ken)	57,326	12,702	148	Yokohama	620,296	135,929	204
Wakayama	117,437	26,258	83	Yokosuka.....	110,304	19,598	145
				Yonago.....	33,632	7,437	120
				Yonezawa	44,731	8,286	3

DISTRIBUTION OF URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION

Population	Result of 1st Census			Result of 2nd Census		
	No. of towns	Population	Pct.	No. of towns	Population	Pct.
Under 500.....	126	36,419	0.07	82	26,103	0.04
501-2,000	2,662	4,007,310	7.21	2,545	3,854,410	6.45
2,001-5,000.....	7,257	23,062,027	41.21	7,050	22,532,803	37.72
5,001-10,000	1,639	10,821,175	19.34	1,773	11,470,200	19.20
10,001-20,000.....	374	5,074,460	9.07	392	5,229,161	8.75
20,001-50,000.....	136	4,102,746	7.33	145	4,437,992	7.43
50,001-100,000	31	2,105,318	3.76	51	3,444,916	5.77
Over 100,000.....	15	6,753,398	12.07	21	8,741,237	14.63
Total	12,243	55,963,053	100.00	12,019	59,736,822	100.00

POPULATION CLASSIFIED BY CALLING (1ST CENSUS)

	Employers		Employed		Total
	Men	Women	Men	Women	
Agriculture	7,749,988	6,378,372	5,458,825	7,551,066	27,138,251
Fishery	517,065	41,249	332,755	558,605	1,449,674
Mining	327,918	96,546	187,694	325,367	937,525
Industry.....	3,716,354	1,583,894	1,832,673	3,605,019	10,737,940
Trade	2,158,399	1,029,603	1,359,937	2,764,654	7,312,593
Transportation.....	975,221	62,017	520,267	991,967	2,549,472
Public service	1,134,025	307,807	583,076	1,183,447	3,208,355
Other	337,088	190,363	203,324	360,500	1,091,275
Without fixed calling...	387,865	364,066	246,612	499,000	1,497,543
Total incl. others ...	17,312,754	10,065,401	10,731,431	17,853,467	55,963,053

FOREIGN VISITORS TO JAPAN

Nationality	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
English	3,761	4,362	3,705	3,523	3,586
Americans	7,782	8,527	7,586	6,162	5,075
German	742	940	746	672	697
French.....	555	934	378	462	496
Russian ...	1,251	1,587	1,139	1,082	963
Chinese ...	13,889	16,300	14,163	12,877	7,039
Others	1,820	2,600	1,888	2,494	2,220
Total ...	29,800	34,755	33,572	27,273	20,076

FOREIGN RESIDENTS IN JAPAN

The number of foreign residents in various parts of the country for five years ending in 1931 is follows:—

Year	Male	Female	Total
1927	23,746	9,171	32,917
1928	25,048	9,869	34,917
1929	27,972	10,857	38,829
1930	28,612	11,678	40,290
1931	19,655	8,662	28,317

The detailed figures for 1930 and 1931, tabulated according to nationality, are as follows, omitting those of less importance as to number:—

Nationality	1930	1931	Nationality	1930	1931
Austria	47	45	Denmark	87	75
British India.....	322	319	France	521	476
China	30,836	19,135	Germany	1,097	1,088
Canada	176	206	Great Britain	2,162	2,076

Nationality	1930	1931	Nationality	1930	1931
Italy	138	137	Sweden	88	81
Netherlands	103	114	Switzerland	222	230
Portugal.....	174	167	United States	2,026	2,030
Soviet Russia	1,666	1,561	Total incl. others	40,290	28,318

LEGAL STATUS OF FOREIGNERS

Landownership and Naturalization

With some exceptions the foreigners living in Japan enjoy the same status as native subjects, so far as rights and privileges are concerned. At the same time the foreigners are just as amenable to the criminal laws and punitive provisions of the realm as the Japanese. The exceptions mentioned above relate first to mining concessions which are granted only to native subjects or to companies formed under Japanese laws. Foreigners may therefore enjoy mining rights by becoming shareholders of a company so formed. The certain subsidized companies such as the Nippon Yusen Kaisha and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha or the banks under special protection like the Bank of Japan, the Yokohama Specie Bank, etc. are not allowed to take foreigners as shareholders.

Alien Landownership

This was first sanctioned in 1910 by law, but as the date for putting it into operation was left unfixd the law remained as dead letter. A new law voted in the 50th session of the Imperial Diet and promulgated on April 1, 1925, has replaced the original enactment, the measure being put in force on November 10, 1926. The law in question is essentially based on the spirit of reciprocity and recognizes the right of alien ownership as mutual concession. In other words, this right is extended only to citizens, either as individuals or as majority partners, shareholders, etc., of foreign juridical persons, of those foreign countries that recognize mutatis mutandis similar right of Japanese subjects. According to the law foreigners cannot own land or acquire superficies or emphyteusis in certain districts of strategic importance with-

out permission of the Ministers of Army and Navy, such districts being designated in the ordinance relating to the operation of the alien landownership law, promulgated on November 1st, 1926.

Naturalization

A foreigner may become a Japanese subject under the following conditions, viz., (1) That he has been domiciled in Japan for at least five years continuously; (2) is at least 20 years of age and possesses civil capacity according to the law of his native country; (3) is of good morals; (4) possesses property or ability to maintain himself; (5) possesses no nationality or will lose it on being made a Japanese subject.

The above conditions are much modified for those whose fathers, mothers or wives were Japanese subjects, and for those who were born in Japan of either Japanese father or mother. Those who are living in Japan for ten years or more may be naturalized even when they have not domiciled for five consecutive years, while for those who distinguished service to Japan the process of naturalization may, with Imperial sanction, be made very simple, i.e., continuous residence or domicile in Japan for at least one year and good morals. The nationality can also be acquired by being adopted by a Japanese subject. Naturalization still remain comparatively insignificant in number, the bulk being supplied by Chinese living in Taiwan.

Year	Marrying into family	Adopted	Naturalized	Rehabilitated
1927.....	—	8	9	17
1928.....	2	7	14	19
1929.....	3	1	9	37
1930.....	—	4	1	29
1931.....	1	1	3	49

EMIGRATION

Japanese emigration to foreign lands is not so great as that of some European nations. According to official returns based on the 3rd census taken on October 1, 1930, the number of Japanese residing abroad was 509,754. Of that number about 68,053 reside in South Manchuria and China. The number of our emi-

grants on the Pacific coast of the United States is now decreasing on account of unfavorable social and other conditions there. On the contrary, a new field in the Brazilian plateau has in recent years been opened for emigrants from Japan, and at present there are approximately 116,647 Japanese in Brazil, enjoying a

peaceful life in the pursuit of coffee plantation, rice cultivation and similar other lines of industry.

those returned from different countries during the ten years ending 1931 is tabulated as follows:—

The number of emigrants who went to and

Year	Number of emigrants who departed			Those returned (men & women)	Money remitted by emigrants (¥1,000)
	Men	Women	Total		
1922	8,747	4,132	12,879	14,912	25,972
1923	5,712	3,113	8,825	10,784	25,852
1924	7,884	5,214	13,098	15,579	25,121
1925	7,077	3,619	10,696	13,918	25,453
1926	10,555	5,629	16,184	14,549	24,945
1927	11,735	6,306	18,041	14,735	24,441
1928	12,502	7,348	19,850	15,004	27,613
1929	16,330	9,374	25,704	14,073	28,145
1930	14,130	7,699	21,829	15,432	23,195
1931	7,052	3,332	10,384	12,965	17,914

The figures for the 5 years ending 1930, apportioned according to different destinations, are as follows:—

	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Brazil	8,599	9,625	12,002	15,597	13,741	5,565
Philippines	2,197	2,659	2,077	4,535	2,685	1,109
Peru	1,250	1,271	1,410	1,585	831	299
Canada.....	1,009	1,062	1,050	430	137	106
U.S.S.R.	531	896	870	884	1,513	1,238
U.S.A.	344	370	306	236	—	—
Hawaii.....	636	526	265	119	—	—
Straits Settlements & Malay States	402	475	420	513	835	549
Mexico.....	336	319	353	249	434	283
Argentina	182	262	387	430	489	362
Dutch East Indies.....	226	248	191	507	559	447
Australia.....	139	129	270	277	95	34
Cuba.....	117	45	37	—	37	6
Total incl. others	16,184	18,041	19,850	25,704	21,829	10,384

Japanese Emigrants

The number of Japanese residing abroad at the end of October 1930, returned as 509,754 on the basis of 3rd census, shows a decrease of 252,418 on the similar figures for 1929. Excepting European countries, Oceania, Dutch East Indies and South American States other than Peru, Brazil and Argentina, which showed more or less decrease, the figures in other directions generally decreased as compared with the previous returns. Of the total figure for the year about 68,053 represents those residing in Manchuria and various parts of China, where the field of activities of Japanese is very extensive and the lines of occupations engaged in are variegated. Apart from those places, the principal places where the presence of Japanese emigrants is making itself felt are as follows:—

Asiatic Russia.—About 2,790 Japanese, most-

ly petty traders, reside in Harbin and neighbourhood, about 600 firm clerks and employes with their families. These Japanese organize themselves into a self-governing body, and maintain their own schools and also a public hospital for the treatment of Japanese and foreigners. In the Maritime Provinces there were about 500 Japanese, chiefly employed in fishing, packing and other lines. The total annual catch and tinned and salted articles reach about 50 million yen including those of Kamchatka. In Northern (Russian) Saghalien there live those mostly employed in mining, timber felling and pulp-making, which are conducted by Japanese concerns.

Malay Peninsula.—In Singapore, Jehore and other states there are about 4,348 Japanese, about being employed in rubber plantation either as planters or workers. They lease about 150,000 acres of land of which three

quarters are under rubber trees. Besides, some 374 live in British North Borneo and Sarawak.

Hawaiian Islands.—The emigrations at the end of 1930 numbered about 120,908, including 41,711 living in Honolulu and neighbourhood, where 670 were employed in farm work, 8,000 in other work and 1,500 in petty trade. Elsewhere some 20,000 were engaged in farm work, mostly on sugar plantations, others being employed in coffee cultivation and fishery. The Japanese settlers in the islands maintain their own schools (114 elementary and 8 middle schools) for education of their children. Many of them being American-born are American subjects by right.

The Philippine Islands.—Nearly 20,000 Japanese resided in the islands at the end of October 1931, most of them working on plantations owned by the Mindanao Island Exploit Co. and other establishments. Fishery in the islands is practically in the hands of Japanese, those in the Sooloo archipelago being nearly all pearl-fishers. The number of emigrants was 4,535 in 1929, 2,685 in 1930, and 1,109 in 1931.

Mexico.—Over 600 Japanese are engaged in agriculture, chiefly cotton and coffee cultivation, besides some 500 carrying on petty trade. Some 300 Japanese are also working as farm laborers on the plantations belonging to the Japan-Mexico Co-operation Co. and another Japanese concern, which either own or lease about 15,000 acres of cultivated land. Over 1,000, mostly farm and mine workers, are living in Lower California.

Cuba.—About 787 Japanese, mostly farm workers, were residing at the end of October 1930.

Canada.—About 20,989 Japanese (including about 8,500 women and children) residing in Canada at the end of October 1930, the largest percentage, viz. 20,733 represents those living in Vancouver. These Japanese were mostly engaged in factory labor, farming, fishing and other marine product industry, the rest being occupied in petty trade and various lines of industry. About 256 resided in Ottawa and neighborhood.

The United States.—Some 100,128 Japanese resided at the end of October 1930, mostly engaged in farming, horticulture, fishing, etc. Japanese in the Imperial Valley on Mexican borderland and those in the Rocky Ford are raising common and water melons. As com-

pared with the previous returns the Japanese population throughout the states showed a decrease of 43,950.

Brazil & Other S. American States.—Japanese emigration to South America dates from 1899, when a batch of emigrants were sent to Peru by an emigration agency. At present, there are about 142,642 Japanese, including about 113,000 engaged in farming 13,898 in trade, 730 in industry, and the remainder as farm workers, petty traders, etc. Brazil is now the mecca of Japanese emigrants, and as Japanese laborers are welcomed there for exploiting the boundless wild land in that vast country it is considered the most desirable outlet for the congested population of Japan. At the end of October 1930 there were living 116,647 Japanese, about 93% of total emigrants, are leading a comparatively happy and peaceful life in San Paulo and other places, working on farms or plantations of their own or leased. To encourage the emigration of propertied classes to Brazil an Emigration Corporation scheme was enacted in 1927, its purpose being to give support to members of provincial emigration corporations intending to establish themselves in Brazil. Under the law, which took effect the same year under the name of the Industrial Corporation Law, approved emigrants are given a small sum to help their passage. At the same time an Emigrants Home was established at Kobe for benefit of those emigrants booked for Brazil, to provide various necessary services for them. The Government plan is to secure a land of about 100,000 acres at San Paulo and send there 1,600 families in three years commencing 1927. By the end of 1928 about 12,000 emigrants went to the destination, to be followed by 15,000 in 1929. But in 1930 the number of emigrants fell to 13,741 and 5,505 in 1931. Besides, there are about 26,001 Japanese in Peru, Argentina, Bolivia, Chili and other S. American states at the end of October 1930.

Japanese Residing Abroad

The number of Japanese subject residing abroad at the end of October, 1930, was 509,754, based on the 3rd census, the figure being composed of 109,866 in Asiatic countries, 3,997 in Europe, 127,964 in North America, 142,648 in South America, 69 in Africa and 125,210 in Oceania. The statistics for the three years ending 1930 are as follows:—

POPULATION AND EMIGRATION

	1928	1929	1930		Male	Female	Total
Asia	299,694	305,950	109,866	Philippines	14,578	4,994	19,572
Europe	2,992	3,314	3,997	Davao	9,763	2,826	12,589
N. America ...	169,569	172,603	127,964	Luzon.....	4,815	2,168	6,983
S. America ...	98,037	126,717	142,648				
Africa.....	86	116	69	Europe			
Oceania.....	147,151	153,872	125,210				
Total	717,529	762,572	509,754	Total	3,047	950	3,997
				District			
				England.....	1,319	466	1,785
				Germany	519	116	635
				France	608	159	767
				Belgium.....	70	33	103
				Spain	23	15	38
				Netherlands	189	11	200
				Switzerland	83	31	114
				Italy	45	33	78
				Austria	25	17	42
				U.S.S.R.....	59	28	87
				North America			
				Total	77,519	50,445	127,964
				District			
				U.S.A.	60,467	39,661	100,128
				San Francisco	25,160	17,546	42,706
				Los Angeles.....	18,780	12,472	31,252
				Portland	3,405	2,174	5,579
				Seattle	8,422	5,531	13,953
				Chicago	1,122	604	1,726
				New York.....	3,105	1,047	4,152
				New Orleans	473	287	760
				Canada	12,537	8,452	20,989
				Ottawa	186	70	256
				Vancouver	12,351	8,382	20,733
				Mexico	3,749	2,083	5,832
				Panama.....	171	57	228
				Cuba	595	192	787
				South America			
				Total	81,539	61,109	142,648
				District			
				Brazil.....	64,346	52,301	116,647
				Argentina	2,959	1,068	4,027
				Peru	13,200	7,335	20,535
				Bolivia	390	161	551
				Chili	524	186	710
				Columbia	82	40	122
				Africa			
				Total	42	27	69
				District			
				Egypt.....	28	20	48

	Male	Female	Total
Grand total	297,587	212,167	509,754
Asia			
Total	66,183	48,683	109,866
District			
East Russia	2,483	307	2,790
Vladivostock	221	165	386
Alexandrovsk	2,148	122	2,270
Petropavrovsk	17	4	21
Habarovsk	92	5	97
Nikolaievsk	3	8	11
Manchoukuo	6,854	6,234	13,088
Chientao	1,149	1,068	2,217
Mukden.....	1,652	1,471	3,123
Hsinkin (Changchun).....	2,215	2,009	4,224
Liaoyang	36	41	77
Tiehling.....	273	297	570
Harbin	2,215	2,009	4,224
Kirin	469	417	886
China.....	29,924	25,041	54,965
Tientsin.....	5,012	3,562	8,574
Tsingtao	7,511	7,079	14,590
Tsinan	1,447	1,317	2,764
Shanghai	13,203	10,861	24,065
Hankow.....	1,219	1,038	2,257
Amoy.....	274	177	451
Fuchou	163	93	257
Canton	247	211	458
Hongkong.....	1,751	975	2,726
Siam	232	104	336
French Indo-China...	179	167	346
British India & Ceylon	1,633	597	2,230
Calcutta.....	295	152	447
Bombay.....	681	218	899
Rangoon	407	201	608
Colombo	250	26	276
Singapore	4,348	3,077	7,425
British Borneo & Sarawak	374	218	592
Straits Settlements, Malay States ...	3,974	2,859	6,833
Netherlands India ...	4,188	2,181	6,369

Oceania			
	Male	Female	Total
Total	69,257	55,953	125,210
District			
Sydney	3,805	497	4,302
Hawaii	65,452	55,456	120,908
Honolulu	22,284	19,427	41,711
Hawaiian Islands ...	15,160	12,621	27,781
Others	16,968	14,275	31,243

Note.—Excludes those living in Kwantung, South Manchurian Railway Zone, and South Sea Mandatory Islands.

Expatriation of Japanese

Until 1916 Japan did not recognize the expatriation of her sons or daughters who acquired foreign citizenship, excepting those females

who married foreign subjects. The result was the Japanese who legally became American citizens, for example, still figured on Japanese census register so that they stood on the peculiar status of double nationality. This procedure was at last changed and the Law of Nationality was revised in Aug. 1916. The law was further amended in December 1924 and the foreign countries to which the expatriation applied was designated to be, (1) U.S.A., (2) Argentina, (3) Brazil, (4) Canada, (5) Chili and (6) Peru. It may be noted that those American or Canadian-born Japanese boys not yet expatriated are still technically liable to the Japanese conscription law, so that the crux of "double nationality" question remains unsolved, as is also the case with the Prussian or French boys born in America.

CHAPTER V

IMPERIAL COURT

THE IMPERIAL HOUSE

Reigning Sovereign

His Imperial Majesty **Hirohito**, the reigning Emperor of Japan (124th of the line), is the first son of the late Emperor Taisho (Taisho Tenno), born on April 29th, 1901. He was nominated Heir-Apparent on September 9th, 1912, being at the same time appointed Sub-Lieutenant of the Army and Sub-Lieutenant of the Imperial Navy and decorated with the Grand Cordon of the Chrysanthemum; promoted to Lieutenant of the Army and 1st Sub-Lieutenant of the Navy on October 31st, 1914; to Captain and Lieutenant on October 31st, 1916; promoted to Major and Lieut.-Commander on Oct. 31st, 1920; visited Europe in 1921; appointed Regent on Nov. 25th, 1921; promoted to Lieut.-Colonel and Commander on Oct. 31st, 1923; married Princess Nagako Kuni (first daughter of H.I.H. Prince Kuni) on Jan. 26th, 1924; promoted to Colonel and Captain (Navy) on Oct. 31st, 1924; succeeded to the Throne on the death of his father Emperor Taisho on Dec. 25th, 1926; formally enthroned on Nov. 10th, 1928.

On March 3rd, 1921, His Majesty (then Crown Prince) proceeded to Europe to make observations and exchange courtesies with the sovereigns and rulers of European countries, returning home in September the same year. It was an epoch-making event in the history of the Japanese Imperial House as it was the first Crown Prince of this Empire who ever stepped out of the country and visited foreign lands, and moreover it was an unqualified success in every respect, particularly having had the result of promoting and further cementing the happy relations between Japan and her friendly powers in the Occident. After returning from the foreign tour, he was appointed Regent in November, 1921, to conduct affairs of State in place of his Imperial father who, on account of chronic illness, was incapacitated from performing his onerous duties as Emperor. In January 1924, he married Princess Nagako, eldest daughter of H.I.H. General Prince Kuniyoshi Kuni. Then on the 25th of December, 1926, following the death of

his father Emperor Yoshihito (Taisho Tenno) he ascended the Throne as the 124th Emperor, the new era named Showa being adopted for his reign. The enthronement of the new sovereign was officially celebrated at the ancient capital of Kyoto in November (10th to 15th), 1928, after the lapse of one year's mourning over the demise of the departed Emperor according to traditional custom, the national function being performed with time-honored ceremonies.

Nagako, the Empress, first daughter of the late Prince Kuniyoshi Kuni, born on March 6th, 1903. Her Majesty was educated at the Peers' School and afterwards studied under private tutors at her home. Married the Emperor (then Crown Prince) Jan. 26th, 1924.

Sadako, the Empress Dowager (consort of the late Emperor Taisho), born June 25th, 1884; fourth daughter of the late Prince Kujo, a noble of the first rank; married Emperor Taisho (then Crown Prince) on May 10th, 1900; widow Dec. 25th, 1926.

Shigeiko (Teru-no-Miya), first daughter of the Emperor, born Dec. 6th, 1925.

Kazuko (Taka-no-Miya), third daughter of the Emperor, born Sept. 30th, 1929.

Atsuko (Yori-no-Miya), fourth daughter of the Emperor, born Mar. 7, 1931.

Brothers of the Emperor

Prince Yasuhito (Chichibu-no-Miya), second son of the late Emperor Taisho, born June 25th, 1902. His house-name was formerly Atsunomiya, but on attaining majority in June 1922 the Prince founded a new house (Chichibu-no-Miya) by Imperial order. The Prince was educated at the Peers' School and, after finishing the middle school course of the institution, entered the Central Military Preparatory School in 1917 to receive military education; further studied at the Military Academy, graduating in 1922; was appointed Sub-Lieutenant (infantry) in October the same year and attached to the Imperial Guards Division; promoted to Lieutenant in 1925 and then to Captain in 1930; meanwhile studied at the Mili-

tary Staff College from 1928 to 1930; is now attached to the 3rd infantry regiment of the Imperial Guards Division.

In 1925 the Prince went to England for study leaving Japan on May 24th and studied at Oxford till December, 1926, when he left for home owing to the serious illness of his father Emperor Taisho, returning home in January, 1927. In September, 1928, the Prince married Miss Setsuko, daughter of Tsuneo Matsudaira, Ambassador to the Court of St. James since 1928.

The Prince is Honorary President of the British Association (Tokyo), the Siamese Association (Tokyo), the Swedish Society of Japan and the Peers Club, besides being an honorary member of the Ski Club of Great Britain, and member of the Alpine Ski Club of England. He presided over the World Engineering Congress and also at the World Power Congress, held in Tokyo and Osaka in the autumn of 1929.

Princess Setsuko, consort of the above, is daughter of Ambassador Tsuneo Matsudaira and niece of Viscount Yasuo Matsudaira. Was born Sept. 9th, 1909; educated at the Peeresses' School and later in the United States; married the Prince Sept. 28th, 1928.

Prince Nobuhito (Takamatsu-no-Miya), third son of the late Emperor Taisho, born January 3rd, 1905. After finishing the middle school course at the Peers' School in 1921, the Prince entered the Naval College as a cadet, graduating in 1924; was appointed 2nd Sub-Lieutenant in December, 1925; promoted to 1st Sub-Lieutenant in December, 1926; meanwhile studied at the Torpedo School (1925-26), the Naval Aviation School at Kasumigaura (1927) and also at the Naval Gunnery School at Yokosuka (1930-31); promoted to Lieutenant in 1930 and attached to the Naval Staff Board; appointed a squad Commander of the warship Takao in December 1932.

The Prince was formerly called Teru-no-Miya, but in July, 1913, he set up a new house by order of his father Emperor Taisho and assumed the family-name of Takamatsu-no-Miya. In February, 1930, he married Princess Kikuko, daughter of the late Prince Yoshihisa Tokugawa, and on April 21st the same year the Prince went to Europe accompanied by the Princess to return the courtesy of the British Court which in 1929 despatched to this country the Duke of Gloucester to present the Order of the Garter to the Emperor, and also

to present the highest Japanese order to the former King of Spain, returning home via America in the spring of 1931 after visiting 22 European countries and exchanging courtesies with the sovereigns and rulers of many friendly powers. The Prince is Honorary President of the Japan Fine Arts Association, the Turco-Japanese Society and the Japan-Denmark Society, both of Tokyo.

Princess Kikuko, consort of the above, is sister of Prince Yoshimitsu Tokugawa and was born Dec. 26th, 1911. Married the Prince Feb. 4th, 1930.

Prince Takahito (Sumi-no-Miya), 4th and last son of the late Emperor Taisho and the youngest brother of the reigning Emperor, was born Dec. 2nd, 1915. The Prince finished the middle school course of the Peers School in 1932 and is now studying at the Military Academy.

Sisters of the Late Emperor Living

H.L.H. Princess Masako (Tsune-no-miya), 6th daughter of the late Emperor Meiji, born September 1888, married H.L.H. Prince Tsunehisa Takeda in April 1908; widow 1919.

H.L.H. Princess Fusako (Kane-no-miya), 7th daughter of the late Emperor Meiji, born 1890, married H.L.H. Prince Naruhisa Kita-Shirakawa in April 1909; visited Europe in 1922; widow 1923.

H.L.H. Princess Nobuko (Fumi-no-miya), 8th daughter of the late Emperor Meiji, born August 1891, married H.L.H. Prince Yasuhiko Asaka in May 1910; visited Europe and America in 1925.

H.L.H. Princess Toshiko (Yasu-no-miya), 9th and last daughter of the late Emperor Meiji, born May 1896, married H.L.H. Prince Naruhiko Higashi-Kuni in May 1915.

Other Members of the Imperial Family

Other members of the Imperial Family are as follows:—

Fushimi-no-Miya (Residence—Kioicho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo).

The House is the oldest of the princely families, founded in the 14th century by a son of Gohanazono Tenno, the 102nd Emperor.

Prince Hiroyasu, present head (23rd of the line) and eldest son of the late General Prince Sadanaru; born Oct. 16th, 1875; succeeded to the House of Prince Kwacho in

1883, but returned to the present House in July 1904; studied at the Naval Academy and then in Germany; took part in the Russo-Japanese war and was wounded on board the Mikasa in the battle of the Yellow Sea (Aug. 1904); studied in England, 1909-10; was in command of the Takachiho, 1910; Vice-Admiral, 1917; full Admiral, 1922; Supreme War Councillor, 1920; appointed Chief of Naval Staff Board, Feb. 1932; Admiral of Fleet, May 1932. The Prince is Honorary President of the Imperial Life Boat Association, the Japan Seamen's Relief Association, the Japan Fishery Association, the Cancer Research Society, the Naval Club, the Japan-German Society, the Scientific & Chemical Research Institute, etc.

Princess Tsuneko, consort of the above, ninth daughter of the late Keiki Tokugawa (the last Shogun). Born Sept. 23rd, 1882. Married Jan. 9th, 1896. Issue: Four sons and three daughters.

Prince Hiroyoshi, eldest son of Prince Hiroyasu, born 1897; studied at the Naval Academy; married Princess Tokiko, 3rd daughter of Prince Ichijo, in 1919; is Lieut.-Commander of the Navy and in command of the destroyer Okikaze.

Princess Tokiko, consort of the above, 3rd daughter of Prince Ichijo, born 1903. Married Dec. 23rd, 1919. Issue:—One son and one daughter.

(Prince Hironobu, 3rd son of Prince Hiroyasu, born 1905, created a new House in 1926 by order of the late Emperor Taisho and is now called Marquis Kwacho. He graduated from the Naval Academy in 1925 and is now Lieutenant).

Yamashina-no-Miya (Residence—Fujimi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo).

Prince Takehiko, head (3rd of the line), eldest son of the late Prince Kikumaro; born Feb. 13th, 1898; studied at the Naval Academy; attached to the Naval Aviation Corps as Sub-Lieutenant, 1921; Lieutenant and attache to the Naval Staff Board; retired from active service in 1927 on account of declining health; promoted to Lieut.-Commander in 1929 and at the same time placed on waiting list. Married Princess Sakiko, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Kuniyoshi Kaya-no-Miya, who died on Sept. 1st, 1923. Was at one time an aviation enthusiast as a result of which he was popularly called "Prince of the Air" and established a private aviation institute (Mikuni Aviation School).

Dowager Princess Hisako, mother of the above and consort of the late Prince Kikumaro, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Tadayoshi Shimazu; born Feb. 7th, 1902; widow, 1908.

Prince Takehiko has four brothers, Prince Yoshimaro (born 1901), Prince Fujimaro (born 1905), Prince Hagimaro (born 1906) and Prince Shigemaro (born 1908), who were all ordered to set up new houses and are now known as Marquis Yamashina, Marquis Tsukuba, Count Kashima (died Aug. 1932) and Count Katsuragi respectively. They are no longer members of the Imperial Family.

Kaya-no-Miya (Residence—Ichibancho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.)

Prince Tsunenori, head (2nd of the line) and eldest son of the late Prince Kuniyoshi. Born Jan. 27th, 1900. Graduated from the Military Academy in 1921 and then from the Military Staff College in 1926; is now Major of Cavalry and instructor at the Military Staff College; was for some time attached to the General Staff Office.

Dowager Princess Yoshiko, mother of Prince Tsunenori and eldest daughter of the late Marquis Tadayori Daigo. Born Oct. 20th, 1865. Married the late Prince Kikumaro in 1892; widow, 1910.

Princess Toshiko, consort of Prince Tsunenori and 5th daughter of Prince Michizane Kuno. Born May 26th, 1903; married Prince Tsunenori May 3rd, 1921.

Issue:—Four sons and a daughter.

Kuni-no-Miya (Residence—Miyashiro, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

Prince Asa-Akira, head (3rd of the line), eldest son of the late Marshal Prince Kuniyoshi Kuni. Born Feb. 2nd, 1900; studied at the Naval Academy; made Lieutenant in 1928; promoted to Lieut.-Commander in 1931; is now attached to the Naval Staff Board.

Princess Tomoko, consort of the above and 3rd daughter of Prince Hiroyasu Fushimi. Born May 18th, 1906; married the Prince Jan. 25th, 1925. Issue:—A son and two daughters.

Dowager Princess Chikako, mother of Prince Asa-Akira, 7th daughter of the late Prince Tadayoshi Shimazu. Born Oct. 9th, 1879; married the late Prince Kuniyoshi Dec. 13th, 1899; visited Europe with her husband in 1909; widow, January, 1929. Is also mother of the Empress Nagako.

(Prince Kunihide, 3rd son of the late Prince Kuniyoshi, born May 10th, 1910. Set up a new house in April, 1931, by Imperial order and is now known as Count Higashi Fushimi.

Prince Taka, 5th son of the late Prince Asahiko (1st of the line). Born 1875 in Kyoto; married Lady Shizuko, eldest daughter of the late Viscount Minase, in 1905. Is Grand Custodian of the Great Shrine at Ise. Has three sons and three daughters. (Residence—Kyoto).

Nashimoto-no-Miya (Residence—Bichiku-machi, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

Prince Morimasa, head and 2nd of the line, 4th son of the late Prince Asahiko; born March 9th, 1874. Field Marshal and Supreme War Councillor. Studied at a French Military School in 1903-04 and again in 1907-08; took part in the Russo-Japanese war (1904-05); after holding various high posts including the post of divisional commander was promoted to full General in 1923 and then appointed member of the Supreme War Council; Field Marshal, August, 1932. The Prince is Honorary President of the Franco-Japanese Society, the Japan Agricultural Association, the Japan Forestry Association, the Japan Martial Art Association, the Imperial Aero Association, the Italian Society of Japan, etc.

Princess Itsuko, consort of the above, 2nd daughter of the late Marquis Naotada Nabeshima; born Feb. 2nd, 1882; married Prince Morimasa Nov. 28th, 1900; made a tour in Europe with the Prince in 1908-09. Has two daughters.

Princess Masako, eldest daughter (born Nov. 4th, 1901). married in 1920 Prince Yi Gin, younger brother of the late Prince Yi Chiok and Heir of the former Royal House of Chosen.

Asaka-no-Miya (created in March 1906). (Residence—Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo).

Prince Yasuhiko, head, 8th son of the late Prince Asahiko Kuni. Studied at the Military Academy and then in France; Major-General and instructor at the Military Staff College in 1930, later appointed Commander of 1st Infantry Brigade; promoted to Lieut.-General and appointed Commander of the Imperial Guards Division in August 1933.

Princess Nobuko, consort of the above and 8th daughter of the late Emperor Meiji; born

Aug. 7th, 1891; married Prince Yasuhiko May 6th, 1909; visited Europe and America in 1925. Issue:—Two sons and two daughters.

Higashi Kuni-no-Miya (created in Nov., 1906). (Residence—Ichibeicho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo).

Prince Naruhiko, head, 9th son of the late Prince Asahiko Kuni; born Dec. 3rd, 1887; set up the present house in November, 1906, by order of the late Emperor Meiji. Studied at the Military Academy and later in France where he stayed from 1920 till 1926; married Princess Toshiko May 18th, 1915; Major-General and Commander of the 5th Infantry Brigade in August, 1930; promoted to Lieut.-General and appointed Commander of 2nd Army Division in August 1933; is Honorary President of the Press Association of Japan.

Princess Toshiko, consort of the above, is the youngest daughter of the late Emperor Meiji. Born May 11th, 1896; married the Prince May 11th, 1915. Issue.—Four sons.

Kita Shirakawa-no-Miya (Residence—Takanawa Minamicho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo).

Prince Nagahisa, head (4th of the line), eldest son of the late Prince Nagahisa; born Feb. 19th, 1910; succeeded to the title on the death in Paris of his father in 1923; graduated at the Military Academy; is Sub-Lieutenant of Artillery and attached to Field Artillery Regiment (Imperial Guard Division). The Prince has three sisters.

Dowager Princess Fusako, mother of the above and consort of the late Prince Narihisa; 7th daughter of the late Emperor Meiji. Born Jan. 28th, 1890; married Prince Narihisa Apr. 29th, 1909; went to France with the late Prince in 1922; widow 1923.

Dowager Princess Tomiko, mother of the late Prince Narihisa and consort of the late Prince Yoshihisa; adopted daughter of the late Prince Hisamitsu Shimazu. Was born Aug. 8th, 1862; married the late Prince Yoshihisa (2nd of the line) April, 1886; widow in 1895.

Takeda-no-Miya (Residence—Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo).

The House was created in March, 1906, by the late Prince Tsunehisa (died in 1910), eldest son of the late Prince Kitashirakawa, by order of the late Emperor Meiji.

Prince Tsuneyoshi, head (2nd of the line), eldest son of the late Prince Tsunehisa; born Feb. 2nd, 1910. Studied at the Military Academy; was appointed Sub-Lieutenant of Cavalry in 1930 and attached to the 1st Cavalry Regiment; promoted to Lieutenant in August 1933. Prince has a sister (Princess Ayako).

Dowager Princess Masako, mother of the above and consort of the late Prince Tsunehisa; is the 6th daughter of the late Emperor Meiji, born Sept. 30th, 1888; married the late Prince Tsunehisa Apr. 30th, 1908; widow in 1919. The Princess is Honorary President of the Tokyo Charity Association.

Kan-in-no-Miya (Residence—Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo).

The House was founded by Prince Naohito (1703-52 A.D.), eldest son of Higashiyama Tenno (114th Emperor).

Prince Kotohito, head (6th of the line), Field Marshal, Supreme War Councillor and Chief of General Staff. Is the 16th son of the late Prince Kuniie Fushimi; born Sept. 22nd, 1865; studied at the Military Preparatory School and then at the Military Academy; later studied at a French Military School; took part in the Japan-China and the Russo-Japanese wars; promoted to Lieut.-General in 1905; appointed Commander of the Imperial Guards Division in 1906; promoted to General and made Supreme War Councillor in 1912; Field Marshal in 1919; appointed Chief of General Staff, Dec. 1931. In 1921 the Prince accompanied the Crown Prince (present Emperor) on his tour to Europe. The Prince is Hon. President of the Japan Red Cross Society, the Japan Sericultural Association, the Franco-Japanese Society, the Russo-Japanese Society, the Tokyo Geological Society, the Military Club, the Tokyo Club and many other similar bodies.

Princess Chieko, consort of the above, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Sanetomi Sanjo; born May 25th, 1872. Married the Prince Dec. 19th, 1891. The Princess is Honorary President of the Japan Women's Education Association and of the Japan Red Cross Voluntary Nurses' Association. Issue: A son and four daughters.

Prince Haruhito, 2nd son of Prince Kotohito, born Aug. 3rd, 1902. Studied at the Peers' School and then at the Military Academy; is now Captain of Cavalry attached to the cavalry regiment of the Imperial Guards Division.

Princess Naoko, consort of the above, 4th daughter of the late Prince Saneteru Ichijo; born Nov. 7th, 1908; married Prince Haruhito July 14th, 1928.

Higashi Fushimi-no-Miya (Residence—Tokiwamatsu, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

The House was set up by the late Adm. Prince Yorihiro, 17th son of the late Prince Kuniie Fushimi, and younger brother of Marshal Prince Kan-in. The Prince died heirless in 1922.

Dowager Princess Kaneko, consort of the late Prince Yorihiro and eldest daughter of the late Prince Tomosada Iwakura. Born Aug. 29th, 1876; married the late Prince Feb. 10th, 1898; widow in 1922. The Princess is Honorary President of the Ladies' Patriotic Association and also of the Women's Hygiene Association.

Royal House of Chosen

Yi, the former royal family of Chosen (Korea). Prince Gin, head of the family and younger brother of Prince Chiok (the late head of the house), born October 20th 1897 in Keijo (Seoul). Brought up in the royal palace in the former Korean capital but later moved to Tokyo to receive education. Graduated from the Military Academy in Tokyo in 1920; promoted to Captain and attached to 2nd infantry regiment of the Imperial Guards Division in 1926; later attached to the General Staff Office; is now Lieut.-Colonel and attached to the Military Education Department. Married Princess Masako in 1920; visited Europe in 1927 for study and observation, accompanied by Princess Masako. (Residence in Tokyo—Kioicho Kojimachi-ku).

Princess Masako, consort of the above, eldest daughter of H.L.H. Prince Morimasa Nashimoto; born November 4th 1901; married Prince Gin in 1920. (Issue: a son)

Princess Im, consort of the late Prince Chiok Yi, born September 16th 1894; widow in 1926. (Residence—Seoul, Chosen).

Prince Yi Ken, eldest son of Prince Yi Kang, born October 28 1909. Graduated at the Military Academy; is 2nd Sub-Lieutenant of Cavalry. (Residence—Tokiwamatsu, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

Princess Yoshiko, consort of the above, eldest daughter of Hiroshi Matsudaira; born Oc-

tober 6th 1911; married the Prince in October 1931. (Issue—a son)

Prince Yi Kang, 5th son of the late Grand Prince Yi and father of Prince Yi Ken; born March 30th 1877.

Princess Kin, consort of the above and eldest daughter of the late Baron Kin; born December 22nd 1878; married October 29th 1893.

Prince Yi Gu, 2nd son of Prince Yi Kang; born November 11th 1912.

(Residence—Tokiwamatsu, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

The Imperial House Law was enacted and promulgated simultaneously with the Constitution on February 11th, 1889. The text of the law is given hereunder:—

CHAPTER I.—Succession to the Imperial Throne

ART. I.—The Imperial Throne of Japan shall be succeeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors.

ART. II.—The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest son.

ART. III.—When there is no Imperial eldest son, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest grandson. When there is neither Imperial eldest son nor any male descendant of his, it shall be succeeded to by the Imperial son next in age, and so on in every successive case.

ART. IV.—For succession to the Imperial Throne by an Imperial descendant, the one of full blood shall have precedence over descendants of half blood. The succession to the Imperial Throne by the latter shall be limited to those cases only in which there is no Imperial descendant of full blood.

ART. V.—When there is no Imperial descendant, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial brother and by his descendants.

ART. VI.—When there is no such Imperial brother or descendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial uncle and his descendants.

ART. VII.—When there is neither such Imperial uncle nor descendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the next nearest member among the rest of the Imperial Family.

ART. VIII.—Among the Imperial brothers and

the remoter Imperial relations, precedence shall be given, in the same degree, to the descendants of full blood, and to the elder over the younger.

ART. IX.—When the Imperial heir is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists, the order of succession may be changed in accordance with foregoing provisions, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER II.—Ascension and Coronation

ART. X.—Upon the demise of the Emperor, the Imperial heir shall ascend the Throne and shall acquire the Divine Treasures of the Imperial Ancestors.

ART. XI.—The ceremonies of Coronation shall be performed and a Grand Coronation Banquet (Daijosai) shall be held at Kyoto.

ART. XII.—Upon an ascension to the Throne, a new era shall be inaugurated, and the name of it shall remain unchanged during the whole reign in agreement with the established rule of the 1st year of Meiji.

CHAPTER III.—Majority, Institution of Empress and of Heir-Apparent

ART. XIII.—The Emperor, the "Kotaiishi", and the "Kotaison" shall attain their majority at eighteen full years of age.

ART. XIV.—Members of the Imperial Family, other than those mentioned in the preceding article, shall attain their majority at twenty full years of age.

ART. XV.—The son of the Emperor who is Heir-Apparent, shall be called "Kotaiishi." In case there is no Kotaiishi, the Imperial grandson who is Heir-Apparent shall be called "Kotaison".

ART. XVI.—The Institution of Empress and that of "Kotaiishi" or of "Kotaison" shall be proclaimed by an Imperial Rescript.

CHAPTER IV.—Styles of Address

ART. XVII.—The style of address for the Emperor, the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager, and of the Empress shall be "His", or "Her", or "Your Majesty".

ART. XVIII.—The Kotaiishi and his consort, the Kotaison and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, and the Princesses shall be styled "His", "Her", "Their", or "Your Highness" or "Highnesses".

CHAPTER V.—Regency

ART. XIX.—When the Emperor is a minor a Regency shall be instituted. When he is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing, a Regency shall be instituted, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

ART. XX.—The Regency shall be assumed by the Kotaiishi or the Kotaison, being of full age of majority.

ART. XXI.—When there is neither "Kotaiishi" nor "Kotaison", or when the "Kotaiishi" or "Kotaison" has not yet arrived at his majority, the Regency shall be assumed in the following order:—

1. An Imperial Prince or a Prince.
2. The Empress.
3. The Empress Dowager.
4. The Grand Empress Dowager.
5. An Imperial Princess or a Princess.

ART. XXII.—In case the Regency shall be assumed from among the male members of the Imperial Family, it shall be done in agreement with the order of succession to the Imperial Throne. The same shall apply to the case of female members of the Imperial Family.

ART. XXIII.—A female member of the Imperial Family chosen to assume the Regency shall be exclusively one who has no consort.

ART. XXIV.—When, on account of the minority of the nearest related member of the Imperial Family, or for some other cause, another member has to assume the Regency, the latter shall not, upon the arrival at majority of the above-mentioned nearest related member, or upon the disappearance of the aforesaid cause, resign his or her post in favor of any person other than of the Kotaiishi or of the Kotaison.

ART. XXV.—When a Regent, or one who should become such, is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists therefor, the order of the Regency may be changed, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER VI.—The Imperial Governor

ART. XXVI.—When the Emperor is a minor, an Imperial Governor shall be appointed to take charge of his up-bringing and of his education.

ART. XXVII.—In case no Imperial Governor has been nominated in the will of the preceding Emperor, the Regent shall appoint one,

with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

ART. XXVIII.—Neither the Regent nor any of his descendants can be appointed Imperial Governor.

ART. XXIX.—The Imperial Governor can not be removed from his post by the Regent, unless upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council and upon that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER VII.—The Imperial Family

ART. XXX.—The term "Imperial Family" shall include the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager, the Empress, the "Kotaiishi" and his consort, the "Kotaison" and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, and the Princesses.

ART. XXXI.—From Imperial sons to Imperial great-grand-grand-sons, Imperial male descendants shall be called Imperial Princes; and from Imperial daughters to Imperial great-grand-grand daughters Imperial female descendants shall be called Imperial Princesses. From the fifth generation downwards, male descendants shall be called Princes and female Princesses.

ART. XXXII.—When the Imperial Throne is succeeded to by a member of a branch line, the title of Imperial Prince or Imperial Princess shall be specially granted to the Imperial brothers and sisters, being already Princes or Princesses.

ART. XXXIII.—Births, namings, marriages, and deaths in the Imperial Family shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

ART. XXXIV.—Genealogical and other records relating to the matters mentioned in the preceding Article shall be kept in the Imperial archives.

ART. XXXV.—The members of the Imperial Family shall be under the control of the Emperor.

ART. XXXVI.—When a Regency is instituted, the Regent shall exercise the power of control referred to in the preceding Article.

ART. XXXVII.—When a member, male or female, of the Imperial Family is a minor and has been bereft of his or her father, officials of the Imperial Court shall be ordered to take charge of his or her up-bringing and education. In certain circumstances, the Emperor may either approve the guardian chosen by his or her parent, or nominate one.

ART. XXXVIII.—The guardian of a member of the Imperial Family must be himself a member thereof and of age.

ART. XXXIX.—Marriages of members of the Imperial Family shall be restricted to the circle of the Family, or to certain noble families specially approved by Imperial Order.

ART. XL.—Marriages of the members of the Imperial Family shall be subject to the sanction of the Emperor.

ART. XLI.—The Imperial writs sanctioning the marriages of members of the Imperial Family, shall bear the counter-signature of the Minister of the Imperial Household.

ART. XLII.—No member of the Imperial Family can adopt any one as his son.

ART. XLIII.—When a member of the Imperial Family wishes to travel beyond the boundaries of the Empire, he shall first obtain the sanction of the Emperor.

ART. XLIV.—A female member of the Imperial Family, who has married a subject, shall be excluded from membership of the Imperial Family. However, she may be allowed, by special grace of the Emperor, to retain her title of Imperial Princess or Princess, as the case may be.

CHAPTER VIII.—Imperial Hereditary Estates

ART. XLV.—No landed or other property, that has been fixed as the Imperial Hereditary Estates, shall be divided up and alienated.

ART. XLVI.—The landed or other property to be included in the Imperial Hereditary Estates shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

CHAPTER IX.—Expenditures of the Imperial House

ART. XLVII.—The expenditures of the Imperial House of all kinds shall be defrayed out of the National Treasury at a certain fixed amount.

ART. XLVIII.—The estimates and audit of accounts of the expenditures of the Imperial House and all other rules of the kind, shall be regulated by the Finance Regulations of the Imperial House.

CHAPTER X.—Litigations, Disciplinary Rules for the Members of the Imperial Family

ART. XLIX.—Litigation between members of the Imperial Family shall be decided by judicial functionaries specially designed by the Em-

peror to the Department of the Imperial Household, and execution issued after Imperial sanction thereto has been obtained.

ART. L.—Civil actions brought by private individuals against members of the Imperial Family, shall be decided in the Court of Appeal in Tokyo. Members of the Imperial Family shall, however, be represented by attorneys, and no personal attendance in the Court shall be required of them.

ART. LI.—No members of the Imperial Family can be arrested, or summoned before a Court of Law, unless the sanction of the Emperor has been first obtained thereto.

ART. LII.—When a member of the Imperial Family has committed an act derogatory to his (or her) dignity, or when he has exhibited disloyalty to the Imperial House, he shall, by way of disciplinary punishment and by order of the Emperor, be deprived of the whole or part of the privileges belonging to him as a member of the Imperial Family, or shall be suspended therefrom.

ART. LIII.—When a member of the Imperial Family acts in a way tending to the squandering of his (or her) property, he shall be pronounced incapable by the Emperor, prohibited from administering his property, and a manager shall be appointed therefor.

ART. LIV.—The two foregoing Articles shall be enforced upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council.

CHAPTER XI.—The Imperial Family Council

ART. LV.—The Imperial Family Council shall be composed of the male members of the Imperial Family, who have reached the age of majority. The Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, the President of the Privy Council, the Minister of the Imperial Household, the Minister of State for Justice, and the President of the Court of Cassation shall be ordered to take part in the deliberations of the Council.

ART. LVI.—The Emperor personally presides over the meetings of the Imperial Family Council, or directs one of the members of the Imperial Family to do so.

CHAPTER XII.—Supplementary Rules

ART. LVII.—Those of the present members of the Imperial Family of the fifth generation and downwards, who have already been invested with the title of Imperial Prince, shall retain the same as heretofore.

ART. LVIII.—The order of succession to the Imperial Throne shall in every case relate to descendants of direct lineage. There shall be no admission to this line of succession of any one, as a consequence of his now being an adopted Imperial son, Koyushi or heir to a princely house.

ART. LIX.—The grades of rank among the Imperial Princes and Princesses shall be abolished.

ART. LX.—The family rank of Imperial Princes and all usages conflicting with the present law shall be abolished.

ART. LXI.—The property, annual expenses, and all other rules concerning the members of the Imperial Family, shall be specially determined.

ART. LXII.—When in the future it shall become necessary either to amend or make addition to the present law, the matter shall be decided by the Emperor, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

Additional Rules

(Promulgated Feb. 11, 1907)

ART. I.—A Prince may be created a peer, either by order of the Emperor or at his own wish, with family name to be granted by the Emperor.

ART. II.—A Prince may, with the sanction of the Emperor, become heir of a peer or be adopted as his son with a view to becoming his heir.

ART. III.—The consorts, lineal descendants and their wives, of the Prince who has been excluded from membership of the Imperial Family for the reason stated in the two foregoing Articles are also excluded from membership of the Imperial Family as members of the family of the Prince who has become a subject. The rule does not, however, apply to those female members of the Imperial Family who have married other members of the Imperial Family or their lineal descendants.

ART. IV.—A member of the Imperial Family, who has been deprived of the privileges belonging to him as a member of the Imperial Family, may be excluded from membership of the Imperial Family and placed in the rank of subjects by order of the Emperor. The consort of a member of the Imperial Family who has been excluded from membership of the Imperial Family and placed in the rank of subjects in

accordance with the foregoing Article is also excluded from membership of the Imperial Family and placed in the rank of subjects.

ART. V.—In the cases mentioned in Arts. I, II and IV (of the present additional rules), the matter shall be decided with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and that of the Privy Council.

ART. VI.—A member of the Imperial Family, who has been excluded from membership of the Imperial Family, cannot be reinstated as member of the Imperial Family.

ART. VII.—Regulations pertaining to the legal status of the members of the Imperial Family and the limits of their competence, other than those provided elsewhere in the present law, shall be defined separately. Regarding affairs in which are involved the interests of a member of the Imperial Family and a subject or subjects and in which different regulations apply to the respective parties, such regulations shall apply.

ART. VIII.—Those provisions of laws and ordinances designated as applicable to the members of the Imperial Family shall apply to them only in cases where no particular regulations are specially provided for in the present law or such regulations as are issued in accordance with the present law.

Additional Rule

(Promulgated Nov. 23, 1908)

A female member of the Imperial Family can marry a male member of "Ozoku" or "Kozoku" (former Royal Family of Korea).

GENEALOGY OF THE IMPERIAL HOUSE

Names of Emperors		Number of years after Jimmu Tenno	Period of reign (years)	B.C.
1st Jimmu	Tenno	1	76	660
2nd Suizei	"	80	33	581
3rd Annei	"	113	38	548
4th Itoku	"	151	34	510
5th Kosho	"	186	83	475
6th Koan	"	269	102	392
7th Korei	"	371	76	290
8th Kogen	"	447	57	214
9th Kaika	"	504	60	157
10th Sujin	"	564	68	97
11th Suinin	"	632	99	29
				A.D.
12th Keiko	"	731	60	71
13th Seimu	"	791	60	131
14th Chuai	"	852	9	192

Names of Emperors	Number of years after Jimmu Tenno	Period of reign (years)	A.D.	Names of Emperors	Number of years after Jimmu Tenno	Period of reign (years)	A.D.
Empress Jingo (Regent) ..	861	69	201	61st Suiryaku ..	1590	16	930
15th Ojin Tenno	930	41	270	62nd Murakami ..	1606	21	946
16th Nintoku ..	973	87	313	63rd Reizei ..	1627	2	967
17th Riehu ..	1060	6	400	64th Enyu ..	1629	15	969
18th Hanzei ..	1066	6	406	65th Kazan ..	1644	2	984
19th Ingyo ..	1072	42	412	66th Ichijo ..	1646	25	986
20th Anko ..	1113	3	453	67th Sanjo ..	1671	5	1011
21st Yuryaku ..	1116	23	456	68th Goichijo ..	1676	20	1016
22nd Seinei ..	1140	5	480	69th Gosujoyaku ..	1696	9	1036
23rd Kenso ..	1145	3	485	70th Goreizei ..	1705	23	1045
24th Ninken ..	1148	11	488	71st Gosanjo ..	1728	4	1068
25th Buretsu ..	1158	8	498	72nd Shirakawa ..	1732	14	1072
26th Keitai ..	1167	25	507	73rd Horikawa ..	1746	21	1086
27th Ankan ..	1191	4	531	74th Toba ..	1767	16	1107
28th Senka ..	1195	4	535	75th Sutoku ..	1783	18	1123
29th Kimmei ..	1199	32	539	76th Konoye ..	1801	14	1141
30th Bidatsu ..	1232	14	572	77th Goshirakawa Tenno ..	1815	3	1155
31st Yomei ..	1245	2	585	78th Nijo ..	1818	7	1158
32nd Sushun ..	1247	5	587	79th Rokujo ..	1825	3	1165
33rd Suiko Tenno (Em-press) ..	1252	36	592	80th Takakura ..	1828	12	1168
34th Jomei Tenno ..	1289	13	629	81st Antoku ..	1840	5	1180
35th Kogyoku Tenno (Em-press) ..	1302	3	642	82nd Gotoba ..	1845	14	1185
36th Kotoku Tenno ..	1305	10	645	83rd Tsuchimikado ..	1858	12	1198
37th Saimei Tenno (Em-press) ..	1315	7	655	84th Juntoku ..	1870	10	1210
38th Tenji Tenno ..	1321	10	661	85th Chukyo ..	1881	1	1221
39th Kobun ..	1331	1	671	86th Gohorikawa ..	1881	11	1221
40th Temmu ..	1333	14	673	87th Shijo ..	1892	11	1232
41st Jito Tenno (Empress) ..	1346	10	686	88th Gosaga ..	1902	4	1242
42nd Mommu Tenno ..	1357	11	697	89th Gofukakusa ..	1906	13	1246
43rd Gemmei Tenno (Em-press) ..	1367	7	707	90th Kameyama ..	1919	15	1259
44th Gensho Tenno (Em-press) ..	1375	9	715	91st Gouda ..	1934	13	1274
45th Shomu Tenno ..	1384	25	724	92nd Fushimi ..	1947	11	1287
46th Koken Tenno (Em-press) ..	1409	10	749	93rd Gofushimi ..	1958	3	1298
47th Junnin Tenno ..	1418	7	758	94th Gonijo ..	1961	7	1301
48th Shotoku Tenno (Em-press) ..	1424	5	764	95th Hanzono ..	1968	10	1308
49th Konin Tenno ..	1430	11	770	96th Godaigo ..	1978	20	1318
50th Kammu ..	1441	26	781	97th Gomurakami ..	1999	29	1339
51st Heizei ..	1466	3	806	98th Chokei ..	2028	15	1368
52nd Saga ..	1469	14	809	99th Gokameyama ..	2043	9	1383
53rd Juna ..	1483	10	823	100th Gokomatsu ..	2052	21	1392
54th Nimmyo ..	1493	17	833	101st Shoko ..	2072	16	1412
55th Montoku ..	1510	8	850	102nd Gohanazono ..	2089	36	1429
56th Seiwa ..	1518	18	858	103rd Gotsuchimikado ..	2124	36	1464
57th Yozei ..	1536	8	876	104th Gokashibara ..	2160	26	1500
58th Koko ..	1544	3	884	105th Gonara ..	2186	31	1526
59th Uda ..	1547	10	887	106th Ogimachi ..	2217	29	1557
60th Daigo ..	1557	33	897	107th Goyozei ..	2246	25	1586
				108th Gomidzuno-o ..	2271	18	1611
				109th Meisho Tenno (Em-press) ..	2289	14	1629
				110th Gokomyo Tenno ..	2303	11	1643
				111th Gosain ..	2314	8	1654
				112th Reigen ..	2323	24	1663
				113th Higashiyama ..	2347	23	1687

THE IMPERIAL ESTATE AND CIVIL LIST

The civil list was formerly three million yen, but was increased to four and half a million yen in 1910.

The land and other property belonging to the Emperor is divided into hereditary and ordinary estates. As existing at the end of 1931, the Court owned 1,302,062 "cho" (about 3,190,091.90 acres) of landed estates consisting of palace grounds, other building land, forests, farm land, etc., the figure being composed of 209,090 "cho" (about 512,160.50 acres) of hereditary estate and 1,092,972 "cho" (about 2,677,781.30 acres) of ordinary estate, the whole being valued at about 650,000,000 yen, the details being as follows:—

Names of Emperors	Number of years after Jimmu Tenno	Period of reign (years)	A.D.
114th Nakamikado ..	2369	26	1709
115th Sakuramachi ..	2395	12	1735
116th Momozono ..	2407	15	1747
117th Gosakuramachi ..	2422	8	1762
(Empress)			
118th Gomomozono Tenno ..	2430	9	1770
119th Kokaku ..	2439	37	1779
120th Ninko ..	2477	30	1817
121st Komei ..	2506	20	1846
122nd Meiji ..	2527	45	1867
123rd Taisho ..	2572	15	1912
124th Present Emperor	2586		1926

Area of Crown Landed Estates
(at the end of 1929)

	Palace grounds	Forests	Farmland	Building land	Other	Total
Hereditary	478	207,279	1,232	37	64	209,090
Ordinary	219	1,034,275	56,161	199	2,118	1,092,972
Total	697	1,241,554	57,393	236	2,182	1,302,062
Do. for 1928	685	1,244,938	69,075	241	2,172	1,317,111
Do. for 1926	677	1,359,480	162,352	311	5,416	1,528,236
Do. for 1924	677	1,370,815	164,259	346	4,702	1,540,799

The above figures are in units of "cho", one "cho" corresponding to about 2.45 acres, so that the total area covers about 3,283,872.85 acres (1,340,193 "cho"). The total area for 1927, compared with the figures for 1924 and 1926, shows a decrease of 491,084.70 and 460,305.35 acres respectively. In consideration of the food question and so forth, the Imperial Court several years ago decided to sell or otherwise transfer to public or private ownership part of the Crown estate, and in 1921 such transfer was made to the extent of 289,259.25 acres of land and forest, that is, about 26.6 percent of the total area of the hereditary estates, which at the end of 1929 was returned as 539,305.35 acres. Further in 1930 the Court decided to discontinue the detached palace at Nagoya and six Imperial villas in the provinces to save the expenditure involved in their maintenance, the Nagoya palace having been donated to Nagoya City.

There were besides buildings, household effects, and furniture, live stock and many other items. Then the Court owns shares of several banking and other business concerns such as the Bank of Japan, the Yokohama Specie Bank, the Hypothec Bank of Japan, the Industrial Bank of Japan, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the

Imperial Hotel, etc., all these coming up to hundreds of millions of yen.

IMPERIAL PROPERTY LAW

The Law as gazetted in December 1910 and put in force in January 1911 provides that the land and other property belonging to the Emperor is divided into hereditary and personal property, and that for all the judicial proceedings affecting the property the Minister of the Imperial Household is held responsible. The ordinary civil or commercial law is applicable to the property only when it does not conflict with the Imperial House Law and the present law. No hereditary landed estate can be newly used for any other purpose except those of public utility, or undertakings sanctioned by the Emperor. The property of the members of the Imperial House is subject to levy when it does not conflict with the Imperial House Law or the present law. However, this does not apply to the estates belonging to the Grand Empress Dowager, Empress Dowager, Empress, Heir-Apparent, his consort, eldest son and his consort, and other unmarried members of the Imperial Family who have not yet attained majority.

THE IMPERIAL HOUSEHOLD DEPARTMENT

The Imperial Household Department controls and conducts all affairs relating to the Imperial Household, members of the Imperial family, Peers, etc., and is independent of the Government departments, its offices being located in the compounds of the Imperial Palace. The Department is divided into several boards or bureaus, including the Board of Chamberlains, the Board of Masters of Ceremonies, Board of the Imperial Families and Peerage, the Board of the Imperial Mausolea, the Board of Archives, the Board of Court Physicians, the Imperial Treasury, the Bureau of Architecture, the Bureau of Imperial Mews and the Bureau of Culinary Affairs. Besides these and not subject to the control of the Household Department, there are also in the Imperial Palace the Offices of the Lord-Keeper of the Privy Seal, the Temporary Bureau of Compilation, the Imperial Board of Audit, the Imperial Forest and Estate Bureau, the Imperial Poetry Bureau, etc. Attached to the Household Department and placed under control of the Minister of the Imperial Household are also the Peers' School, the Peeresses' School and the Imperial Household Museums, these being, however, located at different places outside of the Imperial Palace grounds. The chief official of the Imperial Household Department is the Minister of the Imperial Household, who, besides supervising the affairs of the Department also acts as adviser to the Emperor on all matters relating to the Imperial Household and controls the peers (including Chosen peers), and in executing his official duties he is assisted by a Vice-Minister. Besides those mentioned above and apart from the officials of the Imperial Household Department, there are several important offices such as Court Ritualists who have charge of the Imperial Sanctuary known as the "Kashiko-Dokoro" and the Imperial Ancestral Halls known as "Koreiden" and "Shinden" and officiate at all religious ceremonies conducted at the Imperial Court, Chief Aide-de-Camp and Aides-de-Camp to the Emperor, Lord Steward to the Empress, Lord Steward to the Empress Dowager, etc., who usually attend the Emperor, the Empress or the Empress Dowager respectively. Then there are Court Councillors, Lords-in-Waiting at the Jako Hall and Lords-in-Waiting at the Kinkei Hall, which are, however, all mere honorary posts or titles and have no particular duties

assigned to the holders thereof. All these constitute what generally goes by the term "Court officials."

The total number of officials in the service of the Imperial Household, as existing at the end of 1931, stood at 4,713, the figure including 2,169 employes, the stipend for the entire force amounting to 4,277,955 yen for one year.

The present Minister of the Imperial Household Department is Kurahei Yuasa and the Vice-Minister is Masao Oya. Count N. Makino, former Foreign Minister, is Lord-Keeper of the Privy Seal.

PRIVY COUNCIL.—Besides the Household Department there is in the Imperial Household a special organ acting as advising body to the Emperor on all important affairs of State. This special organ named "Sumitsu-in" or Privy Council, consists of 26 members with its own President and Vice-President, the members being all veteran statesmen who played very important parts in the administration, and though no longer taking an active share in it, their age and prestige entitle them to universal respect. The functions of the Privy Council are chiefly of a consultative nature. It meets to deliberate on any important matter of State, when its opinion is asked for by the Emperor, and advises him according to its lights. The principal matters on which it is usually consulted are those which come under the jurisdiction of the Imperial House Law, all important legislations, relating to Articles of the Constitution, the issuing of proclamations of the law of siege and of Imperial ordinances and all matters relating to international treaties and pledges, etc. (Also see Chapter on Politics).

DECORATIONS

There exist eight kinds of decorations, viz., the Grand Order of Merit; the Grand Cordon of Chrysanthemum, the Grand Order of Chrysanthemum, and the Grand Cordon of Rising Sun and Paulownia (all granted only to the holders of the Grand Order of Merit); the Order of Rising Sun (1st to 6th grade); the Order of Sacred Treasure (1st to 8th grade) granted both to men and women; the Order of Crown (1st to 8th grade and only for women); and lastly the Military Order of the Golden Kite (1st to 7th grade). Besides there exists the Collar of the Chrysanthemum, a special mark of honor granted to those holding the Grand Order of Merit. The Order of Rising Sun sometimes carries an annuity. The

Collar of Chrysanthemum, the Grand Order of Merit and the Grand Cordon of Chrysanthemum are the highest honors accessible to Japanese subjects.

The Golden Kite carries an annuity, ranging from 1,500 yen a year granted to a holder of the 1st grade and 150 yen granted to a holder of the 7th and lowest grade.

Then there are the Blue-ribbon medals conferred on ordinary people who distinguished themselves in the cause of public utility; the Green-ribbon medals conferred on those distinguished for filial piety, and the Red-ribbon medals conferred on those who rescue human lives at the peril of their own.

The Collar of Chrysanthemum, Grand Order of Merit and Grand Cordon of Chrysanthemum, the highest honour accessible to Japanese, have been granted to the following personages exclusive of the Imperial Princes and mentioning only those who are alive:—

Prince Saionji and Fleet Admiral Count Togo (Grand Order of Merit & Collar of Chrysanthemum); Admiral Count Yamamoto (Grand Order of Merit & Grand Cordon of Chrysanthemum).

The holders of the 1st grade golden kite order, who are alive, are Fleet Admiral Count Togo, Admiral Count Yamamoto and General Baron Oi.

Number of Decorations and Holders thereof

Order of Merit	Chrysan- themum	Rising Sun & Paulownia	Rising Sun	Sacred Treasure	Crown	Golden Kite	No. of Holders
G.C.C.	3	—	—	—	—	—	3
G.C.	15	43	—	—	—	—	46
1st	—	—	108	217	22	3	329
2nd	—	—	318	1,011	19	27	1,148
3rd	—	—	697	6,583	3	207	6,629
Total with lower grade	18	43	700,177	543,397	2,039	60,804	1,221,492

G.C.C.—Grand Cordon with Collar. G.C.—Grand Cordon.

N.B.—Those holding more than one order being counted by the highest order they wear, the actual number of order does not agree with that of holders.

The number of decorations presented to or conferred on foreigners in recent years is shown below:—

	G.O.M.	1st O.M.	2nd O.M.	3rd O.M.	4th O.M.	5th O.M.	6th O.M.	7th O.M.	8th O.M.	Total
1927.....	1	25	12	31	19	11	1	1	1	102
1928.....	—	26	16	30	32	12	1	—	—	117
1929.....	2	4	10	12	6	8	2	—	—	50
1930.....	1	6	1	8	6	7	2	—	—	32
1931.....	1	11	4	6	11	4	1	2	1	41

G.O.M.—Grand Order of Merit. O.M.—Order of Merit.

THE PEERAGE, COURT RANK, ETC.

Though the peerage as a distinct social rank dates only from 1884, it practically existed from ancient times, courtiers or Kuge and feudal princes or Daimyo of olden days corresponding to the Peers of today. The Peerage is divided into five grades, viz. Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount and Baron. There is no intermediate rank corresponding to the British baronetcy. By origin the Japanese Peers may be classified into four distinct groups, i.e., those who are descendants of the former courtiers or Kuge; descendants of the former Raimyo; those created Peers in recent times, and lastly Korean Peers who were created after the annexation. The number of Peers (exclusive of Korean peers) as in August 1933 was as follows:—

Prince 19, Marquis 39, Count 110, Viscount 379, Baron 411; Total 958.

KOREAN PEERS.—In Oct. 1910, 67 distinguished Koreans including five members of the former Royal family, were created Peers, i.e. 6 Marquises, 3 Counts, 22 Viscounts, and 45 Barons. The new Peers were given monetary grants. The number of the Korean peers at the end of 1931 was 7 Marquises, 3 Counts, 18 Viscounts and 33 Barons, making a total of 61.

HEREDITARY PRIVILEGE.—Japan has no life-peers, all the Peers being hereditary. A nobleman may be degraded either by his voluntary surrender of the honour or by order of the Court, when he disgraces the rank. Cases of lapsing of the title owing to the successor of a deceased Peer not being reported within one year have occurred now and then lately, such

practice no longer considered as disrespectful to the Court as before.

COURT RANK.—These are called "ikai" or "kurai", and are graded into eight classes, each of a senior and a junior degree, this "ikai" being given only to Japanese subjects, and serves to determine precedence, when there are no decorations or other conventional marks to settle it. Thus a holder of a senior degree of the 3rd grade of "ikai" is entitled to take precedence over one whose "ikai" is a junior degree of the same grade. A Peer bears as a matter of course "ikai" differing according to his rank, a 4th grade for a Baron, for instance. A number of wealthy merchants possess "ikai" generally in consideration of their contributions of money for public purposes.

POSTHUMOUS HONOURS.—The peculiar custom of conferring posthumous honours still lingers

in Japan though it was abolished years ago in China, the country of its origin. The idea is based on the principle of ancestor-worship. Theoretically the honour is a parting gift to one on his death-bed, and is granted with this official announcement: "Promoted by one degree for special consideration." In most cases the honour is posthumous, as it usually comes after the death of the beneficiary and the Japanese of exalted rank have therefore two different dates of death, i.e. physiological dissolution and official death. What is still more interesting is that notable persons dead several centuries before are sometimes honoured in this way. The granting of a peerage has also occasionally been posthumous, and a Barony that is conferred on a distinguished man on his death-bed or after his death, falls to his heir.

CHAPTER VI

POLITICS AND POLITICAL PARTIES

1. THE CONSTITUTION

The constitutional movement in Japan, unlike similar agitations in many other countries, was a logical sequel to the reform of the Restoration of 1868,—a reform largely based on the idea of Europeanizing the country. It was not inaugurated with the motive restricting the power of the Sovereign, or settling the problem of "taxation and representation."

It was in 1874, the year following the split in the Council of State over the Korean question, that the regular constitutional movement first made its appearance in Japan. Among the politicians who undertook the constructive work of the Restoration, there were men of two distinct types, one civilian, and the other military, the former belonging in thought to the old "Kaikoku-to" party advocating the principle of opening the country, and the latter to "Joi-to" (Anti-Foreign) party. When they saw that even the national existence was in jeopardy at the critical moment of Restoration, their high sense of duty and patriotism bid them work in concert in the interest of national unification and for effecting the necessary reconstruction. But the great task over, collision between the two was inevitable sooner or later. The Korean question furnished such an occasion and the Council of State became sharply divided over it, the affair ending in the resignation of those who were defeated. Shortly after they had left office, some of them began to take up an agitation aimed at the establishment of a national assembly, and publicly charged those who remained in office with determining the policies of State on their own arbitrary judgment. The agitation was entirely novel to the general public who had been inured to absolutism for centuries, and produced a wonderful effect on their mentality. So wide spread became this movement that the Government was forced to establish quasi-legislative institutions such as "Genro-in" (Senate), a High Court of Justice named "Taishin-in," and an Assembly

of Prefectural Governors to ask their opinion about establishing a national assembly.

The national assembly idea spread like a wild fire, and was even advocated by a member of the Council of State, Shigenobu Okuma (afterwards Marquis), who on his own sole discretion planned to establish a national assembly in 1883. His scheme met with strong opposition from all his colleagues. About this time the Government had decided to sell its industrial undertaking in Hokkaido to a private firm, and this evoked bitter and vehement public criticism when it was exposed by Okuma. On the 12th of October, 1881, the Government annulled the sale and at the same time issued an Imperial Decree commanding the establishment of a national assembly in 1890. In March 1882, Hirobumi Ito (later Prince) and his suite were dispatched to Europe to study the political institutions in the West with a view to prepare a Constitution for Japan. The mission returned home in 1884. While Ito was in Europe, he spent most of his time in Prussia. After his return he exerted all his influence and made every effort to introduce a bureaucracy after the Prussian type into Japan and, under his guidance, a Bureau for the investigation of Constitutional System was established in 1884 as an office subjoined to the Imperial Household Department, to carry out the work of drafting a Constitution. In this grave task Ito was assisted principally by Takeshi Inouye, (afterwards Viscount and Minister of Education), Miyoji Ito (now Count and Privy Councillor), Kentaro Kaneko (now Viscount and Privy Councillor) and some others. A constitution was duly framed, was submitted to and adopted by the Privy Council, and was promulgated on the 11th of February 1889. In the following year, the National Assembly or Imperial Diet, as it is called, was established, and thus Japan changed from an absolute monarchical state to a constitutional monarchy.

THE CONSTITUTION OF JAPAN

(Promulgated February 11, 1889)

CHAPTER I.—The Emperor

Article 1.—The Empire of Japan shall be reigned and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal.

Article 2.—The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by Imperial male descendants, according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

Article 3.—The Emperor is sacred and inviolable.

Article 4.—The Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in Himself the rights of sovereignty, and exercises them according to the provisions of the present Constitution.

Article 5.—The Emperor exercises legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet.

Article 6.—The Emperor gives sanction to laws, and orders them to be promulgated and exercised.

Article 7.—The Emperor convokes the Imperial Diet, opens, closes, and prorogues it, and dissolves the House of Representatives.

Article 8.—The Emperor, in consequence of any urgent necessity to maintain public safety or to avert public calamities, issues, when the Imperial Diet is not sitting, Imperial Ordinances in place of law.

Such Imperial Ordinances are to be laid before the Imperial Diet at its next session, and when the Diet does not approve the said Ordinances, the Government shall declare them to be invalid for the future.

Article 9.—The Emperor issues or causes to be issued, Ordinances necessary for the carrying out of the laws, or for the maintenance of public peace and order, and for the promotion of the welfare of the subjects. But no Ordinance shall in any way alter any of the existing laws.

Article 10.—The Emperor determines the organization of the different branches of the administration, and the salaries of all civil and military officers, and appoints and dismisses the same. Exceptions, especially provided for in the present Constitution or in other laws, shall be in accordance with the respective provisions (bearing thereon).

Article 11.—The Emperor has the supreme command of the Army and Navy.

Articles 12.—The Emperor determines the organization and peace standing of the Army and Navy.

Article 13.—The Emperor declares war, makes peace, and concludes treaties.

Article 14.—The Emperor proclaims the law of siege.

The conditions and effects of the law of siege shall be determined by law.

Article 15.—The Emperor confers titles of nobility, rank, orders and other marks of honor.

Article 16.—The Emperor orders amnesty, pardon, commutation of punishments, and rehabilitation.

Article 17.—A Regency shall be instituted in conformity with the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

The Regent shall exercise the powers appertaining to the Emperor in His name.

CHAPTER II.—Rights and Duties of Subjects

Article 18.—The conditions necessary for being a Japanese subject shall be determined by law.

Article 19.—Japanese subjects may, according to qualifications determined in laws or ordinances, be appointed to civil or military offices equally, and may fill any other public offices.

Article 20.—Japanese subjects are amenable to service in the Army and Navy, according to the provisions of law.

Article 21.—Japanese subjects are amenable to the duty of paying taxes, according to the provisions of law.

Article 22.—Japanese subjects shall have the liberty of abode and of changing the same within the limits of law.

Article 23.—No Japanese subject shall be arrested, detained, tried, or punished, unless according to law.

Article 24.—No Japanese subject shall be deprived of his right of being tried by the judges determined by law.

Article 25.—Except in the cases provided for in the law, the house of no Japanese subject shall be entered or searched without his consent.

Article 26.—Except in the cases mentioned in the law, the secrecy of the letters of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

Article 27.—The right of property of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

Measures necessary to be taken for the public benefit shall be provided for by law.

Article 28.—Japanese subjects shall, within the limits not prejudicial to peace and order, and not antagonistic to their duties as subjects, enjoy freedom of religious belief.

Article 29.—Japanese subjects shall, within the limits of law, enjoy liberty of speech, writing, publication, public meeting, and association.

Article 30.—Japanese subjects may present petitions, by observing the proper form of respect, and complying with the rules specially provided for the same.

Article 31.—The provisions contained in the present chapter shall not affect the exercise of the powers appertaining to the Emperor, in time of war or in case of a national emergency.

Article 32.—Each and every one of the provisions contained in the preceding Articles of the present chapter, that are not in conflict with the laws or the rules and discipline of the Army and Navy, shall apply to officers and men of the Army and of the Navy.

CHAPTER III.—The Imperial Diet

Article 33.—The Imperial Diet shall consist of two Houses, a House of Peers and a House of Representatives.

Article 34.—The House of Peers shall, in accordance with the Ordinance concerning the House of Peers, be composed of the members of the Imperial Family, of the orders of nobility, and of those persons who have been nominated thereto by the Emperor.

Article 35.—The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members elected by the people, according to the provisions of the Law of Election.

Article 36.—No one can at one and the same time be a Member of both Houses.

Article 37.—Every law requires the consent of the Imperial Diet.

Article 38.—Both Houses shall vote upon projects of law submitted to them by the Gov-

ernment, and may respectively initiate projects of law.

Article 39.—A Bill, which has been rejected by either the one or the other of the two Houses, shall not be brought in again during the same session.

Article 40.—Both Houses can make representation to the Government, as to laws or upon any other subjects. When, however, such representations are not accepted, they can not be made a second time during the same session.

Article 41.—The Imperial Diet shall be convoked every year.

Article 42.—A session of the Imperial Diet shall last for three months. In case of necessity, the duration of a session may be prolonged by Imperial Order.

Article 43.—When urgent necessity arises, an extraordinary session may be convoked, in addition to the ordinary one.

The duration of an extraordinary session shall be determined by Imperial Order.

Article 44.—The opening, closing, prolongation of session and prorogation of the Imperial Diet, shall be effected simultaneously for both Houses.

In case the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, the House of Peers shall at the same time be prorogued.

Article 45.—When the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, Members shall be caused by Imperial Order to be newly elected, and the new House shall be convoked within five months from the day of dissolution.

Article 46.—No debate can be opened and no vote can be taken in either House of the Imperial Diet, unless not less than one-third of the whole number of the Members thereof is present.

Article 47.—Votes shall be taken in both Houses by absolute majority. In the case of tie, the President shall have the casting vote.

Article 48.—The deliberations of both Houses shall be held in public. The deliberations may, however, upon demand of the Government or by resolution of the House, be held in secret setting.

Article 49.—Both Houses of the Imperial Diet may respectively present addresses to the Emperor.

Article 50.—Both Houses may receive petitions presented by subjects.

Article 51.—Both Houses may enact, besides what is provided for in the present Constitution and in the Law of the Houses, rules necessary for the management of their internal affairs.

Article 52.—No Member of either House shall be held responsible outside the respective Houses, for any opinion uttered or any vote given in the House. When, however, a Member himself has given publicity to his opinion by public speech, by documents in print or in writing or by any other similar means, he shall, in the matter, be amenable to the general law.

Article 53.—Members of both Houses may, during the session, be free from arrest, unless with the consent of the House, except in cases of flagrante delicto, or of offences connected with a state of internal commotion or with foreign trouble.

Article 54.—Ministers of State and the Delegates of the Government may, at any time, take a seat, and speak in either House.

CHAPTER IV.—The Ministers of State and the Privy Council

Article 55.—The respective Ministers of State shall give their advice to the Emperor, and be responsible for it.

All Laws, Imperial Ordinances, and Imperial Rescripts of whatever kind, that relate to the affairs of State, require the countersignature of a Minister of State.

Article 56.—The Privy Council shall, in accordance with the provisions for the organization of the Privy Council, deliberate upon important matters of State, when they have been consulted by the Emperor.

CHAPTER V.—The Judicature

Article 57.—The Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor.

The organization of the Courts of Law shall be determined by law.

Article 58.—The judges shall be appointed from among those who possess proper qualifications according to law.

No judge shall be deprived of his position, unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment.

Rules for disciplinary punishment shall be determined by law.

Article 59.—Trials and judgments of a Court shall be conducted publicly. When, however, there exists any fear that such publicity may be prejudicial to peace and order, or to the maintenance of public morality, the public trial may be suspended by provision of law or by the decision of the Court of Law.

Article 60.—All matters that fall within the competency of a special Court shall be especially provided for by law.

Article 61.—No suit at law, which relates to rights alleged to have been infringed by the illegal measures of the executive authorities, and which shall come within the competency of the Court of Administrative Litigation especially established by law, shall be taken cognizance of by a Court of Law.

CHAPTER VI.—Finance

Article 62.—The imposition of a new tax or the modification of the rates (of an existing one) shall be determined by law.

However, all such administrative fees or other revenue having the nature of compensation shall not fall within the category of the above clause.

The raising of national loans and the contracting of other liabilities to the charge of the National Treasury, except those that are provided for in the Budget, shall require the consent of the Imperial Diet.

Article 63.—The taxes levied at present shall, in so far as they are not remodelled by new law, be collected according to the old system.

Article 64.—The expenditure and revenue of the State require the consent of the Imperial Diet by means of an annual Budget.

Any and all expenditures overpassing the appropriations set forth in the Titles and Paragraphs of the Budget, or that are not provided for in the Budget, shall subsequently require the approbation of the Imperial Diet.

Article 65.—The Budget shall be first laid before the House of Representatives.

Article 66.—The expenditures of the Imperial House shall be defrayed every year out of the National Treasury, according to the present fixed amount for the same, and shall not require the consent thereto of the Imperial Diet, except in case an increase thereof is found necessary.

Article 67.—Those already fixed expenditures based by the Constitution upon the powers appertaining to the Emperor, and such expenditures as may have arisen by the effect of Law, or that appertain to the legal obligations of the Government, shall be neither rejected nor reduced by the Imperial Diet, without the concurrence of the Government.

Article 68.—In order to meet special requirements, the Government may ask the consent of the Imperial Diet to a certain amount as a Continuing Expenditure Fund, for a previously fixed number of years.

Article 69.—In order to supply deficiencies, which are unavoidable, in the Budget and to meet requirements unprovided for in the same, a Reserve Fund shall be provided for in the Budget.

Article 70.—When the Imperial Diet cannot be convoked, owing to the external or internal condition of the country, in case of urgent need for the maintenance of public safety, the Government may take the necessary financial measures, by means of an Imperial Ordinance.

In the case mentioned in the preceding clause, the matter shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet at its next session, and its approbation shall be obtained thereto.

Article 71.—When the Imperial Diet has not voted on the Budget, or when the Budget has not been brought into actual existence, the Government shall carry out the Budget of the preceding year.

Article 72.—The final account of the expenditures and revenue of the State shall be verified and confirmed by the Board of Audit, and it shall be submitted by the Government to the Imperial Diet, together with the report of verification of the said Board.

The organization and competency of the Board of Audit shall be determined by law separately.

CHAPTER VII.—Supplementary Rules

Article 73.—When it has become necessary in future to amend the provisions of the present Constitution, a project to that effect shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet by Imperial Order.

In the above case, neither House can open the debate, unless at least two-thirds of the whole number of Members are present, and no amendment can be passed, unless a majority of

at least two-thirds of the Members present is obtained.

Article 74.—No modification of the Imperial House Law shall be required to be submitted to the deliberation of the Imperial Diet.

No provision of the present Constitution can be modified by the Imperial House Law.

Article 75.—No modification can be introduced into the Constitution, or into the Imperial House Law, during the time of a Regency.

Article 76.—Existing legal enactments, such as laws, regulations, or by whatever title they may be called, shall, so far as they do not conflict with the present Constitution, continue in force.

All existing contracts or orders, that entail obligations upon the Government and that are connected with Expenditure, shall come within the scope of Article 67.

II. POLITICS

Politics in every country has its own peculiarities, and that is particularly so in Japan. Her political institutions are very complicated, and the political psychology of her people is unique and extremely singular. Hence it is not an easy matter to describe the working of her government or the political state of the country.

The principal factors in the constitutional machinery of Japan are the Emperor, the Privy Council, the Cabinet, the Imperial Diet, the Electorate, the Political Parties, and the Genro or Elder Statesmen which last is now practically one of historic interest. Their legal status and actual powers, and their relations to each other may be briefly described as follows:

The Emperor

The legal status of the Emperor under the Constitution, if properly interpreted, does not much differ from that of any constitutional monarch, but his influence over the masses of the people of Japan is extraordinary and is without parallel. Prince Ito, the chief framer of the Constitution, expounds the constitutional status of the Emperor with a certain coloring of popular sentiments with the following words: "The sovereign power of reigning over and governing the State is inherited by the Emperor from his ancestors, and by him bequeathed to his posterity. All the different legislative as well as executive powers

of State, by means of which he reigns over the country and governs the people, are united in the Most Exalted Personage, who holds in his hands, as it were, all the ramifying threads of the political life of the country, just as the brain in the human body is the primitive source of all mental activity manifested through the four limbs and different parts of the body." Thus, in theory, the Emperor is absolute, and the masses of the people in Japan believe him to be sacred and inviolable according to the letter of the Constitution. But in reality, he acts only by the advice of the Prime-Minister and occasionally by that of the Elder Statesmen. And constitutionally he is inviolable in the sense that "he can do no wrong." In fact, the power he actually exercises in practical politics is by no means greater than that of the King of England, though his influence, owing to the peculiar psychology of the people, is no doubt far greater than that of the British Crown, and plays the predominant part in Japanese politics.

In England, even the masses possess knowledge enough to be aware that for whatever the King does or says the Premier is responsible, whereas, in Japan the words of the Minister-President, if put into the mouth of the Emperor, become the words of the Emperor himself, thus investing them with a greater weight and dignity. They become the supreme authority of the land. Therefore, it not seldom happens in Japan that the Prime Minister, when affairs are at a deadlock, tries by means of the name of the Emperor to evade his responsibility, or to overcome a strong opposition of the people to the Government, with the object of maintaining his office. At the same time it must be stated that such autocratic practices are no longer tolerated by the public opinion which has become distinctly democratic since the enforcement of the manhood suffrage in 1926.

The Privy Council

Next to the Emperor, the Privy Council in Japan occupies a peculiar position in the constitutional system of her government. It is not like the Privy Council of England, out of which the British cabinet system has grown, and in which the Cabinet Ministers have their legal existence. The Cabinet and the Privy Council in Japan form two separate and independent institutions.

The functions of the Privy Council are chiefly of a consultative nature. It meets to deliberate on any important matter of State, when its opinion is asked for by the Emperor, and advises him according to its lights. The principal matters on which it is usually consulted are those which come under the jurisdiction of the Imperial House Law, all important legislations relating to Articles of the Constitution, the issuing of proclamations of the law of siege and of Imperial ordinances and all the matters relating to international treaties and pledges.

The power of the Privy Council is entirely of a negative nature; nevertheless it exercises a very strong power and influence in Japanese politics. It consists of 26 members with its own President and Vice-President. They are all veteran statesmen who have played very important part in the administration, and though no longer taking an active share in it, their age and prestige entitle them to universal respect. As may be expected they are extremely conservative in their political ideas and sentiments.

All such important acts of legislation as relating to rights and liberties of the people are usually submitted to the Privy Council, before the government introduce them to the Imperial Diet. The Privy Council is at liberty to reject or to delay their passage. Of course, it is as the Emperor pleases either to accept or reject this decision, but it may easily be seen how great is the influence which the Privy Council can exercise on all such legislation by virtue of its deliberative function. Sometimes the Cabinet uses the power of the Privy Council as a convenient expedient for killing measures it does not really desire to bring into the Diet. On the other hand, it sometimes happens that the Privy Council prevents the passage of some important measures of the Government. But the Privy Council cannot meet on its own account, its meetings being called by the Emperor on the advice of the Minister-President. All the Cabinet ministers have seats in the Council *ex-officio*, and, therefore, it is the will of the Cabinet that ultimately prevails, and not that of the Privy Council.

As to international treaties and pledges, the Privy Council is always consulted, and it is the only deliberative body in the constitutional system of Japan that can freely discuss all the foreign policies of a Government with the Cabinet, though its meetings are kept abso-

lutely secret.

The most important power of the Privy Council is that of interpreting the Constitution. In 1927 and 1928 three important cases were submitted to the approval of the Privy Council. The disapproval of the Wakatsuki Ministry's Bank of Taiwan rescue measure in April 1927 on constitutional ground caused its fall, while a similar proposal made by the succeeding Cabinet and the Peace Preservation Emergency Ordinance proposed in July 1928 by the same Cabinet were both passed. The latest instance was a hot dispute raised in June 1929 that the phrase in the Kellogg Anti-war Pact, "in the names of their respective peoples," was not compatible with the Constitution.

The Cabinet

Nowhere in the Constitution of Japan is the word "Cabinet" mentioned. Yet there exists as a matter of fact a collective body of all Departmental Ministers under the presidency of the Minister-President, somewhat like the Council of Ministers in Belgium, or the British Cabinet, for the purpose of initiating, determining, or carrying out the general scheme and policies of the Government. Though this collective body known as the "Naikaku" meets to discuss and determine under the guidance of the Minister-President how the Imperial government is to be carried on in all important matters of State and how to advise the Emperor, yet it has no joint responsibility as the British Cabinet has, that is to say, each Cabinet Minister is not responsible for the action of the Cabinet as a whole nor the Cabinet as a whole for the action of each Minister.

As chief executive organ of the State, the Cabinet exercises all powers executive, legislative, and judicial, which are invested in the Crown by the Constitution, that is to say, the issuing of administrative and emergency ordinances, the making of treaties with foreign nations, the declaring of peace and war, etc., all of which falling within the executive function of government are virtually controlled by the Cabinet in the name of the Emperor.

In Japan, the Cabinet Ministers, unlike those of England, are not always party-men; they may hold their office independent of the House of Representatives. The representative system of government has not yet developed in this country to such a stage as to make the Cabinet Ministers necessarily responsible to the

Diet.

A certain ordinance provides that the Minister of War must be but a General or Lieutenant-General, and the Minister for the Navy, an Admiral or Vice-Admiral, and because of this ordinance it was found impossible on one occasion to organize a Cabinet as ordered by the Emperor because there was no suitable Admiral willing to become the Minister for the Navy in the Cabinet. On another occasion the Ministry in power was forced to go out of office because of the strong demand of military men to increase the army divisions.

But the above instances are unusual, and as a matter of fact, those days are now passed owing to the steady development of peace movement.

The "Genro"

The "Genro" or so-called elder statesmen as a body has no constitutional status, but as surviving builders of the grand work of the Imperial rehabilitation over half a century ago the Council of Genro was, until the beginning of 1922, an important institution in the political system of Japan, though with functions not legally formulated. It then consisted of four elder statesmen, Marshal Prince Yamagata, Prince Saionji, Marquis Matsukata and Marquis Okuma. The last mentioned had not often been present at its conclaves. The venerable title is now retained by Prince Saionji, the other three being no more, and though the Prince is still held in great respect by politicians of all parties as one to be consulted on important questions of State, age no longer allows him to take any active part.

The Imperial Diet

The Imperial Diet is bicameral, consisting of a House of Peers and a House of Representatives. The former is composed of Princes of the Blood; ordinary Princes and Marquises who sit by virtue of their right; representatives of Counts, Viscounts, and Barons; Imperial Nominees and representatives of the highest taxpayers.

With regard to legislative matters, all rights and powers granted to the Diet by the Constitution are equally granted to both Houses, except that the Budget is to be brought in first in the House of Representatives. Thus the two Houses are supposed to be coordinate, neither the one nor the other being considered superior or subordinate. But it is not so in practical

politics. Where there are two chambers in a legislature, naturally the one or the other becomes predominant.

Although, as far as outward appearances go, the members of the House of Peers occupy a better fortified position, for the House of Peers is not subject to dissolution as the House of Representative is, yet in practice it is not the former, but the latter that the Cabinet regards with greater dread, holding it more aggressive and powerful, and more difficult to control. The fact is the 125 Imperial Nominees in the House of Peers are mostly ex-officials of government, who hold their position on a life tenure, while the rest are aristocrats either by birth or by wealth. Hence their natural sympathy is always with the Cabinet Ministers independent of and irresponsible to the House of Representatives.

In the House of Peers there are no political parties, so to speak. Nevertheless all its members are of political leaning, either for or against the Cabinet of the day. This political activity is especially strong among the younger and ambitious members of the House.

In the House of Representatives, there are very clear-cut divisions, and no matter how many parties there are, the House is usually divided into two camps, the government party and the opposition, though this party division does not come from any political principle or conviction. Of late things have become more complicated in the House owing to the absence of a party commanding absolute majority and to the manoeuvre engineered by minor partymen to snatch an opportunity of casting votes.

The Lower House has the power of initiative in all matters of legislation, but its legislative power is rather negative in character, for in Japan a majority of the House of Representa-

tives does not necessarily control the Cabinet. It is the Cabinet that gets its majority by one way or other. When a political party in Japan supports the Government, it is because its leader is the Prime-Minister or holds a certain portfolio in the Cabinet. Then again some parties or individual members too often give support to the Government from consideration of interest, while, on the other hand, the Government can sometimes force them to support its policies either by intimidation or through threat of dissolution.

The Cabinet Ministers in Japan do not therefore formulate the policies of State in accordance with the political programmes which the parties supporting the Government may have laid down at the time of their election. It may even be said that the political parties in Japan have no definite programmes; they make no definite promises before election. They know well that they cannot make their promises good, even if they made them. The Cabinet Ministers have practically an entirely free hand to formulate all policies of State, and even the government party usually accepts almost blindly whatever the Cabinet decides. Too often the government party is merely a convenient tool to the Cabinet for carrying its measures through the House of Representatives.

III. THE ELECTORAL SYSTEM

The Election Law in Japan has a separate existence from the Constitution; and that is very fortunate for her, revision having been effected already three times solely on account of this convenient arrangement. The Constitution, on the other hand, is a formidable document that does not easily allow modification.

Important features in the original and revised Election Laws are shown below in a tabular form:—

	Elector		Candidate		No. of Members	Voters (in 1,000)	No. of Members per district electoral
	Age	Tax	Age	Tax			
Original							
1890	25	¥ 15	30	¥ 10	300	500	1-2
Revised							
1900	25	¥ 10	30	none	381	1,500	4-12
1920	25	3	30	"	464	2,960	1-3
1925	25	none	30	"	466	13,000	3-5

The last revision is memorable as an epoch-making event in the democratic movement in Japan and as a distinct triumph realized by those espousing the cause of universal suffrage. It is essentially a general manhood suffrage sys-

tem somewhat limited in application, but as such it occasioned intense contest from the 42nd session (1919-20) to the 50th (24-25) in and out of the Diet between the two opposing parties and it even caused at one time the

dissolution of the House. The law as it stands is a result of compromise at the conference of the two Houses.

Revised Election Law

The features of the revised election law are outlined as follows:—As shown above the result of the removal of the tax qualification has increased the number of those eligible to franchise to upward of 13,000,000 as against approximately 3,000,000 under the former system. Excluding from that figure those who are disqualified for franchise because of their receiving public or private relief or help towards a living on account of poverty, the number of those entitled to vote will come down to about 9,600,000.

Eligibility for Franchise:—The right of voting has been extended to the following:

Students; Teachers of primary schools; Shinto or Buddhist priest and other persons engaged in religious work; Persons doing work for the Government under contract; Government and public officials connected with election affairs, who have not resigned their offices 3 months before. (Government officials other than those connected with administrative affairs of State have no right to vote).

Electoral Districts: The new law has adopted the system of middle electoral districts, the number of members for each district being fixed at 3 to 5, at the rate of one member for a population of 120,000. The former system of independent electoral districts for cities has been abolished. In consequence of the above-mentioned change the number of electorates has decreased to 122 from 379 as under the former system, while the number of members has increased to 466 from 464.

Period of Election Campaign:—The new election law has shortened the period intervening between the expiration of the term of members and the day of the next general election, or between the dissolution of the House of Representatives and the next general election. In the case of a dissolution the general election is to be held within 30 days from the date of the dissolution, while in the case of the expiration of the members' term a general election is to be held on the day following the day when the term expired, or within 5 days after the said date in case circumstances necessitate. In case the members' term expires during the session of the House or within 25 days after

the closing of the session a general election is to be held within 30 days after the lapse of 26 days from the date of the closing of the session.

Candidates:—The candidates must send in application to the chief election commissioners within 7 days before the date of the election, and must deposit a sum of ¥2,000 either in cash or public bonds as security. In case the number of candidates falls short of the fixed number of members to be returned from a certain electoral district the candidates will be elected as members for that district without going through the proceedings of voting.

Cost of Election:—The expense to be defrayed by a candidate is fixed at the rate of 40 sen for each franchise-holder, and the total amount of the expenses is fixed at the total number of the franchise-holders of the electoral districts divided by the number of parliamentary members for the districts, the remainder being multiplied by 40 sen. The standard figure of the total number of voters divided by the number of members is estimated as between 25,000 and 30,000, and the amount of the election expenses is roughly estimated as between ¥12,000 and ¥15,000. The defrayal of the election expenses is to be in charge of chief election commissioners or those specially designated by chief election commissioners. When the amount of expenses of a candidate exceeds the maximum limit his election shall be void.

Strict Control over Campaign:—In the new law only election commissioners and election committees, their number not to exceed fifty persons, are permitted to take part in the campaign. These are allowed to receive remuneration from candidates to cover the cost incurred or they may be employed under the wage system by the candidates. The number of election offices to be established by a candidate in one electoral district is limited to seven. The new law prohibits the practice of the "house-to-house call" by candidates or their canvassers for soliciting votes.

Penal Provisions:—The revised election law provides much heavier penalties for the violation of the law. Candidates who have infringed the law are punished with a fine of ¥2,000 or less or imprisonment with hard labor as the heaviest penalty, as against the maximum amount of fine of ¥500 and imprisonment without hard labor of the old law.

Upper House Reform

Simultaneously with the adoption of the general manhood suffrage bill in the 50th session (1924-5) of the Diet the reform of the Upper House was effected, though naturally more limited than that of the other House. The main points in the reform are as follows:—

The age-limit for the members of the order of Prince and Marquis was raised to 30 years from 25 years.

The number of the members of the lower order of peerage has been fixed at 18 for Counts, 66 for Viscounts and 66 for Barons.

The inclusion of 4 representatives of the members of the Imperial Academy to be elected from among the members thereof by mutual elections.

The highest tax paying members in the House shall be elected from among those paying direct national tax to the amount of ¥300 and upward in connection with landed property, industry or commerce, the age-limit for such members being fixed as 40 years and upwards. The number of such members for each prefecture is limited to 1 or 2, according to the size of population, the total number not exceeding 66.

The application of the penal clause of the election law, hitherto exclusively applied to the election of the members of the Lower House, to the election of the highest tax paying members.

The cancellation of Article 7 of the Law of the Houses providing that the number of the Imperial nominees and highest tax paying members in the Upper House shall not exceed the number of the titled members.

The period of the examination of the Budget by the Upper House committee is limited to within 21 days as in the case of the Lower House committee.

IV. THE POLITICAL PARTIES

The representative system of Japan dates from 1890, but the history of political parties is much older. The Jiyu-to (Liberals) was the first political party and was organized by the late Count Itagaki and his followers in 1880, to be followed two years later by the Kaishin-to (Progressives) formed by the late Marquis, then Count Okuma. Both upheld the cause of liberty and progress, the only difference being that the former were more radical. As an organ of conservative and bureaucratic element

the Teisei-to (Imperialists) was created soon after, but for all the fostering care bestowed upon its growth, it failed to enlist any great support of the public and disappeared in 1884.

Hard and bitter was the campaign which the Liberals waged against bureaucrats and militarists who entrenched in their formidable stronghold, treated them with merciless severity. It was a critical moment in the political history of Japan. Fortunately Japan had at that time an enlightened sovereign in Meiji Tenno who on the advice of the late Prince Ito, his most trusted counsellor, made a solemn pledge in 1881 to establish constitutional government within ten years. The heated and dangerous political agitation was thus diverted to the constructive work of preparation and training for the eagerly anticipated day. The history of the political parties in Japan from the opening of the Diet in 1890 to the formation of the 4th Ito Cabinet in 1900 may be summed up in a few words. In the first few years the Bureaucratic Government and political parties were almost irreconcilable; in the second stage, either exhausted or tired of incessant strife, the two became more placable, effected some sort of understanding, and a partial coalition Cabinet was formed first by Ito with Itagaki's followers and next by Matsukata with Okuma's Kaishin-to (Progressives). The two trials failed miserably owing to the lurking suspicion which the bureaucratic and party adherents had retained towards each other. The two bureaucratic administrations that followed had only served to bring into alliance the followers of the two leaders to fight the bureaucratic government. The Opposition tactics worked with complete success in the House of Representatives though at the cost of inviting dissolution on each occasion. Then occurred an interesting episode in the constitutional history of Japan. The bureaucrats at the instance of Ito decided to recommend Okuma and Itagaki to the Throne to form a joint cabinet, and thus for the first time partymen were placed in the responsible position of conducting the administration of the State. Before forming the Cabinet the two parties dissolved themselves and were brought together under a new standard named "Constitutional Party." The chairs of the ministers of Army and Navy were filled, as is the case even today, with prominent personages in the respective services but otherwise the change was distinctly democratic. However this Cabinet

could not last more than six months; it crumbled through the jealousy of the Liberal and Progressive elements for share of official power, the non-party holders of the chairs of the two services fanning the friction.

Thus put to test and proved wanting the Bureaucrats could recover with easy conscience their supreme position in the administration of the country, and from 1898 to 1914 the partymen had to view with impotent rage eight bureaucratic ministries succeeding one after another so that the six months' miserable experience as administrators cost them sixteen long years of humiliation and subservience as supporters of one or other Genro premiers.

When on the demise of the great Meiji Tenno, who had naturally preferred the veteran statesmen like Ito and Yamagata to party leaders, the 3rd Katsura Ministry was formed with no particular following in the House, the partymen could no longer tolerate a bureaucratic regime. The "Save the Constitution" agitation burst out and the Government was overthrown. Thus after long waiting Okuma formed his 2nd Cabinet with his followers. It had a powerful backing in the House, but after two years and a half it fell over the Election Scandal Affair. It was succeeded by a reactionary administration headed by Marshal Terauchi who was supported by the Seiyu-kai Party headed by K. Hara, the second largest party in the House. When the soldier-statesman had to resign owing to his growing unpopularity on account of the "Disgrace Loans" and especially the "Rice Riot" in August 1918, he with approval of the Genro recommended K. Hara as his successor. The Hara Cabinet was the first ministry under a commoner premier, and it looked as though the course of constitutional politics had regained a normal groove. He proved a consummate party leader, and dissolved the House when the Opposition introduced the Manhood Suffrage Bill. The general election of May 1920 secured his party 282 seats out of the total 464. The untimely death of the veteran leader in November 1921 by a boy-assassin's hand caused serious shaking to the stability of this predominant party, for Baron (now Mr.) Takahashi, who succeeded Hara, failed to command undivided devotion of the rank and file, and his cabinet lasted only six months owing to internal dissension. It was followed by the three transcendent cabinets of Adm. Kato, Adm. Count Yamamoto and Viscount Kiyoura. The formation of the last named cabinet caus-

ed an explosion of the smouldering flame of discontent between the faithful followers of the new Seiyu-kai chief and their opponents. The issue was whether the party should effect understanding with the Kiyoura Ministry or whether to fight it on constitutional ground, and eventually those who declared in favor of the Government seceded on the eve of the general extraordinary election and organized their own party called "Seiyu-honto" or briefly "Honto," while those who strenuously opposed this temporizing policy arranged some compromise with their former rivals, the Kensei-kai, the better to conduct the election contest against the common enemy, the Ministerial Seiyu-Honto. By irony of fate the Ministerialists were defeated in the election and the Kiyoura Cabinet withdrew and was succeeded by the Kenseikai-Seiyukai Coalition Cabinet as the 1st Kato (Viscount) Ministry. It speaks volume for the greatness of Hara as party leader that the sudden disappearance of his controlling hand from the parliamentary stage caused serious dislocation not only of the Seiyu-kai but also of its rivals, the Kensei-kai. The loss of this trained pilot drove the Seiyu-kai seceders to the mortifying state of stray party, for though in numerical strength in the House they were next to the Kensei-kai but superior to the Honto, they were obliged to maintain the attitude of neutrality to both, if not a bit more friendly to the former than to the latter. The presence of this anomalous party "Honto" was largely responsible for the kaleidoscopic change that has marked the party politics of Japan recently. The 1st Kato (Viscount) Cabinet having been created from the temporary combination of the Kensei-kai and the Seiyu-kai to fight the super-party Kiyoura Cabinet, it was a foregone conclusion that as soon as its *raison d'être*, the overthrow of the Kiyoura Cabinet, disappeared it should collapse. This occurred in 1925 on the ostensible ground of difference of views over the taxation reform measure, but really from the deeper cause of inherent rivalry between the two parties. With the formation of the 2nd Kato Cabinet in August 1925 with his own followers the Kensei-kai at last returned to power after having patiently waited for a turn of fortune for ten years. The death of Premier Kato after a short illness and the creation of another Kensei-kai Cabinet by Reijiro Wakatsuki, his immediate lieutenant, did not particularly affect the status quo of the three leading parties, Kensei-kai, Honto and Seiyu-

kai. The second remained as political waif, to side at one time with the Ministerialists and then to renew reconciliation parleys with the former comrades, the Seiyu-kai, which was now led by General Baron Tanaka as successor of Mr. Takahashi. This abnormal phenomenon was at last dispelled when the Wakatsuki Ministry resigned over the Bank of Taiwan Relief Measure which the Privy Council disapproved on constitutional ground and when Baron Tanaka as president of the Seiyu-kai was ordered to form a ministry. The occasion served for the Kensei-kai and the Seiyu-Honto to effect formal combination and to organize a new party called "Rikken Minseito" (Constitutional Democratic Party). In anticipation of the coming development twenty M.P.s and other notables identified with the Seiyu-Honto went over to their original camp, but the Minseito still outnumbered the rival party. The party composition of the House was thus clearly divided between the two main bodies, for the only minor groups worth mentioning were Sanji Muto's eight or nine followers in the House styled Businessmen's Party, the temporarily organized Shinsei Club counting 26, and some 20 independents, Tsuyoshi Inukai's coterie having practically disappeared with his going over to the Seiyu-kai.

T. Tokonami once more took the public by surprise when he declared in August 1928 his resolution to leave the Minseito in order to form a thirty party, and this was carried into effect by the creation of Shinto Club with some 24 followers. The Minseito's numerical strength in the House was reduced by so much and the Shinto Club now occupied the position of casting vote, but with Tokonami's re-joining the Seiyu-kai in June 1929 his meteoric course has come to a halt. In consequence the Seiyu-kai has apparently secured absolute majority in the House.

Proletarian Parties.—Amidst these ceaseless changes in the composition of the existing parties the rapid march of democratic movement and the enactment of the Manhood Suffrage Law in 1926 were signalized by the birth of several Proletarian parties, namely, Shakai Minshu-to (Social Democratic Party upholding Fabian ideas), Rodo Nomin-to (Labor Farmers Party), Nihon Rono-to (Japan Labor Farmers Party), etc. Their numerical strength in the House was only eight reduced to seven owing to the death of one member early in 1929, but they were expected to rise to a greater pow-

er in the future. Of these Proletarians, the first organized by such intellectuals as Isobe Abe, formerly Prof. at Waseda University and Bunji Suzuki, President of the Federation of Japanese Laborers, overshadowed the other sections in influence and though their following (about 75,000) was less than that of some others, they were far more compact and well organized. The other Proletarians were fluctuating and divided between those advocating extreme views tinged red and others standing midway between them and the Fabians. It should be noted that the Rodo Nomin-to was ordered dissolution by the Home Minister in 1928 on the charge of holding communistic ideas and hence subversive of the national polity. They were even suspected of being more or less supported by the Russian Third International. The idea to bring the Proletarians exclusive of the Left group into a working body of federation were repeatedly discussed, but remained in theory.

Seiyu-kai.—The creation of the Seiyu-kai by the late Prince Ito in 1900 forms a distinct chapter in the history of party politics in Japan, though the first Ministry under Ito did not last for more than two years, for what with the opposition of the Peers and militarists and next desertion of members of questionable loyalty, its power was weakened. Then in 1903 Ito had to exchange his post as party leader for the Presidency of the Privy Council held by Prince Saionji, and the latter led the party till 1914. The chair was next filled by K. Hara, and during the seven years of his leadership the Seiyu-kai regained supreme, all to overwhelmingly. Naturally the masterful leader made himself an object of implacable hatred and unbounded dread to his political foe, this eventually costing him his life by a boy assassin's dagger. From the untimely death of Hara (Nov. 4 1921) till the split of the party in January 1924 the history of the Seiyu-kai was one of repeated troubles and internal disintegration. The resignation of the leadership by K. Takahashi (former Viscount) in 1925 in favor of General Baron Tanaka somewhat improved the situation as it induced a number of the seceders to come back. On the fall of the Kensei-kai Cabinet in 1927 the Seiyu-kai came into power though the Party's strength in the House still fell below the Kensei-kai, and was brought practically to a tie by the general election of 1928. On the Seiyu-kai Ministry's resignation in June 1929, and the creation of

a Minsei-to Cabinet, Tokonami's anomalous group Shinto Club was persuaded to join the Seiyukai, so that the latter became apparently the largest party in the House. But the Party appeared to be far from stable and settled internally, owing to the growing discontent against the erratic doings of its leader (Baron Tanaka).

Minsei-to.—This party was created in 1927 on the union of the Kensei-kai and the Seiyu-Honto, the former being historically composed of the followers of Okuma, Katsura, and Inukai. Katsura's party was called the Doshi-kai, and when the Prince died prematurely, the leadership of the party fell naturally upon Viscount Kato, a deputy leader. The party supported Marquis Okuma when he organized a Cabinet in 1914, and Viscount Kato was given the post of Minister of Foreign Affairs in that ministry. In the general election held in 1915 under the Okuma Cabinet, the influence of the party almost swept the whole country. The name of the party was then changed to Kensei-kai. At the time of the downfall of the Okuma Ministry in 1916, the Kensei-kai still held a majority in the House of Representatives, but in the general elections of 1917 and 1920, the party's strength was much reduced, and it had only 109 seats in the House at the beginning of of the 45th session, to be still further weakened during that session. In the general election of May 1924 the party profited from the desperate contest fought between the Seiyu-kai and its deserters the Honto, and came out relatively the strongest force in the House. In May 1927, Y. Hamaguchi succeeded Wakatsuki (now Baron) as leader of the party and the latter and Tokonami, Honto leader, were appointed Advisers. Once again the ex-Honto leader was political waif in June 1929, when the Tanaka Cabinet was about to resign and at last he was persuaded, with diminished following, to join the Seiyu-kai where he now occupies a delicate position.

V. RESHUFFLEMENT OF POLITICAL CARDS

The Tanaka Ministry

The resignation of the Wakatsuki Cabinet on April 18, 1927, over the Bank of Taiwan's Relief Measures which the Privy Council rejected on the preceding day was followed by the formation on the 20th of a Seiyu-kai Ministry under General Baron Gi-ichi Tanaka, lead-

er of the Seiyu-kai, the then second largest political party in the House. On the occasion of the formal installation of the Cabinet the chair of Finance was filled by K. Takahashi, Home Affairs by Dr. Kisaburo Suzuki, Education by Chuzo Mitsuchi, and Communications by Keisuke Mochizuki.

About one month after the creation of the Tanaka Ministry, Finance Minister Takahashi resigned and the vacated chair was filled by Mitsuchi, Education Minister, the latter post being given to Dr. Mizuno, formerly Home Minister in the Terauchi Ministry. In May 1928 Dr. Suzuki "resigned at his own request," but really to placate those Independents who threatened to support the opposition's non-confidence motion introduced about the same time, the Independents themselves entertaining bitter grievance against the Home Minister for his alleged interference in the general election. K. Mochizuki, Minister of Communications, was transferred as Dr. Suzuki's successor while Fusanosuke Kuhara, a copper millionaire and personal friend of the Premier, was given the chair vacated by Mochizuki. Dr. Mizuno who was opposed to Kuhara's entry was obliged to resign and he was succeeded by Kazue Shoda, formerly Minister of Finance in the Terauchi Ministry and associated in the popular memory with what is known as the "disgraceful loan". The Kuhara affair also caused the secession of Sakutaro Koizumi, chief whip of the Seiyukai, from the party, while the resignation of Education Minister Dr. Mizuno invited the opposition of the Peers and a number of Tokyo Imperial University professors on account of the so-called "Emperor's graceful words" incident.

The Hamaguchi (Minsei-to) Ministry

The Tanaka Ministry, though steadily alienating the confidence of general public, seemed determined to cling to the post at all cost, but circumstances obliged it suddenly to resign, especially owing to the strong attitude of the Privy Council concerning that famous phrase of the Kellogg Anti-War Pact and the mysterious Mukden tragedy. On July 2, 1929, formal resignation was tendered and the same day the new (Minsei-to) Cabinet was formed with Yuko Hamaguchi as Premier.

On November 14 the following year (1930) Premier Hamaguchi was shot by a ruffian who had some grudge on the Ministry. The Premier partially recovered from the wounds, but was

too weak to attend to his duties and subsequently had to resign. All other ministers remained in the office, and Baron Wakatsuki, former Premier and now President of the Minseito Party, succeeded Hamaguchi as Premier (for a second time).

The second Wakatsuki Ministry had to face several difficult problems, notably the Manchurian problem, the strained condition of State finances, tax problems, etc. Kenzo Adachi, Home Minister, when consulted by the Premier as to what measures the Cabinet should take in order to tide over the situation, advanced an opinion that in order to improve the condition there was the necessity of reorganizing the cabinet and forming a coalition ministry of the Seiyukai and the Minseito parties. There followed movements for and against this plan suggested by Home Minister Adachi, and besides, there was also some misunderstanding between the Premier and the Home Minister, which combined with some other circumstances to precipitate collapse of the ministry which resigned en bloc on December 11, 1931.

The Inukai Ministry

Upon the recommendation of Prince Saionji (the Genro), Tsuyoshi Inukai, President of the Seiyukai, was ordered to organize a cabinet. The new ministry was in power for only five months. On May 15, 1932, Premier Inukai fell a victim to the dastardly attempt at the hand of an assassin, a young navy officer, who from some misconception as to the political principles pursued by the party government took the life of the Premier with his compatriots. Through this tragic event it transpired that there had developed among certain classes of people a secret plot or reactionary movement which sought to overthrow the system of government by force. It soon became evident that the public at large was dissatisfied with the existing system of social organization and political conditions, and moreover disgusted with the corrupt condition of political parties. To make matters worse the outbreak of Manchurian trouble with China, the world-wide economic depression, the increasing number of unemployment—all these factors combined to aggravate the social unrest. The political change took place amidst such unrest and grave national situation. The sudden unnatural death of Premier Inukai threw the political circle of the country into

confusion and darkness. Those who hated the idea of overthrowing the government by force strongly insisted that the succeeding ministry should be organized with men from among the Seiyukai Party in order to discourage the belief that the government could be overthrown by violent means. In these circumstances and according to the precedents the duty of recommending to the Throne the organizer of the succeeding ministry fell upon the shoulders of the Genro (Prince Saionji).

A **Coalition Cabinet:** Prince Saionji, the Genro, disliked any unnatural change of the government to attend the death of Inukai. He wished for a healthy growth of constitutional government, but realizing the trend of thoughts and change in social situations, he felt the difficulty of the task imposed on him, and when asked by the Throne his views on the subject requested delay of a few days, for he wished to keep far from the turmoil and meditate over the situation quietly. So until the appointment of Inukai's successor, Korekiyo Takahashi, Finance Minister, temporarily assumed the premiership as Premier ad interim.

In the meantime, the Seiyukai Party, in the belief that the ministers of the next ministry should be chosen from among its partisans, elected Dr. Kisaburo Suzuki as the Party President and successor to the late Inukai, and awaited the Imperial order to organize the succeeding cabinet to descend on the new leader of the party.

The Minseito, the opponent of the Seiyukai, at first supported the idea but later changed its attitude and held the view that it did not necessarily support the single-party government policy of the Seiyukai; in other words, they indirectly insisted on a coalition cabinet. The Seiyukai, seeing that their argument was not likely to be materialized easily under the circumstances that obtained, compromised their stand, showing its willingness to take in some elements from the other Party, provided the new cabinet be formed mainly of the Seiyukai members.

Prince Saionji, after few days' meditation, came to a certain conclusion, and on May 22, 1932, the veteran statesman recommended Admiral Viscount Makoto Saito, former Governor-General of Chosen, as successor to Inukai. The Prince, in recommending Viscount Saito, a non-partisan, took precaution to prepare the way to the normal course of constitutional government. The same day, Viscount Saito

received the Imperial command to form the new Ministry. With the aim to pacify the public sentiments and to mollify the two political parties, Prince Saionji recommended to Saito a coalition cabinet consisting of the Seiyukai and Minseito members, and to this the Premier-elect assented.

Viscount Saito sought the positive support from both the Seiyukai and the Minseito, and in order to satisfy the public claim for a national government, he made a plan for securing men of talents from all quarters. Viscount Saito selected three ministers from the Seiyukai, two from the Minseito and three from among the members of the House of Peers. In this way, a coalition cabinet was finally formed on May 26.

The Saito Cabinet

Premier & Foreign Minister (ad. interim)	Admiral Viscount Makoto Saito
Minister of Finance	Korekiyo Takahashi (Seiyukai)
Minister of Home Affairs...	Baron Tatsuo Yamamoto (Minseito)
Minister of Army	Lieut.-Gen. Sadao Araki
Minister of Navy	Adm. Keisuke Okada
Minister of Justice	Matsukichi Koyama
Minister of Education.....	Ichiro Hatoyama (Seiyukai M.P.)
Minister of Agriculture and Forestry	Fumio Goto
Minister of Commerce and Industry	Baron Kumakichi Nakajima (Mem. House of Peers)
Minister of Communica- tions	Hiroshi Minami (Mem. House of Peers)
Minister of Railways	Chuzo Mitsuichi (Seiyukai M.P.)
Minister of Overseas Affairs	Ryutaro Nagai (Minseito M.P.)

(In July Count Yasuya Uchida was appointed Foreign Minister and Viscount Saito who temporarily held the portfolio of foreign affairs as additional post was relieved of that office the same day. Admiral Okada, Navy Minister, resigned on January 8, 1933, and was replaced by Admiral Mineo Osumi, who occupied the same portfolio in the Inukai Ministry.)

In selecting the ministers, Premier Saito took an elaborate care. The portfolios of the War and the Navy he left the choice to the elderly men of the respective services of arms. He assigned the portfolios of finance, of railways,

and of education to the Seiyukai members; and since he gave the portfolio of communications to Hiroshi Minami, a man of Seiyukai color and a member of the House of Peers, he chose Fumio Goto of the same House but of the Minseito color for the post of agriculture and forestry. Then to the post of foreign affairs, he selected Count Yasuya Uchida, President of the South Manchuria Railway at the time, who had been working in perfect harmony with the military authorities in Manchuria in defence of Japan's rights since the outbreak of Manchurian trouble. His selection of Baron Kumakichi Nakajima as occupant of the post of commerce and industry might have surprised both the Baron himself and the public, for he is a member of the House of Peers but of no political color. He is associated mainly with commercial interest, and the economic circles seem to expect much of him. Thus, the new Premier showed his fairness and impartiality in organizing a well-rounded national cabinet.

In September 1933, Count Uchida resigned on the score of declined health and was succeeded by Koki Hirota, ex-Ambassador to Soviet Russia.

The 62nd session of the Imperial Diet was held in June, 1932. The principal bills passed were:

(a) Supplementary Budget for the expenditure on account of the Manchurian affair.

(b) Revision of the documentary reserve system of the Bank of Japan. By this revision the maximum amount of documentary reserve against which convertible notes might be issued was increased from 120,000,000 yen to 1,000,000,000 yen, and the tax on the fiduciary issue of the Bank notes was reduced from five to three per cent.

(c) Revision of import tariff. Specific duty was raised by 35%. This was chiefly to balance the difference of the income accruing from duties on imported goods caused by the slump of Yen value consequent upon the revival of gold embargo.

(d) Indemnification relative to the disposition of the compulsory and voluntary cooperative holdings of raw silk. On the condition that the Government would indemnify the loss to a certain extent, the stock of raw silk held by the banks as security was disposed.

The general clamour for relief of the farmers then resulted in the passage of a resolu-

tion calling for the convocation of another extraordinary session of the Diet. It lasted from the end of August to early September. The measures passed at this session did not concern only the farmers but the merchants and manufacturers as well.

Latest Development of Political Parties

The development of the two major political parties—Seiyukai and Minseito—has been briefly described elsewhere. Besides these two, there are minor parties, namely, Kokumin Domei (National League), Shakai Taishu-to (Socialist People's Party), Nippon Kokka Shakai-to (Japan State Socialist Party), and Shin Nippon Kokumin Domei (the New Japan National League). The Socialist Peoples' Party is the largest and most powerful of the three and was formed in July, 1932, by the amalgamation of the former Shakai Minshuto (Social Democrat Party) and the Zenkoku Rono Taishuto (National Labor-Farmer Party). The new party claims to have 300,000 members. The President is Prof. Isoh Abe (formerly President of the Shakai Minshuto) and Chief Secretary is Mr. Hisashi Aso (formerly President of the Zenkoku Rono Taishuto). It advocates the destruction of capitalism and the emancipation of the proletariat. The Japan State Socialist Party was organized in May, 1932, by Katsumaro Akamatsu, who with his followers seceded from the former Social Democrat Party. Akamatsu is the leader of the group. The New Japan National League was organized in May, 1932, and Yasaburo Shimonaka is its leader. Both groups consist of proletarian politicians who advocate state socialism with a touch of fascism. Membership of both is small. The Ronoto (Labor-Farmer Party), organized in 1929 by Ikuo Oyama, amalgamated in July, 1931, with the Zenkoku Rono Taishuto, and was later amalgamated with the Shakai Minshuto to form the Shakai Taishuto. The constant dissolution and fusion of the labor parties in Japan form the greatest weakness of the labor movement.

Ever since the organization of the proletarian parties in 1926 and after great expectations were entertained of them as a new rising political power, but the result of the general election fell short of such expectations. The second election brought only six seats for them in the House of Representatives. The reason for the decline of their strength is the lack of unity among different parties. While they indulged

in internal strife, the third election came bringing poorer result for them. In the meantime, the outbreak of the Manchurian affair in 1931 resulted in the agitated national thoughts, and this, in turn, influenced the thoughts of the labor parties. Thus at present, the Socialist People's Party and the State Socialist Party are pitted against each other. The former now has three seats in the Lower House while the latter has only one seat in the same House.

The political party that comes next to the two predominating parties is the "Kokumin-Domei" or "National League", which is the newest party of the five. It was organized in December 1932 by Kenzo Adachi, Home Minister in the second Wakatsuki Cabinet. As mentioned elsewhere, Adachi, in spite of the fact of his being a Minseito leader, insisted upon organizing a coalition cabinet. There was some misunderstanding between Premier Wakatsuki and Home Minister Adachi, which eventually caused the collapse of the Wakatsuki Ministry and subsequently the latter's departure from the Minseito rank. His coalition cabinet plan was shattered to the ground and the power was transferred to the rival party the Seiyukai. Those who were faithful to Adachi and who belonged to the Minseito grew impatient with the inactivity of that party and sought to form a more vigorous political party and they all rallied under Adachi's leadership. Their efforts culminated in the formation of a new party Kokumin Domei (National League or National Party) with Adachi as its leader and central figure. The new political unit is not as yet a full-fledged party in the strict sense. The public interest was aroused, however, concerning the probable intensity of Fascism with which this unit may grow up because of its outspoken views on such subjects as the state control of economy or the creation of Manchurian economic block. The public, however, was rather disappointed at the poor showing of the party at the last session of the Imperial Diet. Small as the Kokumin Domei is numerically, having only 33 seats in the lower house, it does not follow that the party will remain powerless for ever. Nobody can tell what situation in future might develop to land it in power.

At present, the relative strength of political parties in the House of Representatives stands as follows:—

Parties	Seats
Seiyukai.....	299
Minseito.....	117
Kokumin Domei.....	33
Socialist People's Party.....	3
State Socialist Party.....	1

VI. CABINET CHANGES SINCE 1885

It will be seen from the following table of cabinet changes since 1885 that the bureaucratic statesmen monopolized the administration till the formation of the 1st Okuma Cabinet in June 1898. It was the first Cabinet organized along the party lines, but unfortunately it collapsed after a short existence from internal dissension of the two rival parties that had temporarily sunk their difference to uphold the

common cause of party politics. Then followed the succession of cabinet either purely bureaucratic or with a thin veneer of party element. Of the sixteen administrations that were in power from the fall of the Okuma Cabinet down to the formation of the 2nd Kato Cabinet, seven were purely bureaucratic and the other nine mixed. So far the Hara Ministry and its extension, the Takahashi Ministry, have risen to the highest level accessible to party politics under the peculiarly complicated circumstances in which various political organizations work in Japan. The Hara Administration is noteworthy as the first Cabinet of Japan formed by an avowed party leader (Seiyukai) and an untitled commoner. The Hamaguchi Cabinet and its extension namely 2nd Wakatsuki cabinet was another.

Ministerial chairs	1st Ito Dec. 1885	Kuroda April 1889	1st Yamagata Dec. 1889	1st Matsukata May 1891	2nd Ito Aug. 1892
Premier	Ito	Kuroda	Yamagata	Matsukata	Ito, Kuroda
Foreign.....	{ Inouye, Ito, Okuma	Okuma	Aoki	Enomoto	{ Mutsu Saionji
Home	Yamagata	{ Yamagata Matsukata Yamagata	{ Yamagata Saigo	{ Saigo Shinagawa Soyejima Matsukata Kono	{ Inouye Nomura Yoshikawa Itagaki
Finance	Matsukata	Matsukata	Matsukata	Matsukata	{ Watanabe Matsukata Watanabe
Army	Oyama	Oyama	Oyama	Takashima	{ Oyama, Saigo Yamagata Oyama
Navy.....	{ Saigo, Oyama, Saigo	Saigo	{ Saiga Kabayama	Kabayama	{ Nire Saigo
Justice	Yamada	Yamada	Yamada	{ Yamada Tanaka Kono	{ Yamagata Ito Yoshikawa
Education	Mori	{ Mori Oyama Enomoto	Yoshikawa	{ Yoshikawa Oki	{ Kono Yoshikawa Inouye Saionji
Agriculture & Commerce	{ Tani, Saigo, Tani, Hijikata, Kuroda	{ Enomoto Inouye Yamagata	Mutsu	{ Mutsu Kono Sano	{ Goto Enomoto
Communications	Enomoto	{ Enomoto Goto	Goto	Goto	Kuroda
(Continued)	2nd Matsukata Sept. 1896	3rd Ito Jan. 1898	1st Okuma June 1898	2nd Yamagata Nov. 1898	4th Ito Oct. 1900
Premier	Matsukata	Ito	Okuma	Yamagata	Ito
Foreign.....	Okuma, Nishi	Nishi	Okuma	Aoki	Saionji, Kato
Home	Kabayama	Yoshikawa	Itagaki	Saigo	Suyematsu
Finance	Matsukata	Inouye	Matsuda	Matsuda	{ Watanabe Saionji
Army	Takashima	Katsura	Katsura	Katsura	{ Katsura Kodama
Navy.....	Saigo	Saigo	Saigo	Yamamoto	Yamamoto
Justice	Kiyoura	Sone	Ohigashi	Kiyoura	Kaneko
Education	{ Hachisuka Hamao	{ Saionji Toyama	{ Ozaki Inukai	Kabayama	Matsuda

Agriculture & Commerce	{ Enomoto Okuma Yamada	{ M. Ito Kaneko	Oishi	Sone	Hayashi
Communications	Nomura	Suyematsu	Hayashi	Yoshikawa	Hoshi, Hara
(Continued)	1st Katsura June 1901	1st Saionji June 1905	2nd Katsura July 1908	2nd Saionji Aug. 1911	3rd Katsura Dec. 1912
Premier	Katsura	Saionji	Katsura	Saionji	Katsura
Foreign	Komura	{ Kato Hayashi	{ Katsura Komura	Saionji	Katsura
Home	{ Utsumi Kodama Yoshikawa Kiyoura	Hara	Hirata	Hara	Oura
Finance	Sone	{ Sakatani Matsuda	Katsura	T. Yamamoto	Wakatsuki
Army	Terauchi	Terauchi	Terauchi	Ishimoto	Kigoshi
Navy	Yamamoto	Saito	Saito	Saito	Saito
Justice	{ Kiyoura Hatano	{ Matsuda Senge	Okabe	Matsuda	Matsumuro
Education	{ Kikuchi Kodama	{ Saionji Makino	Komatsubara	{ Haseba Makino	Shibata
Agriculture & Commerce	{ Hirata Kiyoura	Matsuoka	Oura	Makino	Nakashoji
Communications	{ Yoshikawa Sone	{ I. Yamagata Hotta	S. Goto	Hayashi	S. Goto
(Continued)	Yamamoto Feb. 1913	2nd Okuma Apr. 1914	Terauchi Oct. 1916	Hara Oct. 1918	Takahashi Nov. 1921
Premier	Yamamoto	Okuma	Terauchi	Hara	Takahashi
Foreign	Makino	{ Kato Okuma Ishii	{ Terauchi Motonou	{ Uchida Hara	Uchida
Home	Hara	{ Okuma Oura, Okuma Ichiki	Goto	Tokonami	Tokonami
Finance	Takahashi	{ Wakatsuki Taketomi	Shoda	Takahashi	Takahashi
Army	Kusunose	{ Oka Oshima	Oshima	{ Tanaka Yamanashi	Yamanashi
Navy	Saito	{ Yashiro T. Kato	Kato	Kato	Kato
Justice	{ Matsuda Okuda	Ozaki	Matsumuro	Oki	Oki
Education	{ Ooka Okuda	{ Ichiki Takata	Okada	Nakahashi	Nakahashi
Agriculture & Commerce	T. Yamamoto	Oura, Kono	Nakashoji	T. Yamamoto	T. Yamamoto
Communications	Motoda	{ Taketomi Minoura	Den	Noda	Noda
Railways	—	—	—	Motoda	Motoda
(Continued)	Kato (Adm.) June 1922	Yamamoto Sept. 1923	Kiyoura Jan. 1924	1st Kato June 1924	2nd Kato Aug. 1925
Premier	Kato (Adm.)	Yamamoto	Kiyoura	Kato (Vis. T.)	Kato (Vis. T.)
Foreign	Uchida	{ Yamamoto Ijuin	Matsui	Shidehara	Shidehara
Home	Mizuno	Goto	Mizuno	Wakatsuki	Wakatsuki
Finance	Ichiki	Inouye	Shoda	Hamaguchi	Hamaguchi
Army	Yamanashi	Tanaka	Ugaki	Ugaki	Ugaki
Navy	{ Kato Takarabe	Takarabe	Murakami	Takarabe	Takarabe
Justice	Okano	Hiranuma	Suzuki	{ Yokota Ogawa	Egi

Education	Kamada	Okano	S. Egi	R. Okada	R. Okada
Agriculture & Commerce	Arai	Den, Okano	Mayeda	Takahashi	
		Agr. & Forestry	Okazaki	Hayami	
		Com. & Industry	Noda	Kataoka	
Communications	Mayeda	Inukai	Fujimura	Inukai	Adachi
Railways	Oki	Yamanouchi	Komatsu	Sengoku	Sengoku
(Continued)	Wakatsuki Jan. 1926	Tanaka April 1927	Hamaguchi July 1929	2nd Wakatsuki Apr. 14, 1931	Inukai Dec. 13, 1931
Premier	Wakatsuki	Tanaka	Hamaguchi	Wakatsuki	Inukai
Foreign	Shidehara	Tanaka	Shidehara	Shidehara	{ Inukai Yoshizawa
Home	{ Wakatsuki Hamaguchi	{ Suzuki Mochizuki	Adachi	{ Adachi Suzuki	Nakahashi
Finance	{ Hamaguchi Hayami Kataoka	{ Takahashi Mitsuchi	J. Inouye	J. Inouye	{ Takahashi J. Inouye
Army	Ugaki	Shirakawa	Ugaki	J. Minami	Araki
Navy	Takarabe	Okada	Takarabe	Abo	Osumi
Justice	Egi	Y. Hara	Watanabe	{ Watanabe Kawamura	Suzuki
Education	Okada	{ Mitsuchi Mizuno Shoda	{ Kobashi R. Tanaka	R. Tanaka	Hatoyama
Agr. & Forestry	{ Hayami Machida	T. Yamamoto (Mr.)	Machida	Machida	T. Yamamoto (Mr.)
Com. & Industry	{ Kataoka Fujisawa	Nakahashi	Tawara	Sakurauchi	Mayeda
Communications	Adachi	{ Mochizuki Kuhara	Koizumi	Koizumi	Mitsuchi
Railways	{ Sengoku Inouye	Ogawa	T. Egi	T. Egi	Tokonami
Overseas Affairs (created in 1927)	—	Tanaka	G. Matsuda	S. Hara	Hata

VII. IMPERIAL DIET

The House of Peers

The House of Peers is composed of (a) Princes of the Blood; (b) Peers of the order of Princes and Marquises who are to sit in the House by virtue of their birthright when they attain the age of thirty; (c) Representatives of the peers of the order of Counts, Viscounts and Barons, who are elected from among their respective orders; (d) Men of erudition or of distinguished services nominated by the Emperor; (e) Four members of the Imperial Academy elected from among the members thereof and nominated by the Emperor; (f) Representatives of the highest tax payers elected by means of mutual election from among the highest tax payers in each prefecture, the number thereof being one or two for each prefecture. The number of members representing each of three inferior orders of the peerage is 18 for Counts, 66 for Viscounts and 66 for Barons. (Further details are given elsewhere in this chapter).

The House was composed, on December, 1932, on the occasion of the convocation of the 64th session, as follows:

Princes of Blood	16
Princes	14
Marquises	30
Counts	18
Viscounts	65
Barons	65
Imperial Nominees	124
Imperial Academy Members	4
Highest Tax Paying Member	65
Total	401

The present President of the House is Prince Fumimaro Kono (appointed in 1933), and Vice-President Count Y. Matsudaira (appointed in 1933), Chief Secretary being T. Cho.

The House of Representatives

As under the new election law passed in the 50th session of the Imperial Diet in 1925, and enforced in 1928, the House is composed of members elected by male Japanese subjects of

not less than 25 years of age, who are qualified for eligibility to the franchise with some exceptions. The whole country is divided into 119 electoral districts, Taiwan (Formosa) and other colonies being excluded of course, each district returning from 3 to 5 members to the House, with the total number of members fixed at 466. A general election is to take place every four years, and is carried on by secret ballot, one vote for one man. The allotment

of seats, which formerly was 305 for the rural districts and 75 for the urban districts, was increased to 352 and 112 respectively in 1928.

Sessions of House and Dissolutions

The chronological lists of sessions of the Lower House from the first is as follows; those marked with asterisks (*) being the dissolved sessions.

Session	Period of sitting	President	Vice-President	
1st	Nov. 29, 1890—Mar. 8, 1891	N. Nakajima	S. Tsuda	
* 2nd	Nov. 29, 1891—Dec. 25, 1891			
3rd	May 5, 1892—June 15, 1892	T. Hoshi	A. Sone	
4th	Nov. 29, 1892—Mar. 1, 1893	Do.	M. Kumamoto	
* 5th	Nov. 28, 1893—Dec. 30, 1893	M. Kusumoto	I. Abei	
* 6th	May 16, 1894—June 2, 1894		K. Kataoka	
7th	Oct. 18, 1894—Oct. 22, 1894		Do.	
8th	Dec. 24, 1894—Mar. 27, 1895		S. Shimada	
9th	Dec. 28, 1895—Mar. 29, 1896	K. Hatoyama	Do.	
10th	Dec. 25, 1896—Mar. 24, 1897		Do.	
* 11th	Dec. 24, 1897—Dec. 25, 1897		Do.	
* 12th	May 19, 1898—June 10, 1898	K. Kataoka	H. Motoda	
13th	Dec. 3, 1898—Mar. 10, 1899		T. Sugita	
14th	Nov. 22, 1899—Feb. 24, 1900			Do.
15th	Dec. 25, 1900—Mar. 25, 1901			Do.
16th	Dec. 10, 1901—Mar. 10, 1902	H. Kono	T. Sugita	
* 17th	Dec. 9, 1902—Dec. 28, 1902			
18th	May 12, 1903—June 5, 1903	M. Matsuda	K. Minoura	
* 19th	Dec. 10, 1903—Dec. 11, 1903			
20th	Mar. 20, 1904—Mar. 30, 1904	T. Sugita	Do.	
21st	Nov. 30, 1904—Feb. 28, 1905			
22nd	Dec. 28, 1905—Mar. 27, 1906			
23rd	Dec. 28, 1906—Mar. 28, 1907			
24th	Dec. 24, 1907—Mar. 28, 1908	S. Haseba	R. Koezuka	
25th	Dec. 28, 1908—Mar. 25, 1909			
26th	Dec. 24, 1909—Mar. 24, 1910			
27th	Dec. 24, 1910—Mar. 24, 1911			
28th	Dec. 24, 1911—Mar. 24, 1912	I. Ooka	N. Seki	
29th	Aug. 21, 1912—Aug. 23, 1912			
30th	Dec. 24, 1912—Mar. 26, 1913	I. Ooka, S. Haseba, H. Oku	Do.	
31st	Dec. 26, 1913—Mar. 26, 1914			
32nd	May 5, 1914—May 8, 1914	H. Oku	Do.	
33rd	June 20, 1914—June 26, 1914			
34th	Sept. 3, 1914—Sept. 9, 1914			
* 35th	Dec. 7, 1914—Dec. 25, 1914			
36th	May 20, 1915—June 15, 1915	T. Hanai	Do.	
37th	Dec. 1, 1915—Feb. 29, 1916			
* 38th	Dec. 27, 1916—June 25, 1917	S. Shimada	S. Hayami	
39th	June 22, 1917—July 15, 1917			
40th	Dec. 22, 1917—Mar. 26, 1918	I. Ooka	K. Hamada	
41st	Dec. 27, 1918—Mar. 27, 1919			
* 42nd	Dec. 26, 1919—Feb. 16, 1920	S. Oku	Y. Kasuya	
43rd	June 29, 1920—July 30, 1920			
44th	Dec. 25, 1920—Mar. 27, 1921			
45th	Dec. 25, 1921—Mar. 25, 1922			

46th	Dec. 27, 1922—Mar. 27, 1923	Y. Kasuya	G. Matsuda
47th	Dec. 11, 1923—Dec. 23, 1923		Do.
* 48th	Dec. 27, 1923—Jan. 31, 1924		Do.
49th	June 28, 1924—July 19, 1924		M. Koizumi
50th	Dec. 24, 1924—Mar. 31, 1925		Do.
51st	Dec. 24, 1925—Mar. 31, 1926	S. Morita	Do.
52nd	Dec. 24, 1926—Mar. 25, 1927		Do.
53rd	May 3, 1927—May 8, 1927	H. Motoda	G. Matsuura
* 54th	Dec. 26, 1927—Jan. 21, 1928		I. Kiyose
55th	Apr. 20, 1928—May 7, 1928	H. Motoda, M. Kawahara	Do.
56th	Dec. 24, 1928—Mar. 25, 1929		Do.
* 57th	Dec. 24, 1929—Jan. 21, 1930	Z. Horikiri	Do.
58th	Apr. 23, 1930—May 14, 1930	I. Fujisawa	M. Koyama
59th	Dec. 26, 1930—Mar. 28, 1931		
* 60th	Dec. 26, 1931—Jan. 21, 1932	K. Nakamura	G. Masuda
* 61st	Mar. 20, 1932—Mar. 25, 1932		
62nd	June 1, 1932—June 15, 1932	K. Akita	E. Uehara
63rd	Aug. 23, 1932—Sept. 5, 1932		
64th	Dec. 26, 1932—Mar. 28, 1933		

Sitting.—Ordinary sessions are generally convoked between November and December, and last three months. After effecting the organization towards the end of December the House adjourns for about one month, so that its actual working time does not exceed two months.

General Election

The general election takes place every four years, this being the regular term for Commoners. The extraordinary session must, according to the Constitution, be convened within five months from the date of dissolution. In general three or four months intervene between the date of dissolution and that of general election. Of the 18 general elections since the 1st election held in 1890 only three, i.e. those of 1902, 1908 and 1912, were regular and were held after the natural expiry of the 4 year term.

The result of the general election carried out in February 1932 was as follows:—

	Minseito	Seiyukai	Kakushin	Kokumin Domei	Neutral	Proletarians	Others	Vacancies	Total
63rd (Sept. 1932)...	117	299	4	31	0	5	5	5	466
62nd (June 1932)...	144	300	8	—	1	5	5	3	466
61st (Mar. 1932)...	144	303	2	—	1	5	11	0	466
60th (Jan. 1932)...	250	171	11	—	3	6	9	16	466
59th (Mar. 1931)...	265	171	2	—	3	—	16	9	466

Number of Franchise-Holders.—The amended election law enacted in 1925 and enforced in 1928 increased the number to 13,000,000.

	1932	Before dissolution
Minsei-to	146	249
Pro-Minsei-to	1	—
Seiyu-kai	303	171
Kakushin-to	2	3
Kokumin Doshikai	—	6
Independents (neutral)	—	16
Proletarians	5	5
Vacancies	—	16
Total	466	466

N.B.—The Kokumin Doshikai or Businessmen's Party which secured no seat in the House in the 1932 election went out of existence shortly after the election. Of the 9 neutral members 5 (returned in the 1932 election) belongs to the party of Kenzo Adachi who seceded from the Minsei-to and organized a new party styled Kokumin Domei in 1932.

Elections and the Relative Party Strength

Leaving out of account all those minor groups of temporary existence, the relative strength of those permanent parties as at the close of the respective sessions recently is shown below:—

Election	M.P.'s	Franchise-holders (1,000)	Franchise-holders per 1 member	Franchise-holders per 1,000 pop.	% of Voting	
					Voters	Absentees
1st (1890).....	300	467	1,550	11.42	—	—
10th (1908)	379	1,582	4,176	32.80	85.72	14.28
14th (1920)	464	3,069	6,166	46.33	86.70	13.30
15th (1924)	464	3,341	7,199	55.60	91.18	8.82
16th (1928)	466	12,530	26,889	199.75	80.90	19.10
17th (1930)	466	12,943	27,733	205.79	81.47	16.29
18th (1932)	466	12,015	25,785	186.41	81.64	18.32

Profession of Members.—Comparing the professions of the members returned in the general election of 1932 with that of 1908, 1920 and 1924, the decrease of farmer members and increase of those of other origins are quite noticeable, the figure showing relative percentage being as follows:—

	5th	10th	14th	15th	16th	17th	18th
Civil and Military	0.7	0.3	6.5	3.2	10.2	7.9	9.2
Medicine	1.3	1.9	1.7	3.0	2.2	2.5	1.5
Journalists.....	2.7	4.5	5.4	6.5	7.3	3.6	10.3
Lawyers.....	8.3	16.9	14.7	13.8	15.6	16.9	17.8
Businessmen.....	17.0	16.1	28.4	27.8	22.2	22.1	16.7
Farmers.....	48.7	27.4	20.0	17.9	9.5	13.9	9.4†
Mnf. and Mineowners	1.7	3.2	5.8	5.0	9.7	2.1	9.8*
Others	4.3	6.3	3.5	5.8	5.2	12.2	4.9
No profession	15.3	23.5	14.0	17.0	18.1	16.5	20.1

(†—Industry; *—Farmers and Mine-owners.)

Violation of Election Rules.—The record since the 1st election is as follows:—

Election	Inprisonment	Penalty	Acquitted	Un-seated	Total
1st (1890)...	26	211	47	—	286
2nd(1892)...	65	183	69	4	323
3rd-4th (1894) 217	504	403	24	1,155	
5th-6th (1898) 249	611	152	15	1,029	
7th (1902)...	173	1,348	335	5	1,861
8th (1903)...	140	1,642	212	2	1,998
9th (1904)...	25	230	28	1	284
10th(1908)...	128	1,419	274	—	1,921
11th(1911)...	325	3,437	188	—	3,950
12th(1915)...	448	7,194	671	19	8,332
13th(1917)...	1,283	21,245	319	530	23,377
14th(1920)...	148	5,166	145	37	5,496

Age of Members.—The average is gradually increasing as follows, the figures in percentage:—

Election	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 or over
1st (1890).....	51.3%	35.0	10.0	3.7
5th (1902).....	35.0	47.0	15.0	3.0
10th (1912).....	16.1	46.4	34.0	3.4
14th (1920).....	12.9	32.3	41.2	13.6
15th (1924).....	14.2	37.7	38.2	9.9
16th (1928).....	7.9	38.6	34.8	18.7
17th (1930).....	4.5	35.4	36.3	23.8
18th (1932).....	4.5	34.1	41.4	20.0

CHAPTER VII

THE ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM

I. THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

The Cabinet.—The "Naikaku" or Cabinet is the highest central administrative organ, and is organized with all Ministers of State who are at the same time chiefs of different departments of the central Government. The function of this collective body of the Ministers of State is to initiate, determine and carry out the general schemes and politics of the Government, and as the chief and highest executive administrative organ of the State it exercise all powers executive, legislative and judicial, which are vested in the Crown by the Constitution. Thus the issuing of all administrative and emergency ordinances, the making of treaties with foreign countries, the making or unmaking of war, etc., all falling within the executive function of the Government, are virtually controlled by the cabinet in the name of the Emperor. The Ministers of States as members of the Cabinet periodically meet to discuss and determine under the presidency and guidance of the Prime Minister how the Imperial Government is to be carried on in all important matters of State and how to advise the Emperor on such matters, the meeting being called the cabinet council.

The Central Government is composed of twelve Departments, namely those of Foreign Affairs, of Home Affairs, of Finance, of Army, of Navy, of Justice, of Education, of Agriculture & Forestry, of Commerce & Industry, of Communications, of Railways and of Overseas Affairs. The last named department was created in June 1929.

Each of these departments has its chief official, who is a Minister of State and who besides controlling the department and supervising its affairs is held responsible to the Emperor as a Minister of State. The Minister is assisted by a permanent vice-minister in controlling and supervising the affairs of the department, and also by a parliamentary vice-minister in directing political affairs of the department and matters relating to parliamentary affairs. Under the parliamentary vice-minister there is a parliamentary coun-

sellor whose duty is to assist the parliamentary vice-minister in such matters. Then each department is divided into several bureaux, each bureau having its head or bureau director, and again each of these bureaux is divided into more than one sections, each section having its chief official or sectional chief. Under those chief officials there is a number of clerks who are attached to different bureaux or sections as the case may be.

Besides these officials, there are in each department a personal secretary to the Minister, several secretaries, technical experts, and other special officials or non-official members, etc. The Ministers are appointed by the Emperor in person and are classed as officials of Shinin rank; the vice-ministers (both parliamentary and permanent), parliamentary counsellors and bureau directors are called the officials of Chokunin rank and are appointed by the Ministers by the order of the Emperor. Ordinary clerks and other junior officials belong to either the Sonin or Hannin rank.

The Composition of Departments

The composition of various departments, briefly explained, is as follows:—

The Foreign Office (Gaimu-sho). There are four bureaux, i.e. Asiatic Bureau, European & American Bureau, Commercial Bureau and Treaty Bureau, besides the Intelligence Department and the Cultural Undertakings Department. Location—Kasumigaseki 1-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The Home Office (Naimu-sho). Is divided into five bureaux, i.e. those of Shrines, Local Affairs, Police, Public Work, and Sanitation, in addition to which there are two special bureaux, namely, Social Bureau and Employment Exchange Office. It also controls Shinto shrines, city and town planning, etc. Location.—Sakurada-machi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The Finance Department (Okura-sho). Has four bureaux, i.e. Account, Taxation, Finance, and Banking; also the Deposit Department, the Mint, the Monopoly Bureau, etc. Location—Otemachi 1-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The Army Department (Rikugun-sho). Is divided into seven bureaux, namely, those of Personnel, Military Affairs, Reorganization, Ordinance, Account, Medical Affairs, Construction and Judicial Affairs. The General Staff Office consisting of four sub-departments with a number of officers is also on the same premises as the Army Department. Location—Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The Navy Department (Kaigun-sho). Is divided into eight bureaux, namely, those of Military Affairs, Personnel, Education, Supplies, Medical Affairs, Account, Construction and Judicial Affairs. The Naval Staff Board is also on the same premises as the Navy Department. Location—Kasumigaseki 2-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The Department of Justice (Shiho-sho). Consists of the Civil Affairs bureau, the Criminal Affairs bureau and the Prison Affairs bureau. Location—Nishihibiya-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The Education Department (Mombu-sho). Consists of six bureaux, i.e., Special Education, Common Education, Technical Education, Social Education, Libraries, and Religions. Location—Ote-machi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The Department of Agriculture & Forestry (Norin-sho). Is divided into five bureaux, namely, those of Agriculture, Forestry, Fishery, Stock-breeding, and Sericulture. Besides, it has 6 local forest bureaux in Tokyo and elsewhere, the Yokohama Silk Conditioning House, several local agricultural, horticultural, tea, fishery, sericultural, stock-breeding and forestry experiment stations, etc. Location—Ote-machi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The Department of Commerce & Industry (Shoko-sho). Is divided into four bureaux, i.e., Commerce, Industry, Mining, and Trade, and besides, Patent Bureau, Insurance Section, Geological Investigation Institute; also controls the Iron Foundry (at Yawata), the local mining superintendence bureaux, etc. Location—Kobiki-cho 10-chome, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo.

The Department of Communications (Teishin-sho). Is divided into seven bureaux, i.e. Postal Affairs, Telegraph & Telephone, Construction, Electrical Affairs, Mercantile Marine, Aviation, and Financial; also has several separate bureaux such as Post Savings Bank, Petty Insurance, Communications, Lighthouse, etc. Location—Ote-machi 2-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The Department of Railways (Tetsudo-sho). Has seven bureaux, i.e., Private Railway Administration, Traffic, Construction, Way & Work, Engineering, Electric, and Financial. Besides, it has the Bureau of Traffic Industry, Divisional Superintendence Offices, etc. Location—Ote-machi, 1-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

The Department of Overseas Affairs (Takumu-sho). Consists of one sub-department (Chosen Dept.) and three bureaux, namely, those of Superintendence, Industrial, and Colonial Affairs. Location—Nishi Hibiya-machi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

II. CIVIL AND MILITARY SERVICE

Classification

The civil service is graded into four ranks, viz. as follows:—

"Shin-nin" or Ministerial—Cabinet Ministers, Privy Councillors, Ambassadors, and a few others, who are nominated by the Emperor in person and are entitled to report direct to the Crown.

"Choku-nin" or Directorship—Vice-Ministers and Bureau Directors of various Departments, Prefectural Governors, University Professors of high grade and some others, all of whom are appointed by the Emperor through the chiefs of the respective Departments and are entitled to attend the State ceremonies.

"So-nin" or Secretaryship—Bureau Secretaries, Sectional Chiefs, etc., who are not entitled to attend the State ceremonies.

"Han-nin" or Clerical staff—Assistant engineers, etc.

The 2nd and 3rd grade officials (i.e. "Choku-nin" and "Sonin" officials) are also collectively called "Koto-kan" (High officials), the term being also applied to high officers of the Army and Navy. Non-commissioned and warrant officers of the Army and Navy are classed as "Han-nin" rank.

Appointment

Under the Appointment Regulation in force the "Chokunin" officials are appointed, in principle, from among those "Sonin" officials of higher rank who have been in the service for over 2 years or others possessing similar qualifications, the Army and Navy officers of the rank above major-general or read-admiral or corresponding rank having the

privilege to be appointed the "Chokunin" official (civil) of the Army or Navy Department respectively. The "Sonin" officials are appointed from among those who passed the examination for higher civil service or others possessing similar qualifications; those "Han-nin" officials who have been in the service for over 5 years and have shown ability in the execution of official business being accorded the treatment of "Sonin" grade. The "Han-nin" officials are appointed from among those who have passed the examination for ordinary civil service or graduates of middle schools or other schools of similar status and recognized as such by the Education Minister, or others having similar qualifications, or those junior clerks or employees who have been in the public service for over 4 years successively.

Special Appointment—Some classes of high officials are appointed irrespective of the aforementioned qualifications, these being Chief Secretary of Cabinet, Director of Legislation Board, Parliamentary Vice-Ministers and Parliamentary Councillors of various Departments, Director of Police Affairs Bureau (Home Office), Inspector-General of Metropolitan Police, Chief Secretaries of the Houses of the Diet, Personal Secretaries to the Ministers of State, etc. The special appointment also covers the Chiefs of Govt. Iron Foundry and Monopoly Bureau, Directors of Printing Bureau, the Mint and the Woollen Factory (Army), Financial Commissioners stationed abroad, and a few others, who are appointed from among men possessing technical knowledge, tact and experience necessary to the execution of official business particular to the respective posts, irrespective of the qualifications specified in the Appointment Regulations.

The total force of the staff of Government service at the end of 1931 was as follows:—

Civil Service.—"Chokunin," 1,378; "Sonin," 14,201; "Han-nin," 118,952; Employees, 337,974; Total 472,511.

Army and Navy.—"Shin-nin" and "Choku-nin," (A.) 221, (N.) 119; "Sonin," (A.) 13,544, (N.) 4,692; "Han-nin," (A.) 3,531, (N.) 21,162; Cadets, (N.) 337; Total (A.) 17,297, (N.) 78,988; Grand Total 96,278.

Besides, there were 2,544 officials and 2,169 employees in the service of the Imperial

Household Department, who are not included in the above list.

Scale of Salaries

The scale of salaries for the officials in the Government service of all ranks excluding Premier, Ministers of State, Governor-Generals of Chosen and Taiwan, and Governor of Kwantung Leased Territory were substantially increased in 1920. The new scale for principal posts in civil and military service stands as follows:—

"Shin-nin" Rank

Office	Salary per annum
Prime Minister.....	¥9,600
Ministers of State	} 6,800
Gov-Gen. of Chosen	
Pres. of the Privy Council	} 6,600
Gov. of Kwantung	
Gov-Gen. of Taiwan	
Ambassadors	
Pres. Administrative Litigation Court	
Pres. of Supreme Court	} 6,200
Public Procurator-general	
Vice-Pres. of the Privy Council	
Dir-Gen. of Administrative Affairs (Chosen)	} 5,800
Privy Councillors	

"Chokunin" Rank

Pres. of Imp. Universities	} ¥
Pres. of Iron Foundry	
Gov. of Hokkaido	} 5,800—5,100
Pres. of Board of National Resources	
Chief Secretary of Cabinet	} 5,800
Chief of Legislation Board	
Vice-Ministers (Parl. & Perm.)	} 5,800
Dir-Gen. of Civil Affairs (Taiwan)	
Inspector-Gen. of Metropolitan Police	} 5,800
Board	
Pres. of Supreme Court (Chosen)	} 5,800—4,050
Judges & Procurators	
Gov. of South Sea Is. & of Karafuto	} 5,100
Pres. of Board of Decoration	
Chief Secy. of Privy Council	} 5,350—4,650
Prefectural Governors	
Chief Secy. of the Houses of Diet	} 4,650
Parliamentary Councillors	
Bureau Directors	} 4,650

The Governors of Tokyo, Osaka, Kyoto, Kanagawa and Hyogo enjoy each an additional allowance of ¥800, and those of Nagasaki, Niigata, Aichi, Miyagi, Hiroshima, Fukuoka and Kumamoto, ¥600.

"Sonin" and "Hannin" Rank		7th "	8th "	9th "	10th "	11th "	12th "
Grade	"Sonin" (Annual)	"Han-nin" (Monthly)	2,150-1,300	1,820-1,130	1,650-1,050	1,370-970	1,300-900
1st class	¥4,050-2,770	¥160	65	55	50	45	40
2nd "	3,660-2,420	135					
3rd "	3,400-2,150	115					
4th "	3,050-1,820	100					
5th "	2,770-1,650	85					
6th "	2,420-1,470	75					

Note.—In exceptional cases the salary of "Hannin" rank may be raised to ¥200.

Diplomatic & Consular Service

Salary	Service Allowance
Ambassador ¥6,600	¥45,000 (U.S.A.) 40,000 (Great Britain & France) 35,000 (Germany) 30,000 (Russia, Italy, Brazil & Turkey) 28,000 (Belgium) 26,000 (China) 20,000 (Manchoukuo)
Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary (a) 5,800 (b) 5,100 (c) 4,650	25,000 (Austria, Persia, Argentina & Canada) 22,000 (European countries except Austria) 18,000 (Mexico, Chile & Peru) 15,000 (Siam)
Embassy Counsellor and Emb. Commercial Counsellor (a) 5,800 (b) 5,100 (c) 4,650	¥15,000-7,300
Consul-General ¥4,650	¥15,000-13,000 (New York); 14,000-12,000 (San Francisco); 12,000-10,000 (London, Hamburg, Sydney, Honolulu & San Paulo); 11,000-9,000 (Mukden, Alexandria & Shanghai); 10,000-8,000 (Habarovsk, Vladivostok, Alexandrovsk, Harbin, Singapore & Calcutta); 9,000-8,000 (Tientsin, Tsingtao, Nanking, Hankow & Manila); 8,500-7,500 (Tainan, Canton, Hongkong, Hanoi & Batavia); 7,000-6,000 (in Manchoukuo and some Chinese cities.)
Consul ¥4,054-2,150	¥9,000 (Havana); 8,500 (Seattle, Chicago and New York); 8,150 (London); 8,000 (Liverpool, Marseilles, Los Angeles, Portland, New Orleans, Vancouver, Panama & Bauru); 7,800 (San Francisco); 7,650 (Hamburg); 7,500 (Lyons, Milan, Anvers, Odessa, Mazatlan & Lima); 7,000 (Rangoon, Colombo, Bombay, Port Said, Mombassa, Cape Town & San Paulo); 6,800 (Sydney & Honolulu); 6,800 (Alexandria); 6,500 (Saigon & Durvao); 6,000-4,000 (in other places).
Vice-Consul ¥3,050-1,300	¥7,750-5,850 (U.S.A., Holland & Turkey)

Imperial Household Service

	Salary per annum
Minister	¥6,800
Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal	6,800
Director of Peerage Bureau	6,200-5,800
Grand Chamberlain	6,200-5,800
Grand Master of Ceremonies.....	6,200-5,800
Vice-Minister	5,800
Lord Steward to Empress	5,800-5,100

Lord Steward to Empress Dowager 5,800-5,100
President of Imp. Estate Bureau ... 5,800-4,650
President of Imp. Board of Audit... 5,800-4,650

Officials of higher civil service draw from ¥5,100 to 970 a year.

Judicial Service

	Salary per annum
Supreme Court:	
President	¥6,600

Procurator-General	6,600
Judges & Procurators	5,800-4,050
Appeal Courts:	
President	5,800-4,650
Chief Procurators	5,800-4,650
Judges & Procurators	4,650-4,050
District Courts:	
Presiding Judges & Chief Procurators	4,650-4,050

Army Service

General	¥6,600
Lieut-General	5,800
Major-General	5,000
Colonel	4,150
Lieut-Colonel	3,220
Major	2,330
Captain	1,900-1,470
Lieutenant.....	1,130-1,020
Sub-Lieutenant.....	850
Bandmaster (1st)	2,150-1,750
" (2nd)	1,540-1,390
" (3rd)	1,240-1,130

Navy Service

Admiral	¥6,600
Vice-Admiral	5,800
Rear-Admiral	5,000
Captain	4,150
Commander	3,220
Lieutenant-Commander.....	2,330
Lieutenant.....	1,900-1,470
Sub-Lieutenant (1st)	1,130-1,020
Sub-Lieutenant (2nd).....	850
Special Commission Lieutenant.....	2,070-1,910
" " Sub.-Lieutenant (1st) ...	1,740-1,630

Length of service	Generals & Admirals	Colonels (Captains) to Lieutenants	Non-Commissioned & Warrant Officers	Privates
11	¥2,500-1,867	¥1,534-467	¥400-225	¥200-150
15	2,700-1,017	1,656-505	432-253	224-174
20	2,950-2,204	1,808-552	472-288	254-204
25	3,200-2,392	1,961-600	512-329	284-234
30	3,450-2,579	2,113-647	552-358	314-264
35	3,700-2,767	2,266-695	592-393	344-294
40	3,950-2,954	2,418-742	632-428	474-334
45	4,200-3,329	2,571-790	673-463	404-381
50	4,500-3,329	2,703-837	712-498	434-384

Additional Pension.—Civil officials and military officers and men who retire on account of incapacity arising from sickness contracted while in discharge of duty or who have become invalids because of wounds sustained in action are granted additional pension at the rate ranging from ¥240 to ¥2,880 per annum for those disabled while on ordinary duty and from ¥300 to ¥3,600 per annum for

Special Commission Sub.-Lieutenant (2nd)	1,470-1,368
Cadets	670

III. THE PENSION SYSTEM

The pension law (revised in 1923) divides pensions into (a) ordinary pension, (b) additional pension and invalid allowance, (c) retiring allowance, (d) pension to the families of deceased officials and officers, and (e) allowance to the families of deceased officials and officers. Those who are entitled to pension under the law are civil officials above "hannin" rank and military officers and men, the staff of public schools and libraries, prison and police officers (all above "hannin" rank) being also entitled to the same privileges as civil officials.

Ordinary Pension.—Civil officials who retire after a series of 15 years or more (5 years in the case of Ministers of State and 10 years in the case of police and prison officers) are entitled to ordinary pension, the amount being fixed according to the length of service and the sum of salary drawn at the time of retirement. The rate is 50/150 of the annual sum of salary for one whose service extended 15-16 years, 1/150 to be added for each extra year until the maximum of 40 years is reached. Military officers and men are granted ordinary pension on retiring after the service of 11 years or more, an addition being allowed for each extra year until the maximum of 50 years is reached, as shown in the under-mentioned scale of rate fixed according to rank and length of service.

those disabled in action. The rates differ according to the order of official rank held at the time of retiring from service and the degree of incapacity.

Invalid Allowance.—This is granted on military men of the rank of non-commissioned and warrant officers and privates or bluejackets who retire from service on account of ill health or wounds suffered while on duty,

though not disabled for life. The rates which differ according to rank as well as the cause and degree of incapacity range between ¥132 (min.) and ¥1,650 (max.) for non-commissioned officers and warrant officers, and between ¥120 (min.) and ¥1,500 (max.) for privates and bluejackets, as shown below:—

	Invalid from action	Invalid from discharge of ordinary duty
Non-commissioned and warrant officers.....	¥165—1,650	¥132—1,320
Privates and bluejackets	150—1,500	120—1,200

Retiring Allowance.—Retiring allowance is granted to those who retire from the service before the tenure of service entitles them to pension, the sum being fixed, as in the case of pension, according to the length of service and the sum of salary drawn by the retiring official or officer at the time of retirement. For civil officials it is calculated by multiplying the sum of monthly salary by the number of years of service. Rates for military officers vary according to the official rank and the length of service, the scale of maximum and minimum rates being as follows:—

Rank	Minimum	Maximum
Generals and Admirals...	(a) ... ¥4,375	¥6,250
	(b) 3,250	5,417
	(c) 2,333	4,667
Colonels to Lieutenants...	(a) 1,533	3,833
	(b) 988	3,292
	(c) 542	2,708
	(d) 196	1,960
	(e) 142	1,417
	(f) 117	1,167
Non-commissioned & warrant officers	(a) 100	1,000
	(b) 71	713
	(c) 64	638
	(d) 56	563

Pension & Allowance to Families of Deceased Officials and Officers.—Pension is granted to the family of the deceased whose tenure of service entitles him to ordinary pension or who had already been receiving ordinary pension, the amount being (1) the whole sum of the pension to the deceased in the case of death from ill health or wounds suffered in action, (2) 8/10 in the case of death from ill health or wounds while on ordinary duty, and (3) 5/10 in the case of death from other cause.

Allowance is granted to the family of one who died while in office before the tenure of service entitles him to pension, the amount be-

ing same as the retiring allowance for the corresponding length of service.

The order of family members entitled to this pension or allowance is widow, children under age, widower, parents, and grandparents.

Pension And Annuities

Pensions to civil and military officers, annuities to their families, and lump sum of money granted on their retiring, or, in case of death, to their families, make the following record (in Yen). Annuities attached to the decorations are also added.

Civil Service

Year	Pension		Annuity to family	
	No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
1927.....	53,879	¥30,833,565	21,052	¥5,711,918
1928.....	54,377	31,550,131	22,238	6,129,907
1929.....	56,008	33,107,076	23,310	6,521,611
1930.....	57,373	34,542,230	24,328	6,866,909
1931.....	59,966	36,792,783	25,641	7,330,837

Army Service

Year	Pension		Annuity to family	
	No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
1927.....	113,951	¥47,359,321	84,157	¥16,265,322
1928.....	113,564	47,964,080	81,614	15,924,968
1929.....	113,461	48,470,638	80,568	15,808,368
1930.....	112,665	48,753,196	79,341	15,665,242
1931.....	112,476	49,478,838	78,088	15,513,920

Navy Service

Year	Pension		Annuity to family	
	No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
1927.....	59,476	¥21,827,293	13,685	¥3,261,461
1928.....	61,933	22,830,981	14,357	3,419,973
1929.....	64,007	23,611,108	14,874	3,541,459
1930.....	66,805	24,640,808	15,174	3,605,350
1931.....	69,196	25,589,352	15,862	3,776,040

Annuity attached to the Order of Golden Kite and Rising Sun

Year	Golden Kite		Rising Sun	
	No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
1927.....	65,056	¥11,727,600	3,976	¥254,505
1928.....	63,880	11,490,100	3,732	236,420
1929.....	62,858	11,267,150	3,651	230,615
1930.....	61,856	11,073,700	3,557	221,125
1931.....	60,804	10,872,650	3,377	210,515

Note.—Also see "Decoration," Chapter on "Imperial Court," etc.

DIRECTORY

Cabinet:—

- Prime Minister Viscount Makoto Saito
- Chief Secretary Z. Shibata
- Chief, Legislation Board... Z. Horikiri
- .. Decoration Board... Y. Gejo
- .. National Resources Board K. Usami
- Bureau Directors:—Statistics, T. Hasegawa; Pension, S. Higai; Printing, S. Sugi.

Privy Council:—

- President Dr. Baron Y. Kuratomi
- Vice-President Dr. Baron K. Hiranuma
- Chief Secretary Dr. H. Futagami

Councillors:—

- H. I. H. Prince Yasuhito Chichibu
- H. I. H. Prince Nobuhito Takamatsu
- H. I. H. Prince Kotohito Kan-in
- Count Miyoji Ito
- Viscount K. Kaneko
- Baron Y. Kubota
- Dr. Baron M. Tomii
- Viscount T. Ishiguro
- Marquis N. Kuroda
- Dr. Baron K. Furuichi
- Dr. J. Sakurai
- Kentaro Arai
- Misao Kawai (Gen.)
- Kenzo Ishiwara
- Eikichi Kamada
- K. Suzuki (Adm.)
- Viscount K. Ishii
- Dr. K. Mizumachi
- Ryohei Okada
- R. Arima (Adm.)
- Dr. Yoshimichi Hara
- Dr. Seitaro Kubota
- Visc. Shin-ichiro Kurino
- Hajime Motoda
- Soroku Suzuki (Gen.)

Imperial Household Department:—

- Minister Kurahei Yuasa
- Vice-Minister Masao Oya
- Lord Keeper of Privy Seal... Count M. Makino
- Grand Chamberlain Adm. K. Suzuki
- Deputy Grand Chamberlain Marquis T. Hirohata
- Grand Master of Ceremonies Baron G. Hayashi
- Deputy Grand Master of Ceremonies Viscount K. Matsudaira
- Grand Master of Rituals... Prince K. Sanjo
- Deputy Grand Master of Rituals H. Tachibana
- Chief Aide-de-Camp to the Emperor Gen. Shigeru Honjo
- Chief, Board of Audit..... Yahachi Kawai
- Bureau Directors:—Peerage, (Visc. M. Sengoku); Imperial Tombs, N. Watanabe; Medical Affairs, Dr. T. Sato; Culinary Affairs, Baron H. Higashikuze; Archives, N. Watanabe; Architecture, M. Otani; Treasury, Baron M. Shirane; Imperial Mews, Y. Sugimura; Crown Forest, M. Mitsuya; Poetry, Visc. T. Iriye.

- Lord Steward to the Empress Marquis T. Hirohata

- Lord Steward to the Empress Dowager..... Viscount T. Iriye
- President, Peers' School... Dr. T. Araki
- President, Peeresses School Junji Nagaya
- Director, Imperial Household Museum (Tokyo)... Eisaburo Sugi
- Acting Director, Imperial Household Museum (Nara) Gun-ichi Wada

Foreign Affairs:—

- Minister Koki Hirota
 - Parliamentary Vice-Minister Masao Taki
 - Permanent Vice-Minister... Mamoru Shigemitsu
 - Parliamentary Counsellor... S. Nishiwaki
 - Bureau Directors:—Asiatic Affairs, K. Kuwajima; European & American Affairs, S. Togo; Commercial, S. Kurusu; Treaty, S. Kuriyama
 - Chief, Intelligence Bureau, Eiji Amou
 - .. Cultural Undertaking Department Teiji Tsubokami
- (N.B.—For the names of Ambassadors, Ministers and other diplomatic and consular officials see Directory, Chapter on Diplomacy)

Department of Home Affairs:—

- Minister Baron Tatsuo Yamamoto
- Parliamentary Vice-Minister Takao Saito
- Permanent Vice-Minister... Keinosuke Ushio
- Parliamentary Counsellor... Eikichi Katsuda
- Bureau Directors:—Shrines, K. Ishida; Local Affairs, E. Yasui; Police, M. Matsumoto; Public Works, T. Karasawa; Sanitary, T. Oshima; Social Affairs, S. Niwa.
- Chief, Japanese Office of International Labor Board (Geneva)..... S. Yoshisaka

Finance Department:—

- Minister Korekiyo Takahashi
- Parliamentary Vice-Minister Zembei Horikiri
- Permanent Vice-Minister... Hideo Kuroda
- Parliamentary Counsellor... Tsukasa Kamitsuka
- Financial Commissioner Abroad (London, Paris & New York)... Juichi Tsushima
- Chief, Foreign Exchange Department... K. Aoki
- Chief, Construction Fund Control Department H. Kuroda
- Bureau Directors:—Account, S. Fujii; Taxation, T. Nakajima; Finance, Y. Tomita; Banking, T. Okubo; Monopoly, K. Sasaki; Mint, Kumasaburo Yasukura
- Chief, Deposit Department... Takeo Kawagoye
- Directors, Customs Houses:—R. Kaneko (Yokohama); T. Kubodera (Kobe); M. Suetsugu (Osaka); Y. Yasuye (Nagasaki); H. Kanemitsu (Moji); K. Ota (Hakodate)

Directors, Local Taxation Superintendence Bureaus:—S. Izumi (Tokyo); Y. Matsuoka (Osaka); N. Tanabashi (Sapporo); M. Motoo (Sendai); S. Arai (Nagoya); T. Nozu (Hiroshima); K. Mineda (Kumamoto)

(Army & Navy later)

Justice Department:—

Minister Matsukichi Koyama
Parliamentary
Vice-Minister Takeji Yanami
Permanent Vice-Minister... Haruhiro Minakawa
Parliamentary Counsellor... Busuke Iwamoto
Bureau Directors:—Civil Affairs, K. Omori; Criminal Affairs, H. Kimura; Prison Affairs, H. Shiono
President, Supreme Court... Dr. Teikichi Wani
Procurator-General,
Supreme Court Dr. Raisaburo Hayashi
Presidents, Appeal Courts:—N. Ohara (Tokyo); Dr. S. Tanita (Osaka); K. Tachibashi (Nagoya); U. Tanaka (Hiroshima); T. Ishii (Nagasaki); S. Shimizu (Miyagi); T. Nagashima (Sapporo).
Chief Procurators, ditto:—H. Yahagi (Tokyo); J. Mitsuyuki (Osaka); T. Yoshimasa (Nagoya); T. Minamiya (Hiroshima); Y. Koga (Nagasaki); T. Toyoda (Miyagi); S. Tanaka (Sapporo)
Presidents, Juvenile Courts:—G. Suzuki (Tokyo); S. Furuya (Osaka)

Education Department:—

Minister Ichiro Hatoyama
Parliamentary
Vice-Minister Dr. Minoru Togo
Permanent Vice-Minister... Ken Awaya
Parliamentary Counsellor... Toyokazu Ishizaka
Bureau Directors:—Special School Affairs, N. Akama; Common School Affairs, K. Takebe; Technical School Affairs, T. Kikuchi; Social Education, R. Sekiya; Text books, T. Shibata; Religions, J. Shimomura; Students Department, N. Ito.
President, Tokyo Imperial University Dr. K. Onozuka
Director, Epidemic Disease Institute Dr. M. Nagayo
Director, Aeronautical Institute Dr. Koroku Wada
Director, Seismic Research Institute Dr. Mishio Ishimoto
Director, Tokyo Astronomical Observatory Dr. Kiyofusa Satome
Director, Imperial Library... J. Matsumoto
Director, Central Meteorological Observatory (Tokyo) Dr. T. Okada
Director, Marine Observatory (Kobe) ... Dr. T. Okada
Director, High Altitude Observatory W. Oishi
Director, Geodetic Observatory Dr. Sakae Kimura
Director, Science Museum... Y. Akiho
Director, Imperial Academy Dr. J. Sakurai

Director, Imperial Fine Art Academy N. Masaki
President, Kyoto Imperial University Dr. N. Matsui
President, Tohoku Imperial University Dr. K. Honda
President, Kyushu Imperial University C. Matsuura
President, Hokkaido Imperial University Dr. T. Minami
President, Osaka Imperial University Dr. H. Nagaoka

(N.B.—For the names of Presidents of other Universities and Directors of Colleges and Schools, see Chapter on Education)

Department of Agriculture & Forestry:—

Minister Fumio Goto
Parliamentary
Vice-Minister Viscount N. Oda
Permanent Vice-Minister... Tadaatsu Ishiguro
Parliamentary Counsellor... Kenzo Matsumura
Bureau Directors:—Agriculture, T. Nagase; Forestry, R. Murakami; Fishery, Y. Toda; Stock Breeding, T. Takahashi; Sericulture, S. Ino
Director, Silk Conditioning House (Yokohama) Genshiro Haga
Director, Silk Conditioning House (Kobe) Toshishiko Higo

Department of Commerce & Industry:—

Minister Baron K. Nakajima
Parliamentary
Vice-Minister Shigeo Iwakiri
Permanent Vice-Minister... Shinji Yoshino
Parliamentary Counsellor... Mitsuzo Matsumura
Bureau Directors:—Commercial, S. Kawakubo; Industrial, K. Takeuchi; Mining, T. Fukuda; Trade, S. Terao; Insurance, K. Otsuka.
Chief, Government Iron Foundry Reisaku Nakai
Chief, Patent Bureau Shinkei Nakamatsu

Department of Communications:—

Minister Hiroshi Minami
Parliamentary
Vice-Minister Ryozo Makino
Permanent Vice-Minister... Hachiro Ohashi
Parliamentary Counsellor... Viscount T. Tachibana
Bureau Directors:—Postal Affairs, S. Kuno; Telegraph & Telephone Affairs, N. Yamamoto; Construction, Y. Yonezawa; Electrical, J. Shimizu; Mercantile Marine, H. Asano; Aviation, N. Kataoka; Financial, K. Tomiyasu; Postal Savings, T. Inokuma; Petty Insurance, N. Hirai; Light House, T. Osagawa.

Directors of Local Communications Bureaus:—M. Mayeda (Tokyo); G. Yasumitsu (Nagoya); M. Seki (Osaka); S. Sassa (Hiroshima); S. Shindo (Kumamoto); K. Miyake (Sendai); A. Yamazaki (Sapporo).

Department of Railways:—

Minister Chuzo Mitsuchi
Parliamentary
Vice-Minister Kan-ichi Nagawa
Permanent Vice-Minister... Kei-ichi Kubota
Parliamentary Counsellor... Junsuke Itaya
Bureau Directors:—Traffic, H. Hiasa; Construction, K. Ikeda; Way and Works, Dr. Y. Kuroguchi; Private Railway Administration, K. Kiyasu; Engineering, Dr. K. Asakura; Financial, Y. Kudo; Electric, Baron S. Iida; Tourist Industry, K. Sahara.
Regional Superintendents:—G. Arai (Tokyo); K. Ikeda (Nagoya); M. Mayeda (Osaka); T. Fukaura (Moji); Y. Kimura (Sendai); T. Uryu (Sapporo).

Department of Overseas Affairs:—

Minister Ryutarō Nagai
Parliamentary
Vice-Minister Kojiro Tsutsumi
Permanent Vice-Minister... Retsu Kawada
Parliamentary Counsellor... Kozaemon Kimura
Chief, Chosen Department R. Kawada
Bureau Directors:—Superintendence, T. Ikoma; Industrial, K. Kitajima; Colonial Affairs, S. Koriyama.

Government-General of Chosen:—

Governor-General Gen. Kazushige Ugaki
Director-General of Administrative Affairs... Kiyonori Imaida
Bureau Directors:—Internal Affairs, S. Ushijima; Financial, S. Hayashi; Industrial, S. Hozumi; Judicial, K. Kasai; Educational, T. Watanabe; Police, K. Ikeda; Forestry, S. Watanabe; Railway, H. Yoshida; Communications, S. Yamamoto; Monopoly, Baron M. Matsuda
Director, Higher Court, S. Fukuzawa; Director, Appeal Court, T. Ogawa
Customs Directors, B. Haga (Jinsen), Izumi Koike (Fusan); G. Kagayama (Shingishu)

Government-General of Taiwan:—

Governor-General Kenzo Nakagawa
Director-General of Administrative Affairs... Hiroyoshi Hiratsuka
Bureau Directors:—Internal Affairs, J. Kohama; Education, T. Yasutake; Finance, S. Okada; Traffic, Hotta; Industrial, S. Nakanose; Police, K. Ishigaki; Monopoly, K. Tabata.
Director, Higher Court ... W. Goto
Customs Director H. Masuda

Government of Kwantung:—

Governor Gen. Takashi Hishikari
Adviser Count Dr. H. Hayashi
Bureau Directors:—Internal Affairs, S. Kusaka; Police Affairs, S. Tomobe; Finance, S. Ueda; Communications, T. Fujii; Maritime Affairs, M.

Okamoto; Monopoly, T. Mikageike
Higher Court (Ryojun):—President, T. Sugiura;
Chief Procurator, K. Shimoda
Chiefs, Civil Administration Offices:—Higashi Ban (Ryojun); T. Mikageike (Dairen); Y. Owada (Chinchow); Go Gen-Kei (Pulantien); S. Torikoye (Pitsuho)

Government of Karafuto:—

Governor Takeshi Imamura
Bureau Directors:—Home, K. Takatori; Police, T. Yamazaki; Agr. & For., T. Takahashi; Railway, T. Oshima
Director, Central Laboratory... Dr. Y. Miyake

South Sea Islands (Mandate) Office:—

Governor Hisao Hayashi
Secretary Roichi Kodama
Sectional Chiefs:—A. Hayashi (Financial); S. Tateyama (General Affairs); Y. Kuda (Police).
Director, Higher Court ... Y. Matsuo

Board of Audit:—

President Hideo Kono
Departmental Chiefs:—B. Kawamoto (1st), K. Oka (2nd), A. Inouye (3rd)

Court of Administrative Litigation:—

President Dr. S. Shimizu
Departmental Chiefs:—T. Miyake, Dr. G. Endo
Councillors:—T. Miyake, G. Endo, K. Sekiguchi, T. Shimamura, K. Murakami, T. Sawada, B. Abe, F. Nozawa, S. Horiye, S. Sugita, T. Shirokane, etc.

Metropolitan Police Board:—

Inspector-General Shohei Fujinuma

Department of Army:—

Minister General Sadao Araki
Parliamentary
Vice-Minister Viscount A. Toki
Permanent Vice-Minister... Lt.-Gen. H. Yanagawa
Parliamentary Counsellor... Saburo Ishii
Bureau Directors:—Personnel, Maj.-Gen. J. Matsuura; Military Affairs, Maj.-Gen. S. Yamaoka; Arms, Lieut.-Gen. A. Uyemura; Finance, Paym.-Maj.-Gen. C. Onodera; Medical Affairs, Surgeon-Gen. T. Goda; Law Affairs, N. Suzuki; Organization, Lt.-Gen. K. Hayashi.
Chief, Aviation Dep't. Lt.-Gen. G. Sugiyama
Chief, Military Arsenal ... Lt.-Gen. A. Kishimoto
Chief, Ordnance Dep't. ... Lt.-Gen. T. Miki
Chief, Technical Dep't. Gen. K. Ogata
Chief, Scientific Research Institute Maj.-Gen. T. Hisamura
Chairman, Technical Council Maj.-Gen. S. Nakajima
Commander, Tokyo Garrison Lt.-Gen. S. Hayashi
Commander, Gendarmerie Headquarters Lt.-Gen. S. Hata

Commander, Gendarmerie
Headquarters of Chosen, Maj.-Gen. R. Iwasa
Chief, Fortification Dep't., Lt.-Gen. S. Takahashi
Chief, Military Horse
Supply Department, Lt.-Gen. K. Muto
Chief, Transport Dep't., Lt.-Gen. K. Miyake
Director, Senju Woollen
Factory, Paym. Maj.-Gen.
K. Matsuno
Director, Provision Depot, Paym. Gen. I. Chiba
Director, Clothing Depot, Paym. Maj.-Gen. Y. Shirai

General Staff Office:—
Chief, Field-Marshal H.I.H. Prince Kan-in
Vice-Chief, Lt.-Gen. K. Uyeda
Sectional Chiefs:—Maj.-Gen. T. Hashimoto (General
Affairs); Lt.-Gen. M. Furuso (1st Sec.); Maj.-Gen.
R. Isotani (2nd Sec.); Maj.-Gen. O. Yamada (3rd
Sec.); Maj.-Gen. J. Nishio (4th Sec.)
Chief, Land Surveying Dep't., Maj.-Gen. M. Suzuki
Military Education Department.—
Superintendent, Gen. S. Hayashi
Chief, Lt.-Gen. S. Kashii
Inspectors:—Cavalry, Lt.-Gen. T. Yoshioka; Artil-
lery, Lt.-Gen. J. Iriye; Engineering, Lt.-Gen. T.
Iwakoshi; Commissariat, Lt.-Gen. T. Inouye.
School Directors:—Military Staff College, Lt.-Gen. T.
Hirose; Art. & Eng. School, Lt.-Gen. Y. Nakaoka;
Infantry School, Lt.-Gen. K. Kogetsu; Toyama
School, Lt.-Gen. I. Shibuya; Cavalry School, Maj.-
Gen. H. Hara; Field Artillery School, Maj.-Gen.
M. Ito; Heavy Artillery School, Maj.-Gen. T. Go;
Engineering School, Lt.-Gen. T. Kamimura;
Cadets School, Lt.-Gen. T. Inagaki; Paymaster
School, Paym. Maj.-Gen. A. Yokota; Surgeons
School, Surg.-Gen. C. Koizumi; Veterinary Surgeon
School, Vet. Surg.-Gen. K. Niimi; Motor Car
School, Maj.-Gen. T. Kojima; Akeno Aviation
School, Baron Y. Tokugawa; Tokorozawa Avia-
tion School, Maj.-Gen. M. Sano; Shimoshizu
Aviation School, Lt.-Gen. R. Asada; Hamamatsu
Aviation School, Colonel C. Aiga; Military Com-
munications School, Maj.-Gen. K. Hoshikawa;
Military Preparatory School (Tokyo), Maj.-Gen.
M. Itami; Military Training School (Sendai), Maj.-
Gen. T. Nakai; Military Training School (Toyo-
hashi), Maj.-Gen. S. Hayashi; Military Training
School (Kumamoto), Maj.-Gen. K. Fukuda; Nara-
shino School, Maj.-Gen. K. Nakajima, Artificers
School, Maj.-Gen. S. Koizumi

Army Divisions

Division	Commander (Lt.-Gen.)
Guards	H.I.H. Prince Asaka
1st	T. Mori
2nd	H.I.H. Prince Higashikuni
3rd	Z. Wakayama
4th	Count J. Terauchi

5th H. Ninomiya
6th M. Sakamoto
7th M. Sugihara
8th G. Nishi
9th Y. Aramaki
10th J. Hirose
11th K. Harada
12th K. Otani
14th S. Hata
16th S. Kaba
19th S. Ushijima
20th N. Umezaki

Colonial Armies

Commander of Chosen
Army Lt.-Gen. Y. Kawashima
Commander of Taiwan
Army General Iwane Matsui
Commander of Kwantung
Army Gen. Takashi Hishikari
Commander of Garrison
in China Lt.-Gen. K. Nakamura

Department of Navy:—

Minister Admiral Mineo Osumi
Parliamentary
Vice-Minister Count M. Hotta
Permanent Vice-Minister Vice-Adm. H. Fujita
Parliamentary Counsellor Shojiro Kawashima
Bureau Directors:—Military Affairs, Rear-Adm. Z.
Yoshida; Personnel, Rear-Adm. K. Abu; Supplies,
Vice-Adm. F. Ushimaru; Construction, Dr. Y.
Mayeda; Education, Rear-Adm. A. Goto; Medical
Affairs, Surg. Vice-Admiral N. Koda; Account,
Paym. Rear-Adm. R. Kato; Law Affairs, Dr. S.
Yamada.
Chief, Fleet Administration
Department Vice-Adm. M. Sugi
Chief, Aviation Dep't. Vice-Adm. S. Matsuyama
Chief, Aviation Dep't. Vice-Adm. Y. Edahara
Chief, Technical Institute Vice-Adm. K. Ito
Chief, Gunpowder Depot Rear-Adm. H. Kishimoto
Chief, Hydrographical
Dep't. Rear-Adm. Y. Ono
Chief, Fuel Depot Vice-Adm. Y. Yoshioka
School Directors:—Naval Staff College, Vice-Adm.
Vis. T. Kato; Cadets School, Rear-Adm. K. Oka-
wa; Engineering School, Vice-Adm. H. Onodera;
Medical School, Surg.-Rear-Adm. S. Takasugi;
Gunnery School, Rear-Adm. K. Hara; Torpedo
School, Captain T. Higure; Communication School,
Captain T. Higure; Submarine School, Rear-Adm.
R. Uyematsu; Paymaster School, Paym. Rear-
Adm. Y. Ikebe; Artificers School, Rear-Adm. T.
Ono.

Naval Staff Board:—

Chief Fleet Adm. H.I.H. Prince
Hiroyasu Fushimi

Vice-Chief Vice-Adm. S. Takahashi
Sectional Chiefs:—Rear-Adm. S. Shimada (1st sec-
tion); Rear-Adm. S. Toyoda (2nd section); Rear-
Adm. M. Koga (3rd section); Rear-Adm. Y. Ko
(4th section).

Naval Stations:—

Yokosuka—Commander-in-Chief, Admiral K. No-
mura; Chief Staff, Rear-Adm. K. Hamada.
Kure—Commander-in-Chief, Vice-Adm. R. Naka-
mura; Chief Staff, Rear-Adm. T. Sumiyama.
Sasebo—Commander-in-Chief, Vice-Adm. M. Sakon-
ji; Chief Staff, Rear-Adm. Y. Niijima.

Secondary Naval Ports (Commanders):—

Maizuru—Vice-Adm. G. Hyakutake; Ominato—Rear-
Adm. H. Ono; Mako—Rear-Adm. T. Yamanouchi;
Chinkai—Rear-Adm. K. Shiozawa—Ryojun (Port
Arthur), Rear-Adm. S. Tsuda

Naval Arsenals (Chiefs):—

Yokosuka—Vice-Adm. T. Murata; Kure—Rear-Adm.
K. Matsushita; Sasebo—Rear-Adm. M. Yamamoto;
Hiro—Rear-Adm. T. Toyoda.

Imperial Fleets:—

Combined Fleet—Commander-in-Chief, Vice-Adm.
Saizo Kobayashi
First Squadron—Commander-in-Chief, Vice-Adm. S.
Kobayashi
Second Squadron—Commander-in-Chief, Vice-Adm.
N. Suyetsugu
Third Squadron—Commander-in-Chief, Vice-Adm.
S. Imamura
First Overseas Squadron—Commander Rear-Adm.
T. Sakano
Second Overseas Squadron—Commander, Rear-Adm.
S. Tsuda
Training Squadron—Commander, Vice-Admiral
H. Matsushita

IV. LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Japan proper is divided into 46 administra-
tive districts or prefectures, three of them be-
ing called "fu" and the rest "ken".

These 46 prefectures are subdivided into 632
smaller administrative districts, which are call-
ed "gun" or counties, and these in turn are
subdivided into villages or "mura" and towns
or "machi". Originally sub-prefectural admin-
istrative division, the "gun" system was abol-
ished in 1926 and "gun" now remains as a
mere relic of olden days. As existing at the
end of 1931 there were 9,986 villages, 1,708
towns and 109 autonomous cities or "shi".

The chief administrator of a "fu" or "ken" is

called "chiji" or prefectural governor and is ap-
pointed by the Minister of the Interior, where-
as the mayor of a city or the headman of a town
or village is elected by indirect popular votes
usually for the term of four years. Thus when
we say local government, the term includes all
these different administrative organs, the chief
executives of which are prefectural governor,
mayor, and headman.

The Prefecture

Each prefecture has its own prefectural as-
sembly, which is composed of at least 30 mem-
bers elected by popular votes. Every male
Japanese subject of the age of over 25 years,
residing over one year in the prefecture and
enjoying citizenship, has the right to vote or
to be elected. The term of office of the mem-
bers is four years. The assembly is called once
a year by the prefectural governor to deliber-
ate and decide the annual budget of the pre-
fecture, and to give its consent to the general
policies of the Governor. The assembly has
initiative on non-budgetary matters and can
demand a call of a special session on the quo-
rum of at least one-third of the assembly or of
one-half of the standing committee. The as-
sembly can be dissolved subject to Imperial
sanction. Established in 1878 it is in Japan the
oldest representative institution modelled
after the Western system and the law as last
revised in 1929 made it liberal and more up-to-
date in principle.

The City

The city with a population of over 30,000 has
a municipal government. The mayor of a
municipal city is elected by its city-council,
which is composed of at least 30 members elect-
ed by the qualified voters. Hence a city-gov-
ernment in Japan is in a sense a self-govern-
ment, though the power of the mayor and city-
council is still very much limited. A munic-
ipality can own and control electric, gas, and
water plants, and sewer systems; and it man-
ages all matters concerning the primary educa-
tion of its citizens, and its sanitary affairs.
Within the limit defined by law, a municipality
can make its own regulations and can tax its
citizens. It can also make contract of loans.
But all the power the mayor and the city-coun-
cil of a city can exercise is under the strict
supervision of the central as well as the pre-
fectural government. No municipality in Japan
is given the power to control the police forces

within its city-limits, and even in Tokyo they are subsidiary to the Home Office.

Members of the city-council are elected by qualified voters, the qualifications of an elector being that he must be a male Japanese subject of 20 years of age and residing for a period of over one year in his municipal electoral district.

(As regards the composition, finance, etc., vide Chapters on Population and also on Six Premier Cities.)

Municipal System

The municipal system in force was revised in 1921, together with partial reform in the law for the control of the election of the members of the city-council, next in 1926 and again in 1929. By the last revision the scope of franchise was considerably enlarged to prepare a way for the enforcement of general manhood suffrage for the election of parliamentary members. The extension of franchise through the revision has considerably increased the number of voters, by about 204 percent, the number swelling to 80 voters for a population of 1,000 against 26 voters for a population of the same number under the old rules.

The result of the elections held under the system as revised in 1929 indicates a decided improvement in the quality of the members returned, particularly in respect of age, education, etc.

The Town and the Village

The town and the village have also their own self-government, somewhat similar to the municipal government but on a smaller scale. They have their own headmen elected by indirect popular votes, i.e. a headman elected by the town council in the case of a town, and by the village council in the case of a village. The qualifications of an elector of the town or village council are practically the same as those of an elector of the municipal council.

Latest Revision of the Local System

The year 1926 saw an epoch-making revision in the local administrative system, in other words, the principle of the new election law for parliamentary members was adopted for the election of the members of prefectural, municipal and village-town assemblies. In 1929 the prefectural system was revised as described above and that of the subordinate bodies was also made more democratic. In other words,

their initiative is now recognized and the power of the administrative headmen was much curtailed as regards the enforcement of draft measures.

First Election under the Universal Suffrage System

The first elections of prefectural assembly members under the universal suffrage system came off in 1917-28 with the following results, according to the Home Office:—

No. of voters, 12,406,311; No. of votes, 9,960,230; ratio of absentees, 19.7%. The votes polled as classified by party distinction were as follows:—

Seiyukai (Ministerial)	4,359,633
Minseito (Opposition*)	4,262,580
Proletarians	471,131
Others	866,886

The returns for the cities and village-town elections are unknown, but the success of Proletarian members was striking, especially the Social Democrats in urban electorate and the other proletarian parties in the rural.

Composition of Prefectures (Apr. 1933)

Prefecture	"Gun"	City	Town	Village
Aichi	18	5	81	158
Akita	9	1	47	190
Aomori	8	3	23	141
Chiba... ..	12	1	87	260
Ehime.....	12	3	35	238
Fukui.....	11	1	12	166
Fukuoka.....	19	9	50	260
Fukushima.....	17	3	46	358
Gifu.....	18	2	55	281
Gumma.....	11	3	40	163
Hiroshima.....	16	4	54	354
Hokkaido.....	85	6	43	222
Hyogo.....	25	5	68	347
Ibaraki.....	14	1	54	326
Ishikawa.....	8	1	24	193
Iwate.....	13	1	27	209
Kagawa.....	7	2	21	151
Kagoshima.....	12	1	28	114
Kanagawa.....	11	3	32	144
Kochi.....	7	1	28	163
Kumamoto.....	12	1	41	308
Kyoto.....	18	1	26	211
Miyagi.....	16	1	39	163
Miyazaki.....	8	2	17	77
Miye.....	15	3	34	297
Nagano.....	16	3	30	353
Nagasaki.....	9	2	20	164
Nara.....	10	1	28	123
Niigata.....	16	3	49	351

Oita.....	12	2	35	218	Tottori	6	2	16	168
Okayama	19	3	58	326	Toyama	8	2	33	230
Okinawa.....	5	2	4	50	Wakayama ...	7	1	31	194
Osaka.....	7	3	25	207	Yamagata	11	3	27	198
Saga.....	8	1	14	116	Yamaguchi ...	11	2	33	184
Saitama.....	9	1	47	321	Yamanashi.....	9	1	9	231
Shiga.....	12	2	22	179	Total	632	109	1,708	9,986
Shimane.....	16	1	23	255	Do (1930) ...	632	109	1,702	9,980
Shizuoka.....	13	4	48	275	Do (1929) ...	632	104	1,687	10,065
Tochigi.....	8	2	37	138					
Tokushima ...	10	1	37	99					
Tokyo.....	8	2	70	112					

Note.—For area, population, etc. see Chapter on Population.

Members of Local Assemblies

	Prefectural		Municipal		Town and Village	
	Mem.	Electors (1,000)	Mem.	Electors (1,000)	Mem.	Electors (1,000)
1927	1,812	11,430	3,548	1,426	151,952	8,075
1928	1,787	10,989	3,708	2,548	152,606	9,084
1929	—	—	3,870	2,739	154,621	9,496
1930	—	—	3,868	2,819	154,816	9,575
1931	1,881	12,129	—	—	—	—

CHAPTER VIII

DIPLOMACY

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Throughout her long history Japan's foreign intercourse has been marked by constant and constructive efforts to preserve her national security and at the same time to adopt and assimilate new alien civilizations, spiritual as well as material. This was amply illustrated not only in the beginning of Japanese relations with China and Korea, but also at the time when this country came into contact with Occidental peoples. It is quite natural that Japan's relations with China and Korea antedated those with the nations of Europe and began in an age with which the present survey is not concerned. A few remarks, however, may with propriety be made on our earlier relations with China and Korea, so that the underlying causes of events in later days may be made clearer.

After the Empress Jingō's expedition to South Korea and the establishment of a resident Japanese Government in one of the then warring Korean kingdoms in 346 A.D., Japan began systematically to introduce Chinese culture and learning through the Korean Peninsula, and soon afterwards Chinese influence over Japan became so great that, toward the end of the sixth century, the Prince Regent Shotoku felt the diplomatic need of building an imposing Buddhist temple and pagoda at Tennoji to impress the Chinese envoys and traders who came to the port of Osaka. Seventy years later, the Emperor Tenji had to assist one of the Korean kingdoms against the encroachment of the powerful Tang dynasty of China. In the thirteenth century Japan's security was menaced for the first time in her history by the invasion of the Western shores of Kyushu by the Yuen, or Mongol Chinese, who were eventually repulsed with the incidental aid of a tempest. At the same time political refugees from China welcomed in Japan had a restraining influence over the conquerors. Toward the close of the sixteenth century Hideyoshi, the then actual ruler of this country, despatched a punitive expedition to Korea for a diplomatic assertion of Japan's national independence which was sometimes disregarded by the Korean kings. It

ended in a failure, ostensibly owing to the death of Hideyoshi, but actually and mainly because China sent help to Korea which she claimed as a vassal state.

When the Manchus conquered and established their rule over China, Chinese refugees came over to Japan and contributed to the progress of our civilization in the middle of the seventeenth century.

As previously stated, through the Korean Peninsula we early came into contact with the civilization of the Asiatic Continent as well as with that great religion of the Orient—Buddhism. So that, when in the middle of the sixteenth century Portuguese and Spanish traders appeared on the scene, the country, which had been under the continuous regime of the Shogunate since 1192, was in a highly advanced state both socially and politically. As is well known, these forerunners of European intercourse brought with them another great religion of the world, viz., Christianity, which was destined to have a far-reaching effect upon the subsequent course of our history. Thus introduced, the future augured well for the prospects of the new religion, and chronicle records the despatch in 1582 of an embassy to Rome by the Christian feudatories of Arima, in the Island of Kyushu. It was shortly after this that the Dutch and the English traders reached Japan and obtained complete freedom of trading with the country. But the activities of the Jesuits, and later of the Franciscan and Dominican missionaries, who by this time had succeeded in erecting churches in various centers of the country, now assumed a certain political character; and this, in addition to the apprehensions which were mainly due to the warning by the Dutch traders who subsequently came to Japan that Spain and Portugal—the countries from whence they had arrived—were plotting to conquer it, induced the Shogunate Government to reverse its hitherto lenient, even friendly, attitude towards them. Accordingly, in 1614, it ordered their total expulsion and proscribed the propaganda of Christian

theology in Japan. That the ban was not intended to prejudice our commercial relations with Protestant Europe is conclusively shown by the encouragement given by the Shogunate authorities to the Dutch and English traders. Even so, however, the conviction that Christianity was an instrument of European aggression finally drove them to terminate their policy and to issue in May, 1636, the famous decree of isolation, or "closed country", whereby Japan was literally closed to the rest of the world and all Japanese subjects were forbidden to go abroad. Thenceforward only a few Chinese and Dutch traders were permitted to remain at Deshima in Nagasaki, and by 1790 the number of Dutch merchantmen calling at that port was restricted to one vessel annually.

It will be apparent from the preceding that the isolation of Japan was primarily due to her fear of foreign invasion, not to any disinclination on her part either to tolerate Christianity or to continue intercourse with the countries of the West. Likewise it must have been obvious that this policy of enforced seclusion, albeit it secured for her nearly two centuries of uninterrupted peace (certainly a remarkable fact in itself), could not permanently be maintained. The first nation to challenge it was Russia, which in 1775, and again in 1793, urged the opening of Japanese ports to Russian trade. The failure of the Russian emissaries to realize their mission accounts for the attack by two Russian vessels of the coast of Saghalien in 1806, where they plundered a Japanese town and carried away a number of its inhabitants. This and similar incidents occurring in the northern extremes of the Empire undoubtedly gave warning of the danger from which it had been believed to be immune. Further, the British attempts during the Napoleonic wars to replace the Dutch at Deshima, and the appearance of an American vessel, the *Morrison*, in the Bay of Yedo (present Tokyo) in 1837, served to bring home to some of Japanese statesmen what proved to be the inevitable fact, that sooner or later the Powers of Europe and America would insist on their right of privilege to trade with the country. But the Tokugawa Shogunate, still committed to its policy of self-containment, was not as yet prepared to abandon it, when in February, 1844, King William II of the Netherlands conveyed to it his friendly counsel to the effect that Japan should enter into treaty relations with the said Powers. In 1853, however, a formidable American fleet un-

der Commodore Perry visited these shores to urge Japan to open her doors to foreign intercourse. The result was the conclusion of Japan's first treaty of amity with the United States—indeed, the first treaty she has ever made with a foreign country. In this treaty, dated March 31, 1854, Japan consented to open the ports of Shimoda and Hakodate to American citizens; to reciprocate on an equal and uniform basis their friendly intercourse with the people of Japan; and mutually to extend aid and assistance to vessels in distress. The American example in this regard was presently followed by Russia, Great Britain, France, etc.

But the weakness and inability of the Shogunate Government displayed in dealing with foreign affairs and the fact that it acted of its own accord without the Imperial command incensed the anti-foreign and anti-Shogunate elements, who murdered several foreigners and attacked foreign ships. The result was the bombardment of Kagoshima by a British squadron in 1863, and of Shimonoseki in the ensuing year by the allied squadrons of Great Britain, the United States, France and Holland. An instance may well be cited to illustrate the causes of discontentment of the people. In 1861, the Russians seized the island of Tsushima in the Japan Sea, presumably for the purpose of securing a coaling station for her fleet in the Far East, and remained there until she was forced to withdraw through the efforts of the British Minister Sir Rutherford Alcock and Admiral Hope of the British China Squadron. This state of affairs in this country culminated in 1868 in an epochal and, indeed, much-desired turn of events, namely, the restoration by the Shogunate of its civil and military powers to the Throne, which had in effect been delegated to it for nearly seven centuries. Besides, it should be added that the Imperial sanction had already been obtained for the international engagement concluded by the Shogunate Government, and that the safety and welfare of foreigners in Japan were at the same time assured—and it was in this manner that we at last envisaged a new era in the annals of Japan's relations with the nations of the world.

EARLY MEIJI ERA (1868-94)

The problems confronting the "renascent" Japan were multifarious. But so far as concerned the nation externally, the two outstanding features of her foreign policy were: firstly,

to reassert those rights which were inherent in her as an independent Power; secondly, to effect the revision of her one-sided treaties. Of the first, it may be noted that the difficult transition from feudalism, with the vision of those in authority confined to the narrow limits of the Empire, doubtless afforded opportunities for foreign encroachment and aggression. The seizure of Tsushima by Russia has been already referred to. Moreover, the same Power, by penetrating Saghalien and the Kurile Islands where the feudatory of Matsumaye had from early times exercised jurisdiction, demanded that the Prouse Strait should be fixed as the boundary line between the Japanese and Russian Empires. The Japanese authorities proposed on their part that the fiftieth parallel should be made the line of demarkation, but the proposal was not accepted by the Tsar's Government. The question thus remained in suspense for many years; and was only brought to an end in 1875 by Japan's acquiescence in the counter-proposal that the whole of Saghalien should be surrendered in return for the Kurile group of islands, which in fact never belonged to Russia. Similarly, the sovereignty over the Bonin Islands had been a subject of discussion between the Governments of Japan and the United States. In this case, however, the cordial recognition in 1857 by the American Government of our priority resulted in a speedy termination of the controversy. Another occurrence requiring notice here was the expedition to Formosa, which was provoked by the massacre of certain stranded Luchuan by the Formosan aborigines. Seeing that justice could be obtained in no other way, Japan sent to the island a punitive force and occupied it without difficulty. To this China objected as being a "breach of her sovereignty," notwithstanding her earlier reply in an opposite sense—consequently the relation between the two Powers were severely strained. But, in the end, the matter was amicably disposed of by the mediation of the British Minister at Peking, Mr. Wade (afterwards Sir Thomas Wade), on payment of an indemnity by China. Besides these, the so-called Maria Luz Affair embroiled Japan with Peru. The facts were that a Peruvian ship of that name entered the harbour of Yokohama in 1892, with 200 Chinese slaves on board. It so happened that one of those ill-treated men escaped from confinement and applied to the port authorities for protection; whereupon the latter seized the ship and immediately released

the Chinese aboard. The case was ultimately referred to a tribunal presided over by the Emperor Alexander II of Russia, and the decision rendered fully sustained the action of the Japanese authorities concerned. It is hardly necessary to say that this victory of the nation in a dispute involving a question of humanity tended to enhance its position internationally.

As for the second phase of Japan's foreign policy during the early Meiji era, it may be pointed out that the treaties concluded by the Shogunate Government deprived Japan of the rights both of judicial and tariff autonomy, though they contained a clause providing for their revision after the year 1872. It was therefore left to the Imperial Government to recover what had been lost by the former's inadvertence, with which object it set to work as soon as the stipulated time drew near. Accordingly Prince Iwakura was despatched to America and Europe in 1871 with a view to effecting treaty revision with the Western Powers; but the mission proved abortive, mainly because the country was not in its turn prepared to offer suitable guarantees. Apart from this, the solution of the problem was made well-nigh impossible by the fact that the eighteen treaty Powers, which were pledged among themselves to act conjointly in their negotiations with Japan, were unable to find a common basis of agreement. Some of them were in favour of low import duties; others were reluctant to place their subjects or citizens under the jurisdiction of Japanese law courts. It is true, the United States showed its willingness to conclude a separate treaty with Japan to surrender the two obnoxious points in the old instrument. Nevertheless, a proviso to the effect that the new treaty should not become operative until after the signing of similar treaties with other Powers practically left the matter in status quo. In spite of this, the statesmen of regenerated Japan steadfastly held their course for the liberation of the nation from its unilateral obligations. So, in 1882, Count (afterwards Marquis) Inouye, the then Foreign Minister, approached the British Government with a series of proposals, and the result was the conference of the treaty Powers at Tokyo four years later, at which concessions were to be made by both parties. Meanwhile, the terms of the projected treaties having leaked out, the press and people bitterly attacked the provision for a "Mixed Court" which permitted a certain number of foreign judges to sit on the

Japanese Bench. This obliged the Government to postpone the settlement of the question until a more favorable moment. Next, it was attempted by Count (afterwards Marquis) Okuma to induce the Powers to abandon their extraterritorial rights on the basis of permitting the presence of foreign legal assessors in the Taishin-in (the Supreme Court) in cases which concerned foreigners. Many Powers, including Mexico, the United States, Germany, and France, agreed to the new formula; even Great Britain, whose preponderant commercial interests in Japan had made her the arbiter of the situation, was in their train. But the chagrined populace once more rose against the appointment of foreign assessors and forced the valiant Foreign Minister to drop the negotiations. His successors, both Viscount Aoki, subsequently our Minister at the Court of St. James, and Viscount Enomoto, likewise endeavoured for the attainment of the same end, but without success. Then, in 1893, the Lower House of the Imperial Diet voted an address to the Throne recommending the early revision of the unjust treaties, which, above all, were "derogatory to Japan's national dignity." The action convinced the Government that thenceforth it had not only to deal with the Powers, but also to face the Imperial Diet which was supported by a formidable array of public opinion. Furthermore, a war with China because of the Korean question appeared imminent. In these circumstances it dissolved the legislative organ of the nation and resumed, at the invitation of the Rosebery Ministry, its negotiations with Great Britain, with Count Mutsu as Minister for Foreign Affairs. The outcome was the memorable Treaty of Commerce and Navigation of the 16th July, 1894, whereby Great Britain recognized Japan's jurisdiction over British subjects in Japan and the right to levy import duties on goods imported from that country and its colonies. Other Powers followed Great Britain in quick succession; and thus the knotty problem which had agitated the nation for forty long years was finally solved.

THE SINO-JAPANESE WAR

Reference may now be made to the Korean question which involved Japan twice in foreign wars, once with China and then with Russia. That was chiefly due to the geographical importance of the Peninsular kingdom, which, until its voluntary annexation to Japan in 1910, was a source of ever-present danger to the

security of the nation. Historically speaking, each of the parties to the first-mentioned war had an interest in Korea because of its dual tributary position in respect of both; although the claims of Japanese were the earlier in origin and were exercised for a longer space of time than those of China. This, however, is immaterial. In 1875, a Korean fort on the island of Kang-hwa fired upon a Japanese warship. This incident finally led to the conclusion of a treaty of amity between Japan and Korea, dated February 27, 1876. Article 1 of this treaty laid down; "Chosen (or Korea), being an independent State, enjoys the same sovereign rights as does Japan." This provision gave offence to China who would still treat Korea as a vassal state. On the other hand, factional strife in Korea not only made all orderly government impracticable, but greatly injured Japan's rights and interest there. As a case in point we may mention the disturbances of 1882, in which a band of discontented Korean soldiers revolted against the Ming family at the instigation of Tai-weng Kun, the Korean King's father, who was contriving to undermine the power of the Queen and her coterie. The Queen narrowly escaped; but the mob killed a number of Japanese officers in the service of the Korean Government and, without the slightest provocation, attacked and burned the Japanese Legation in Seoul. As a result of our remonstrances, Korea agreed in the so-called Chemulpo Convention to pay us an indemnity and to build at her own cost barracks for the Legation guards. Subsequently Japan remitted the major portion of the indemnity on the understanding that it should be used for the purpose of internal reforms. Within two years, however, more serious complications arose out of the murder of Prince Ming, the leader of the Reactionary Party, and other conservative leaders, by men belonging to the Korean Progressive Party. The city of Seoul being then in a state of turmoil, the King and the Progressives asked for the assistance of Japanese troops for the protection of the Palace, whilst the Ming Party appealed to the Chinese Resident, Yuan Shi-kai, for its recovery. The Chinese troops, who had a numerical strength of twenty to one over the Japanese, attacked the Palace and destroyed the Japanese Legation as well. The news of the Chinese outrage was received in Japan with general indignation; the people clamoured for war. But the self-restraint and caution of the Government

finally led to the conclusion of the Treaty of Tientsin with China, which was signed on April 18, 1885, and removed the prospect of immediate war. By this treaty, China for the first time formally admitted Japan's absolute equality of rights in Korea and each of the Contracting Parties undertook to withdraw its troops from the peninsula and not to despatch any in future without previous notice to the other.

It has been commonly thought that the Treaty of Tientsin was a diplomatic triumph for Japan in so far as China admitted Japan's absolute equality of rights in Korea. But it became in reality the basis of China's ascendancy in that country—regarding which the Chinese Government still persisted in its claims of suzerainty—and an indirect cause of the war of 1894-95. The reasons for this are not far to seek. Japan's preoccupation during the interval with various domestic problems, such as the promulgation of the Constitution, the struggle between the Government and the Diet, etc., on one hand, and the control of the Korean Court by the Mings, who derived their power from China's overlordship, on the other, enabled the ambitious Chinese Resident to gain the upper hand in the affairs of Korea and to undo the internal reforms initiated at the instance of Japan. Following this, Kim Ok-yun, one of the leaders of the Reform Party and a refugee in Japan since the disturbances of 1884, was, with the apparent connivance of the Chinese authorities, assassinated by a Korean notable who had accompanied him to Shanghai. The remains of the victim were conveyed on board a Chinese man-of-war to Korea, where they were subjected to brutal mutilation and public exposure. The above incident was almost contemporaneous with the uprising of the Tong-haks, originally members of a certain religious organization, against the corrupt officials of the Korean Court. China, which it appears was misled by reports as to Japan's internal troubles, took advantage of the occasion and sent some 3,000 troops to the Peninsula. Thereupon, Japan also sent there by virtue of the Chemulpo Convention and of the Treaty of Tientsin, a mixed brigade of about 8,000 in number. China demanded their immediate withdrawal. But Japan urged the necessity of cooperation with her for the restoration of peace in Korea and the recommendation of such measures of reform as might be needed for the good government of the country. A second refusal by China forced Japan to act indepen-

dently. In the meantime, the Chinese troops in Korea were considerably reinforced; and in the morning of July 25, 1894, an engagement between squadrons belonging to the opposing parties took place off the Fengtao. This definitely committed them to hostilities, and war was formally declared a week later.

The war so precipitated, from which Japan emerged victorious both on land and sea, was terminated by the Treaty of Shimonoseki of the 17th April, 1895. In this Treaty China recognized the full and complete independence of Korea; agreed to cede to Japan (1) the Liaotung Peninsula and the adjacent waters, as well as (2) Formosa and the Pescadores; to pay to Japan an indemnity of 200,000,000 taels; and to open to trade and navigation four ports, i.e., Shashih, Chungking, Suchow, and Hungchow, in various provinces and certain parts of the rivers Yangtse and Woo-sung.

INTERVENTION OF THE THREE POWERS

A few days after the conclusion of the Treaty of Shimonoseki, Japan was taken aback by a new, and altogether sudden, international crisis. It was the intervention in the terms of peace with China of a group of European Powers—namely, Russia, France, and Germany. Russia's motive in this unexpected move—so it was to the nation at the time—was obvious. To put it briefly, she was opposed to Japan's territorial acquisitions on the Continent; in that event she would have to reckon with a new factor which was quite incongruous with her desire to reach the warmer waters of the Pacific. In other words, the Muscovite Empire wished to see China and Korea in status quo ante bellum, which would better serve her purposes. And notwithstanding its profession that it would seek nothing from Japan except the assurance of the independence of Korea, it was rumoured in the Chancelleries of Europe as soon as peace was in sight that the Russian Ambassadors had been instructed to obtain an agreement against the cession to Japan of any part of the mainland of China, and the ominous rumour was never contradicted. Again, it might be expected that France, which was bound by her entente with Russia, should be found acting in concert with her northern ally. But the intervention of Germany along with these Powers evoked much speculation both in Japan and elsewhere. Whatever it might be, the wisdom of Germany's action was subsequently questioned by no less a personage-

than the ex-Chancellor von Bülow himself. At any rate, their forces in Chinese waters and the vicinity were greatly augmented by the middle of April, 1895, and were ready to interpose on their own account in the Sino-Japanese dispute. Consequently the situation in the Far East assumed a threatening aspect.

But it was an opportune moment for the Powers to intervene. Not to mention the disparity in strength, Japan had just concluded a foreign war; it was too great a strain for her to face anew a struggle for which she was totally unprepared. To aggravate matters, ratifications of the treaty of peace with China had not yet been exchanged, thus exposing it to the danger of cancellation. Accordingly, the three Powers notified Japan, on April 23rd, idem, that since the possession of the Liaotung Peninsula by Japan would not be conducive to the permanent peace of the Far East, "they would give a new proof of their sincere friendship for the Government of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan by advising them to renounce the definite possession of the Peninsula of Liaotung." It should be observed that China's appeals to Russia for intervention in the war largely contributed to this untoward development—which, in the long run, proved as detrimental to her interests as it well could be. A week later, that is to say, on April 30th, Japan apprised Russia of her intention to retrocede the Peninsula except the Kinchow district; but the Russians insisted that that district, including Port Arthur, should also be given up. Aside from this, the British Government, while assuring Japan of its friendly sentiments, advised her to make to "the susceptibilities of Europe all concessions compatible with Japan's dignity and permanent interests." In these circumstances the Japanese Government decided to accept the "friendly recommendation" of the three aligned Powers; China, in turn, agreed to pay to Japan 30,000,000 taels for the retrocession. The decision was followed by the issue on May 10th, simultaneously with the publication of the Treaty of Shimonoseki, of an Imperial Rescript in which it was stated: "Considering, therefore, the best interests of peace, and animated by a desire not to bring upon Our people added hardships or to impede the progress of the national destiny by creating new complications, and thereby making the situation difficult and retarding restoration of peace, We do not hesitate to accept such recommendation," and that, the justice of Japan's cause

having been proclaimed to the world, "We can find nothing to impair the honor and dignity of Our Empire if We now yield to the dictates of magnanimity, and, taking into consideration the general situation, accept the advice of the friendly Powers." The Rescript, countersigned by all the Ministers of State, produced a profound effect upon the people of Japan, whose indignation was intensely aroused by this concerted aggression of the three European Powers, who had taken advantage of a most trying moment to this country. It had the effect of strengthening the determination of the nation to endure great difficulties and hardships and prepare for the recovery of its honour, and the event, therefore, may be said to have marked a turning point in Japan's national career.

THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE

The next event of importance in Japan's foreign relations was the conclusion early in 1902 of a treaty of alliance with Great Britain. This alliance of the two island Empires was consequent upon various developments which brought to light a sharp divergence between their policies regarding China and those of Russia and Germany in particular. We have already adverted above to the fact that China had appealed to Russia for intervention in her quarrel with Japan. This fact and the retrocession by Japan of the Liaotung Peninsula were, so to have it, capitalized by that Power to arrange in May, 1896, the notorious treaty of defensive alliance with China vis-à-vis Japan. By this treaty Russia obtained from China the right to extend the Siberian Railway through Manchuria "in the direction of Vladivostok", together with certain other privileges both political and military. These concessions on the part of the Chinese Government were followed by Germany's demands upon it under the pretext of compensation for the murder of two German missionaries by Chinese bandits, with the result that she, too, secured, in March, 1898, the provisional cession for ninety-nine years of the territory of Kiaochow in Shantung. Within three weeks, Russia once again compelled China similarly to cede for twenty-five years (the term being subject to renewal) of Port Arthur and Talien, including the adjacent waters; and this, in spite of the declaration that "the possession of the Peninsula of Liaotung, claimed by Japan, would be a constant menace to the capital of China . . . and would henceforth

be a perpetual obstacle to the permanent peace of the Far East." The Russian seizure of Port Arthur having materially altered the balance of power in the Gulf of Pechili, Great Britain also leased Wei-hai-wei and its approaches under the same conditions as Russia. Likewise France obtained a lease of Kwangchow Bay, in point of time co-extensive with the occupation of Port Arthur and Wei-hai-wei. Great Britain and Russia then mutually engaged not to seek railway concessions in each other's spheres of influence, whilst the United States came out with the celebrated doctrine of equal opportunity for all nations in such spheres of influence. But nothing prevented the execution of Russia's policy as regards Manchuria, so that at the end of the Boxer uprising in China (in the course of which Japan played a prominent role in the rescue of the besieged foreigners) she was in fact its master by force of arms. Hence the well-known Anglo-German Convention of 1900 was intended to apply to Russian activities there as well as in other parts of the Chinese Empire, and stated in unmistakable terms that, should any Power utilize the complications in China for the purpose of seeking territorial advantages prejudicial to the interests of China and other Powers, the Signatory Powers would come to a preliminary understanding as to the measures to be taken for the protection of their own interests. Subsequently, however, Germany—which appears to have reconsidered her position in relation to Russia—took exception to the *modus vivendi* and claimed that Manchuria, where she had no interest at all, was excluded from its scope. This emasculated the agreement, to which Japan was also a party.

It was under these circumstances that Japan's First Treaty of Alliance with Great Britain, dated the 30th January, 1902, was concluded. The preamble to the treaty read: "The Governments of Japan and Great Britain actuated solely by a desire to maintain the status quo and general peace in the Extreme East, being moreover specially interested in maintaining the independence and territorial integrity of the Empire of China and the Empire of Korea, and in securing equal opportunities in those countries for the commerce and industry of all nations hereby agree as follows." It provided that it would be admissible for either of the High Contracting Parties to take, in case of emergency, necessary steps to safeguard its interests in China and Korea; and that, if, in safeguarding

those interests, either of them became involved in war with another Power, the other High Contracting Party would endeavour to keep outside Powers neutral, but would enter the war in the event of any other Power or Powers joining in hostilities against that ally. It was also agreed that Japan, in addition to the interests which she possessed in China, was interested "in a peculiar degree, politically as well as commercially and industrially, in Korea." The Treaty of 1902 was revised at the end of the Russo-Japanese War (August 12, 1905) in order to make it more effective. In the Second Treaty of Anglo-Japanese Alliance, the High Contracting Parties agreed to consider in common the measures which should be taken to safeguard the maintenance of their territorial rights in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India and the defence of their special interests in the said regions; and that, if by reason of unprovoked attack of aggressive action, either Contracting Party should be involved in war in defence of its territorial rights or special interests referred to, the other Contracting Party would at once come to the assistance of its ally and would conduct the war in common. It also provided that Great Britain should recognize Japan's paramount political, military, and economic interests in Korea and her right to take such measures as she might deem proper and necessary to safeguard and advance those interests, and Japan Great Britain's special interest in all that concerned the security of the Indian frontier and her right to take such measures in the proximity of that frontier as she might find necessary for safeguarding her Indian possessions. This treaty was further revised on July 13, 1911, in order to adapt it to the changed conditions and a clause was then inserted in it to the effect that if either of the High Contracting Parties concluded a treaty of general arbitration with a third Power, nothing therein should entail upon such Party an obligation to go to war with the Power with whom such treaty of arbitration was in existence. The stipulation doubtless weakened the force of the alliance as such: it should be recognized, nevertheless, that it exerted a wholesome influence in preserving "the general peace in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India"; etc. Finally it was replaced by the so-called Four Power Treaty concluded at Washington in December, 1921, between France, Great Britain, Japan, and the United States, whose object it is to

maintain the Signatories' rights in respect of their insular possessions and dominions in the Pacific. The Alliance thus came to an end in letter, but the spirit of this time-honored treaty remains and will remain in the most cordial friendship of the two island Empires.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR

The war with Russia, in which Japan engaged only after repeated efforts on her part to avoid it, was brought about by an issue which not merely affected her own safety but also the common interests of the Powers concerned in the Far East. Indeed, Russia might easily have converted her position in Manchuria into a permanent one by legalizing her *de facto* possession of the territory, just as she had done in the case of her Maritime Province some forty years before. The first such attempt was made in 1900 by the conclusion of an agreement with the Tartar General Tseng of Mukden. Against this procedure on the part of the Russian Government Japan formerly protested. At the same time China was urged by Japan, as well as by Great Britain and the United States, not to sanction the agreement. But Russia, not to be outdone, attempted a second and a third time to enter into a secret arrangement with China, though failed on each occasion owing to the vigilance and firm attitude of the Powers. The vigour with which she then pursued her end was no doubt attributable to two causes. One of these was the completion of the Siberian Railway and its branch line, the Chinese Eastern Railway, which greatly added to her strength in the Far East. The other was the extended application to the Far East, almost synchronously with the conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, of her entente with France. Thus supported by her ally, and, with the connivance of Germany, Russia soon constrained China to sign a convention by which she secured many important concessions in Manchuria. Under the strong pressure of the Powers' advice to China, Russia agreed in April, 1902, to withdraw a portion of the Russian troops there within six months, a second portion within a year, and the remainder within eighteen months. But, contrary to the expectation that Russia would keep to the agreement, her new demands on China were as much opposed to the principle of the open door in that country as her actual annexation of the occupied territory. Some of these demands were:

That China should not open any free port in Manchuria; that she should not employ foreigners, except Russians, in her service in the north; that the Russo-Chinese Bank should collect the customs revenue as heretofore; that Newchwang should be under Russian administration.

From the Japanese point of view, however, Russian descent on Manchuria constituted only one half—the less important half—of the whole question. As might be surmised, the more important half was that of Korea, where some of the keenest diplomatic battles were being fought. There Japan had to face, beside the Russians, the necessity of pressing upon the apathetic Koreans measures of reform, unless it was prepared to abandon the fruits of its victory in the late war with China. The Mings now turned to Russia for support, and the situation thereby created was not altogether dissimilar to that which preceded that war. Korea discharged Japanese officers in her army to appoint Russians in their place and even conceded to Russia the right to extend the Manchurian Railway into the heart of the Peninsula. These had become the basis of the Russian claims in Korea, and aroused keen apprehensions in Japan as to the intention of the Russian Government. Accordingly the so-called Komura-Waerber Agreement of May 14, 1896, and the Yamagata-Lobanoff Convention of June 9, *idem*, were concluded. By the first, both Japan and Russia might maintain in Korea, pending the restoration of order, a maximum force of eight hundred men for the protection of their Legations, Consulates, and commercial settlements. By the second, it was agreed that the Signatories should enjoy in Korea equal rights of residence and have advisory powers for the purpose of inaugurating a sound financial system in that country. These agreements, it was hoped by Japan, should at least serve to prevent Russia from seeking any further privileges prejudicial to her own interests. But no sooner were they signed than Russia began to violate their terms, till Japan found it necessary once more to act. The result was the Nishi-Rosen Convention of April 25, 1898, in which each Power recognized the independence of Korea and pledged itself not to lend any military or civil advisers to that country without the consent of the other. In addition Russia agreed, "in view of the great development of the commercial and industrial enterprises of Japan in Korea, as also of the

be a perpetual obstacle to the permanent peace of the Far East." The Russian seizure of Port Arthur having materially altered the balance of power in the Gulf of Pechili, Great Britain also leased Wei-hai-wei and its approaches under the same conditions as Russia. Likewise France obtained a lease of Kwangchow Bay, in point of time co-extensive with the occupation of Port Arthur and Wei-hai-wei. Great Britain and Russia then mutually engaged not to seek railway concessions in each other's spheres of influence, whilst the United States came out with the celebrated doctrine of equal opportunity for all nations in such spheres of influence. But nothing prevented the execution of Russia's policy as regards Manchuria, so that at the end of the Boxer uprising in China (in the course of which Japan played a prominent role in the rescue of the besieged foreigners) she was in fact its master by force of arms. Hence the well-known Anglo-German Convention of 1900 was intended to apply to Russian activities there as well as in other parts of the Chinese Empire, and stated in unmistakable terms that, should any Power utilize the complications in China for the purpose of seeking territorial advantages prejudicial to the interests of China and other Powers, the Signatory Powers would come to a preliminary understanding as to the measures to be taken for the protection of their own interests. Subsequently, however, Germany—which appears to have reconsidered her position in relation to Russia—took exception to the *modus vivendi* and claimed that Manchuria, where she had no interest at all, was excluded from its scope. This emasculated the agreement, to which Japan was also a party.

It was under these circumstances that Japan's First Treaty of Alliance with Great Britain, dated the 30th January, 1902, was concluded. The preamble to the treaty read: "The Governments of Japan and Great Britain actuated solely by a desire to maintain the status quo and general peace in the Extreme East, being moreover specially interested in maintaining the independence and territorial integrity of the Empire of China and the Empire of Korea, and in securing equal opportunities in those countries for the commerce and industry of all nations hereby agree as follows." It provided that it would be admissible for either of the High Contracting Parties to take, in case of emergency, necessary steps to safeguard its interests in China and Korea; and that, if, in safeguarding

those interests, either of them became involved in war with another Power, the other High Contracting Party would endeavour to keep outside Powers neutral, but would enter the war in the event of any other Power or Powers joining in hostilities against that ally. It was also agreed that Japan, in addition to the interests which she possessed in China, was interested "in a peculiar degree, politically as well as commercially and industrially, in Korea." The Treaty of 1902 was revised at the end of the Russo-Japanese War (August 12, 1905) in order to make it more effective. In the Second Treaty of Anglo-Japanese Alliance, the High Contracting Parties agreed to consider in common the measures which should be taken to safeguard the maintenance of their territorial rights in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India and the defence of their special interests in the said regions; and that, if by reason of unprovoked attack of aggressive action, either Contracting Party should be involved in war in defence of its territorial rights or special interests referred to, the other Contracting Party would at once come to the assistance of its ally and would conduct the war in common. It also provided that Great Britain should recognize Japan's paramount political, military, and economic interests in Korea and her right to take such measures as she might deem proper and necessary to safeguard and advance those interests, and Japan Great Britain's special interest in all that concerned the security of the Indian frontier and her right to take such measures in the proximity of that frontier as she might find necessary for safeguarding her Indian possessions. This treaty was further revised on July 13, 1911, in order to adapt it to the changed conditions and a clause was then inserted in it to the effect that if either of the High Contracting Parties concluded a treaty of general arbitration with a third Power, nothing therein should entail upon such Party an obligation to go to war with the Power with whom such treaty of arbitration was in existence. The stipulation doubtless weakened the force of the alliance as such: it should be recognized, nevertheless, that it exerted a wholesome influence in preserving "the general peace in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India"; etc. Finally it was replaced by the so-called Four Power Treaty concluded at Washington in December, 1921, between France, Great Britain, Japan, and the United States, whose object it is to

maintain the Signatories' rights in respect of their insular possessions and dominions in the Pacific. The Alliance thus came to an end in letter, but the spirit of this time-honored treaty remains and will remain in the most cordial friendship of the two island Empires.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR

The war with Russia, in which Japan engaged only after repeated efforts on her part to avoid it, was brought about by an issue which not merely affected her own safety but also the common interests of the Powers concerned in the Far East. Indeed, Russia might easily have converted her position in Manchuria into a permanent one by legalizing her *de facto* possession of the territory, just as she had done in the case of her Maritime Province some forty years before. The first such attempt was made in 1900 by the conclusion of an agreement with the Tartar General Tseng of Mukden. Against this procedure on the part of the Russian Government Japan formerly protested. At the same time China was urged by Japan, as well as by Great Britain and the United States, not to sanction the agreement. But Russia, not to be outdone, attempted a second and a third time to enter into a secret arrangement with China, though failed on each occasion owing to the vigilance and firm attitude of the Powers. The vigour with which she then pursued her end was no doubt attributable to two causes. One of these was the completion of the Siberian Railway and its branch line, the Chinese Eastern Railway, which greatly added to her strength in the Far East. The other was the extended application to the Far East, almost synchronously with the conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, of her entente with France. Thus supported by her ally, and, with the connivance of Germany, Russia soon constrained China to sign a convention by which she secured many important concessions in Manchuria. Under the strong pressure of the Powers' advice to China, Russia agreed in April, 1902, to withdraw a portion of the Russian troops there within six months, a second portion within a year, and the remainder within eighteen months. But, contrary to the expectation that Russia would keep to the agreement, her new demands on China were as much opposed to the principle of the open door in that country as her actual annexation of the occupied territory. Some of these demands were:

That China should not open any free port in Manchuria; that she should not employ foreigners, except Russians, in her service in the north; that the Russo-Chinese Bank should collect the customs revenue as heretofore; that Newchwang should be under Russian administration.

From the Japanese point of view, however, Russian descent on Manchuria constituted only one half—the less important half—of the whole question. As might be surmised, the more important half was that of Korea, where some of the keenest diplomatic battles were being fought. There Japan had to face, beside the Russians, the necessity of pressing upon the apathetic Koreans measures of reform, unless it was prepared to abandon the fruits of its victory in the late war with China. The Mings now turned to Russia for support, and the situation thereby created was not altogether dissimilar to that which preceded that war. Korea discharged Japanese officers in her army to appoint Russians in their place and even conceded to Russia the right to extend the Manchurian Railway into the heart of the Peninsula. These had become the basis of the Russian claims in Korea, and aroused keen apprehensions in Japan as to the intention of the Russian Government. Accordingly the so-called Komura-Waerber Agreement of May 14, 1896, and the Yamagata-Lobanoff Convention of June 9, *idem*, were concluded. By the first, both Japan and Russia might maintain in Korea, pending the restoration of order, a maximum force of eight hundred men for the protection of their Legations, Consulates, and commercial settlements. By the second, it was agreed that the Signatories should enjoy in Korea equal rights of residence and have advisory powers for the purpose of inaugurating a sound financial system in that country. These agreements, it was hoped by Japan, should at least serve to prevent Russia from seeking any further privileges prejudicial to her own interests. But no sooner were they signed than Russia began to violate their terms, till Japan found it necessary once more to act. The result was the Nishi-Rosen Convention of April 25, 1898, in which each Power recognized the independence of Korea and pledged itself not to lend any military or civil advisers to that country without the consent of the other. In addition Russia agreed, "in view of the great development of the commercial and industrial enterprises of Japan in Korea, as also of the

considerable number of the Japanese subjects residing in that country," not to obstruct "the development of the commercial and industrial relations between Japan and Korea." However, this convention also failed in its purpose, and Russian activities in Korea became more rife than ever. Especially did the activities of the Russian naval authorities in connection with the purchase of large tracts of land in places like Fusan and Masampo, the erection of hospital buildings, frequent visits to those ports by the Russian Pacific Squadron, and similar occurrences suggested some ulterior motive on the part of Russia—a possible acquisition on the Korean coast of a connecting link between Port Arthur and Vladivostok. What was more, she was repeating in Korea what she had done in regard to Saghalien and Manchuria; that is to say, she was sending there numerous settlers, almost all of them soldiers in mufti, in order to strengthening her position in a diplomatic and military sense.

Thus Japan was being step by step forced into war. And yet her Government clung to pacific measures, in spite of the general dissatisfaction of the people. The Japanese Minister at St. Petersburg was therefore instructed to open negotiations with the Russian Government, with a view to define their respective interests in Korea and Manchuria. His proposals were in substance: (1) Mutual engagement to respect the independence and territorial integrity of China and Korea, and (2) Reciprocal recognition of Japan's preponderant interests in Korea, and Russia's special interests in Manchuria. These the Russian Government met with the following counter-proposals after much delay, during which the negotiations had been transferred to Tokyo at its instance: (1) Recognition by Japan of Manchuria and its littoral as in all respects outside her sphere of interest, and (2) A neutral zone to be formed in Korea, to extend from the south of the Yalu River to the thirty-ninth parallel. Naturally these counter-proposals were regarded in Japan as indicative of Russia's lack of sincerity; but the Government, still desirous of settling the question without an appeal to arms, continued the negotiations and went so far as practically to agree to declare Manchuria and its littoral as being outside Japan's sphere of interest, provided that Russia made a similar declaration with regard to Korea. But Russia proposed in turn that Japan should not fortify the south-eastern coast of Korea. In doing so

she made no reply to Japan's compromise, which was offered after "the most careful and serious consideration," and began to pour troops into Manchuria and to reinforce her fleet in the Far East with more battleships and cruisers from Kronstadt. It was now evident to the least astute what Russia had in view. In consequence, nothing remained for Japan but to break off the negotiations and sever diplomatic relations with Russia, which decision was followed by Japan's declaration of war on Russia on the 10th February, 1904.

As a matter of fact, this was the first conflict, in a modern sense, between a European and an Asiatic nation, and naturally attracted very keen interest and speculation all over the world. The result was a marked victory of the Japanese forces on land and sea over the formidable army and navy of Russia. After the decisive battles of Mukden and of the Japan Sea where the Russian fleets were completely destroyed, the belligerent Powers were brought together for a peace parley at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, U.S.A., through the good offices of President Roosevelt of the United States, and thus the Russo-Japanese War was terminated by the Treaty of Portsmouth concluded on the 5th September, 1905. This treaty recognized Japan's "paramount political, military and economic interests" in Korea; provided for the evacuation of Manchuria both by the Japanese and Russian armies; transferred to Japan the Russian lease of Port Arthur, Talien and the adjacent territory and territorial waters, as well as all rights, privileges and concessions connected therewith; transferred, also, the Russian railways in Manchuria, viz., the railway between Changchun and Port Arthur and all its branches; and secured for Japan the southern half of the Island of Saghalien up to the fiftieth parallel. Further, Russia engaged by Article XI of the Treaty "to arrange with Japan for granting to Japanese subjects rights of fishery along the coasts of the Russian possessions in the Japan, Okhotsk and Behring Seas."

RELATIONS WITH FRANCE

In April, 1904, an important diplomatic event occurred in Europe. The allusion is to the Entente Cordiale between France and Great Britain, the ally of Japan, which averted the much apprehended conflict of the two first mentioned Powers and formed a Triple Entente between Great Britain, France and Rus-

sia. It cannot be denied that the Anglo-French rapprochement had a most salutary, though incidental, effect upon the Far Eastern situation after the Russo-Japanese War—more particularly it anticipated Japan's arrangement with France of the 10th June, 1907. This arrangement, entered into in order to eliminate from the relation of the two countries the causes of misunderstanding and thereby to consolidate them, provided in effect as follows: The Governments of Japan and France, being in agreement to respect the independence and integrity of China as well as the principle of equality of treatment in that country concerning the commerce, subjects or citizens of all nations, and having a special interest in seeing the order and peaceful state of things firmly established in regions of the Chinese Empire in the neighborhood of territories where they have the rights of sovereignty, protection, or occupation, engage themselves for mutual support to insure peace and security in those regions, with a view to maintain the respective positions and territorial rights of the two Contracting Parties on the Continent of Asia. The arrangement was accompanied by a declaration relative to French Indo-China, where the functionaries and subjects of Japan were to be accorded, until the expiration of the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between France and Japan of August, 1896, most favoured nation treatment in so far as concerned their persons and property. Conversely, the same was to hold good in regard to the subjects and protégés of Indo-China. In August, 1911, a new Treaty of Commerce and Navigation was signed with France, and, pending its application to Indo-China, the declaration given above was to continue in force. As under the older treaty, this has had a peculiar result: for, in the absence of any treaty stipulations, Japanese export merchandise was charged, and has remained charged, with the highest duties in that French colony. Accordingly the Japanese Ambassador at Paris was instructed in April, 1924, after so many years' abeyance, to propose to the French Government the revision of the treaty of 1911 and the extension of its scope so as to remedy this abnormal situation. The proposal was followed by a friendly visit of the Governor-General of Indo-China, M. Merlin, to Japan in May of the same year, and by the despatch of our Special Mission headed by Prince Isaburo Yamagata (son of the late Field Marshal Yamagata) to return the courtesy

to Indo-China in February, 1925. Subsequently it was suggested by the French Government that the question should be dealt with independently from that of the revision of the existing treaty; in this suggestion the Japanese Government concurred. Negotiations, therefore, were opened at Paris, but so far no agreement on the points at issue appears to have been reached.

RELATIONS WITH THE UNITED STATES

For many years after the conclusion in 1854 of the first treaty of amity between Japan and the United States, which was the first of the kind ever signed by this country with a Western Power, the relations between the two countries were characterised by exceptional amity and friendliness. Indeed, the contributions that have been made by the United States to progress in Japan of politics, education, industry, diplomacy, etc. since Japan opened her doors to foreign intercourse are too many to enumerate here. Further, the traditional goodwill shown to this country by Mr. Townsend Harris and other succeeding American representatives here told most eloquently of the cordial friendship of the American people towards Japan. In recent years, however, these exemplary friendly relations have been marred by divers unpleasant complications and it is undeniable that the feelings of the two nations towards each other are not so cordial as in bygone days. A difference of opinion first arose in connection with an incident that took place in October, 1906. It related to the action of the School Board of San Francisco which, at the instigation of certain agitators opposed to the Japanese and Korean laborers, passed a resolution excluding the children of those nationalities from the public schools under its supervision. After futile attempts to obtain justice from the local authorities, the Japanese Ambassador at Washington laid the matter before the Federal Government and was assured of its willingness to endeavour to effect an equitable adjustment of the difficulty. But the anti-Japanese elements in California prevailed upon President Roosevelt to promise that he would prohibit the influx of Japanese laborers from Hawaii and secure the restriction of Japanese immigration to the United States, provided that the segregation order of the San Francisco School Board were withdrawn. As a result, the question was settled on the lines indicated by the American Executive. Then, an understanding was reached between the Japanese and American Govern-

ments whereby Japan voluntarily engaged herself to restrain the emigration of laborers to the United States. This was the well-known "Gentlemen's Agreement" of 1907. In order, however, to avoid any future misapprehension on the subject, Japan succeeded in deleting from her Treaty of Commerce and Navigation with the United States of 1911 Article 11 of the treaty of 1894, which provided that "the laws, ordinances, and regulations with regard to trade, the immigration of laborers, police and public security, which are in force or may hereafter be enacted in either of the countries" were unaffected by its stipulations. By the exclusion of this article, it was understood, at least by Japan, that neither of the Contracting Parties to the treaty would resort to legislation for the regulation of immigration. At the same time a declaration was made on the part of the Japanese Government to the effect that it was prepared to maintain with equal effectiveness the limitation and control exercised by it for the past three years in regulating the emigration of laborers to the United States. It was thought that these agreements or understandings definitely put an end to the question that had caused so much uneasiness and irritation on both sides. But that was not the case. In May, 1913, the California legislature passed an Alien Land Act depriving Japanese of the right to own real property, as well as narrowly circumscribing their right to lease land for agricultural purposes. Upon the passage of this discriminatory legislation, the Japanese Government lodged a formal protest with the Government of the United States and entered into negotiations with it in the hope that some arrangement safeguarding the rights of resident Japanese might be made. Unfortunately, no result attended these negotiations. On the other hand the "Japanese Exclusion League of California," which was not satisfied with the legislation just mentioned, sponsored and continued to campaign for a movement to appeal to the people directly for the enactment of a more stringent law in relation to land tenure. The "initiative" measure so submitted to the Californians over the head of the legislature was passed on November 2, 1920, and became operative on December 9. In addition to re-enacting the provisions of 1913, this law not only took away the right of Japanese to lease agricultural lands, but further disqualified them, in so far as the ownership of real property was in question, from being the guardians of their own

children. In other words, it deprived the minors of Japanese descent, who were American citizens by virtue of their birth in America, of the benefit of their parents' guardianship concerning any landed property of which they might come into possession. A law of similar import was also passed by the State of Washington in March, 1921. Furthermore, it was decided by the Supreme Court of the United States in 1922 that a Japanese could not be naturalized under Section 2169 of the Revised Statutes of the United States. This anti-Japanese movement in the Pacific states of the United States frequently gave rise to rumors of the imminence of war between Japan and America, but the tension between both nations was greatly relieved by the conclusion of agreements respecting the limitation of naval armament and various other Pacific problems through frank and friendly pourparlers between the Japanese and American delegates at the Washington Conference. It will be perceived, however, that the reason which actuated Japan in concluding the "Gentlemen's Agreement" of 1907 and making the declaration of 1911 was none other than her desire to relieve the United States from the embarrassing position of giving offence to the sensibilities and self-respect of a friendly Power. In fact, the American Government was fully aware of this and tacitly engaged on both occasions that it would not countenance any discrimination against the Japanese people. Notwithstanding this, it seems that the confidence of Japan that no such law would be made by the United States as a whole was unwarranted. On May 15, 1924, a bill containing a clause particularly directed against Japanese immigrants was passed by the two Houses of Congress and approved by President Coolidge eleven days later. Such legislation is tantamount to an open declaration that the Japanese, no matter what their individual merits might be, were, as such, inadmissible into the United States. Accordingly the Japanese Ambassador at Washington pointed out in his protest to the American Government, which had never questioned the efficacy of the "Gentlemen's Agreement", the injustice and unsavoury character of these measures. The memorandum of the Japanese Ambassador to the American Government dated May 31, 1924, made it clear that what Japan objected to was the exclusive feature of the law. In her view, international discriminations in any form and on any subject, even if based on purely economic

reasons, were opposed to the principles of justice and fairness upon which the friendly intercourse between nations must, in its final analysis, depend. Still more "unwelcome" were discriminations based on race. "Accordingly"—the same memorandum therefore concluded, and the conclusion doubtless stands today—"the Japanese Government consider it their duty to maintain and to place on record their solemn protest against the discriminatory clause in Section 13 (e) of the Immigration Act of 1924, and to request the American Government to take all possible and suitable measures for the removal of such discrimination."

It is true that resentment was felt throughout the country at the time when the bill was passed and even now is still felt in some quarters at this attitude of the United States towards Japan. However, the leaders of public opinion and thinkers in both countries who attach supreme importance to the Japanese-American relations and are greatly concerned about the friction caused by the unfortunate incident are striving to restore the relations between the two countries to the traditional relations of harmony and concord. The promulgation of the Ordinance of November 2, 1926, concerning the execution of the Alien Land Law, by which the ownership of land in Japan by foreigners is actually recognized, is, it is generally believed, intended to help to remove a cause of dispute between the two countries that had existed for many years.

JAPAN AND THE WORLD WAR

Article 11 of the Third Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Alliance provided that if, by reason of unprovoked attack or aggressive action, wherever arising, on the part of any Power or Powers, either High Contracting Party should be involved in war in defence of its territorial rights or special interests in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India, the other High Contracting Party would at once come to the assistance of its ally, and would conduct the war in common and make peace in mutual agreement with it. This being so, it was inevitable that Great Britain's declaration of war on Germany on August 5, 1914, should soon involve Japan in the great conflict. Apprehending such an eventuality, Japan had issued prior to this an announcement, stating that although she hoped for the restriction of the war to the areas already affected, it would be incumbent upon

her to take all necessary steps in case the object of her alliance with Great Britain should be endangered. But the warning was not heeded by the Imperial German Government; and the activities of German warships in the Far East which menaced the allies' overseas trade there, as well as the British request for assistance in order to cope with the situation, caused Japan to serve on Germany, on the 15th August, 1914, the following demands: (1) The German war-vessels should at once be withdrawn from the waters of the Japan and China Seas; those which could not be so withdrawn should be disarmed. (2) The German Government, with a view to its return to China, should hand over the leased territory in Kiaochow to the Japanese Government on or before September 15, 1914, without condition and without compensation. These demands were not complied with by Germany: in consequence Japan declared war on that country on the 23rd of August, the last day on which her reply was to have been received. A few days later, relations between Japan and Austria-Hungary, Germany's ally, were also severed.

At first, Japan's participation in the struggle was limited to the Far East. The immediate object of her hostile operations was the reduction of the German stronghold in Tsingtao, and this she effected in November, 1914, with the co-operation of British troops. She next occupied the German South Sea Islands north of the equator, and kept the highways of the Pacific and Indian Oceans free from German commerce raiders. Her fleet was then despatched as far as the Mediterranean, where it prosecuted the war in common with those of the allied Powers. Further, it largely devolved upon her to afford relief, in the summer of 1918, to the Czecho-Slovak troops in Siberia, and generally to withstand the great Russian percussion in Asia. These activities, in short, constituted her role in the World War.

Now we may turn to the Paris Peace Conference, which followed the conclusion in November, 1918, of an armistice between the allied and associated Powers on the one side and Germany and her allies on the other. The two claims made by Japan at the Conference were: (1) the adoption in the League of Nations Covenant of the principle of racial equality and (2) the transfer by Germany of her former rights in Shantung and the North Pacific. Regarding the first, the Japanese delegation proposed an amendment to the draft Covenant

to the effect that "the equality of nations being a basic principle of the League of Nations, the High Contracting Parties agree to accord, as soon as possible, to all alien nationals of State-members of the League equal and just treatment in every respect, making no distinction, either in law or in fact, on account of their race or nationality." The amendment, whilst it secured a clear majority in its favor at a meeting in which it was discussed, was strenuously opposed by the representatives of the United States and the British Overseas Dominions; it was therefore withdrawn by Japan with the reservation that she would press for its adoption in future as a principle of the League of Nations. Concerning the second point, it was somewhat curiously contended by the Chinese delegation that the German rights in Shantung "automatically" reverted to China upon her declaration of war on Germany in August, 1917. But this contention was not sustainable especially in view of the Sino-Japanese treaty of May, 1915, wherein China, besides consenting to the extension of Japan's lease of the Liaotung Peninsula, undertook "to give full assent to all matters upon which the Japanese Government may hereafter agree with the German Government relating to the disposition of all rights, interests and concessions which Germany, by way of treaties or otherwise possesses in relation to the Province of Shantung." The treaty of 1915—to which the Chinese Government latterly took exception as offering no quid pro quo—had become the basis of a new Sino-Japanese agreement, concluded at China's own instance in September, 1918, through which she obtained a loan from Japan for the purpose of developing her railways in Shantung. Moreover, Japan had the assurance that the claims in question would be supported by her allies in the war. They were accordingly upheld in the Versailles Treaty, notwithstanding China's objections.

The Treaty of Versailles, which was signed on the 28th June, 1919, and which finally re-established peace between the warring nations, provided for the cession by Germany to Japan of all rights and privileges as to Kiaochow and of the railways, mines and cables acquired by Germany by her treaty with China of March 6, 1898, and by other agreements in regard to Shantung. All German rights to the railway from Tsingtao to Tsinanfu, and all facilities and mining rights as well as rights of exploitation, were likewise ceded to Japan; and the

cables from Tsingtao to Shanghai and Chefoo (the cables free of all charges) as well. Japan also acquired by the same treaty a mandate over the former German north equatorial possessions in the Pacific, including the Island of Yap. Afterwards the United States claimed that the disposition of this island had been reserved for future consideration, so that some agreement might be reached by the allied and associated Powers to place it under international control. The question, however, was settled by a mutual compromise. By the agreement arrived at in September, 1921, the United States recognized Japan's mandatory rights over these islands, while Japan, on her part, admitted the American right to erect a wireless station in Yap and the right, also, to land and use submarine cables there.

The effect of Japan's participation in the World War is far more significant in its moral influence than in its material advantages. As a result of her prudent and dignified attitude and activities at the peace conference as one of the five principal Allied and Associated Powers, her international position has been so greatly enhanced that she has now attained full recognition as a World Power in dealing with not only Oriental questions, but also purely European or American affairs.

The World War, indeed, proved an epoch-making event in Japan's international relations. The most conspicuous of all its consequences was the active co-operation of the Japanese delegates to the League of Nations with the delegates of other Powers for the stabilization and promotion of peace in Europe. Not only as a leading Asiatic nation but also as one of the foremost World Powers, Japan has played, since the inception of the League, a most impartial and important role in the solution of the multifarious complicated problems of the European Continent. Further, as a result of the conclusion of the Versailles Peace Treaty, Japan's diplomatic relations with Germany and the pre-war friendly intercourse between the two nations have been resumed, attended by the gradual revival of their association, intellectual and otherwise.

A notable phase in the post-war developments of Japan's international relations is that, in a peaceful and liberty-loving spirit, she is doing her utmost to promote commercial and cultural relations with various countries, to cultivate new fields for her trade expansion which have hitherto been neglected. For instance, follow-

ing the conclusion of the Lausanne Treaty, Japan entered into relations of amity with Turkey and opened an embassy in Constantinople in March, 1925. Addressing the 51st session of the Imperial Diet, the then Foreign Minister Baron Shidehara said about the Turco-Japanese relations: "For the first time in history, Japan inaugurated in the course of last year (1925) an exchange of Ambassadors with Turkey. Determined as we are to remain an independent and disinterested third party in face of the tangled problem of Europe in the Near East, we indulge in the confident hope that the sentiments of goodwill fostered between the Turkish people and ours since the "Ertogrul" affair of 1891 will gain in strength and solidity and that a new field of enterprise for Japanese industry and commerce will be opened in Turkey and in the neighboring regions." In 1926, Japan also established a consulate-general in Alexandria, Egypt, which was followed by the opening of a regular line to the east coast of Africa by the Osaka Shosen Kaisha (Osaka Mercantile S.S. Co.)

THE WASHINGTON CONFERENCE

Shortly after the termination of the World War, the aspirations and endeavours of American statesmen and thinkers were directed to secure a lasting peace of the world, particularly in the Pacific region.

In July, 1921, the American Government approached the Japanese Government with an inquiry as to whether it was agreeable to Japan to receive an invitation to take part in a conference to be held at Washington with a view to discussing, with the United States, Great Britain, France, and Italy, the question of the limitation of armaments. It was suggested at the same time that the discussion should embrace the Pacific and Far Eastern problems which, in the opinion of the American Government, were closely related to that question. The object of the proposed conference tallying with its own desire, the Japanese Government at once replied in the affirmative, although it thought it more expedient, in order to facilitate its attainment, to define the nature and scope of the problems falling under the second category. The fact was duly brought to the knowledge of the American Government and an understanding regarding the matter was reached between the two. After these preliminaries, Japan participated in the conference which was formally convoked by the President of the

United States on November 11, 1921, and whose session lasted till early in February, 1922.

The Washington Conference adopted a series of important treaties, bearing on the Powers' relations with one another. These were: (1) The Treaty between the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan relating to the Limitation of Naval Armament. By this treaty Japan agreed, among other things, to limit her capital ships to 10 ships of 315,000 tons, and to maintain the status quo regarding the fortifications and naval bases in her insular territories and possessions in the Pacific, including the Kurile Islands, the Bonin Islands, Amami-Oshima, the Luchu Islands, Formosa and the Pescadores. (2) The Treaty between the same Powers respecting the Use of Submarines and Noxious Gases in Warfare. (3) The Treaty between the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan, except Italy, concerning their Insular Possessions and Insular Dominions in the Region of the Pacific Ocean. This treaty, which, as has already been noted above, replaced the Anglo-Japanese Alliance Treaty of the 13th July, 1911, and by which the Signatories undertake mutually to respect each other's rights in relation to their insular possessions and dominions in the Pacific, provides for a joint conference in case any Pacific question involving the said rights is not satisfactorily settled by diplomacy; and in case they are threatened by the aggressive action of any other Power, the High Contracting Parties are to communicate with each other as to measures to be taken, jointly or separately, to meet the exigencies of the situation. It is also explicitly stipulated in a supplementary treaty that the term "insular possessions and insular dominions" signifies, in its application to Japan, only the Japanese portion of Saghalien, Formosa, the Pescadores, and the islands under mandate to Japan. (4) The Treaty between the United States, Belgium, the British Empire, China, France, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, and Portugal relating to Principles and Policies concerning China. Thereby, the Powers agreed to respect the sovereignty and independence and the territorial and administrative integrity of China, and to use their influence for the purpose of effectually establishing and maintaining the principle of equal opportunity for the commerce and industry of all nations throughout that country. They agreed, in addition, to refrain from taking advantage of conditions in China in order to seek

special rights or privileges which would abridge the rights of subjects or citizens of friendly States, and from countenancing any action inimical to the security of such States. (5) The Treaty between the same Powers respecting the Chinese Customs Tariff, whereby the Powers other than China consented to making such customs duties equivalent to an effective 5 per cent. ad valorem, in accordance with the existing treaties concluded by the latter with other nations. Beside these treaties, the following resolutions were adopted at the Washington Conference: A Resolution establishing a Commission of Jurists; A Resolution regarding the Sale of Ships before the Ratification of the Treaty limiting Naval Armament; A Resolution establishing a Board of Reference for the Far Eastern Question; A Resolution regarding Extraterritoriality in China; A Resolution regarding Foreign Armed Forces in China; A Resolution regarding Radio Stations in China; A Resolution regarding the Unification of Railways in China; A Resolution regarding the Reduction of Chinese Military Forces; A Resolution regarding the Chinese Eastern Railway, adopted by the Powers including China; A Resolution regarding the same, adopted by the Powers other than China.

Further, the Washington Conference was instrumental in solving the so-called "Shantung" question. It has already been seen that the Treaty of Versailles confirmed the title of Japan to the former German leasehold in Kiaochow and such other rights and privileges which Germany had possessed in Shantung prior to the war of 1914-18. This the Japanese Government proposed, without delay, to restore to China by direct negotiations; but the proposal was for one reason or another not accepted by the Chinese Government. At length, however, the question was disposed of at Washington, largely through the good offices of the American and British representatives by an agreement between the Governments concerned. The agreement, which was signed on February 4, 1922, provided for the restitution of the leased territory to China; the withdrawal of the Japanese troops stationed along the Tsingtao-Tsinanfu Railway and its branches; and the transfer to China of the railways, together with all the properties appurtenant thereto, including wharves, warehouses and other similar utilities. For this, China was to reimburse to Japan the sum of 53,406,141 gold Marks (this being the assessed value of the former German

properties), plus the actual amount expended by Japan for permanent improvements or additions. Likewise the agreement provided for the transfer of the mines and other concessions which the treaty of peace with Germany had vested in Japan. Its provisions, by the way, were fully carried out by a Sino-Japanese Joint Commission before the end of 1922. The amount of compensation to be paid by China for the railways in Shantung was fixed at ¥40,000,000, and the rate of interest at 6 per cent. per annum. Thus, the outstanding controversy between the two neighbouring countries known as the Shantung Question has been amicably settled and, as a result, the ill-feeling which had been created among the Chinese people by the dispute has considerably subsided.

RELATIONS WITH SOVIET RUSSIA

Before proceeding on Japan's relations with Russia during and after the World War, we may recur to the Treaty of Portsmouth which restored peace between the two Powers. The opening article of this historic document reads: "There shall henceforth be peace and amity between Their Majesties the Emperor of Japan and the Emperor of all the Russias and between Their respective States and Subjects." And the Russians became more appreciative of Japan and the Japanese people after the War of 1904-5 than before it, insomuch that within a month after the conclusion of the Franco-Japanese convention of 1907, a similar convention promoting good neighborliness between them was concluded in this convention they engaged mutually to respect each other's territorial integrity and rights with special reference to China; and promised to recognize the independence and territorial integrity of China and maintain and defend by all pacific means at their disposal the status quo and the doctrine of equal opportunity there for the commerce and industry of all nations. The agreement was somewhat amplified in 1910 by a new convention, according to which they were to cooperate for the improvement of their railway service in Manchuria and to avoid all competition detrimental to the realization of that end and to respect the maintenance of the status quo in Manchuria and to consult each other as to measures to be taken therefor. Such being the friendly sentiments subsisting between the two Empires, it was only natural that Japan should go the length of extending, during the

early stage of the World War, financial and other assistance to her co-belligerent and ally. In 1916, moreover, they concluded yet a third convention, providing in effect that neither of them would be a party to any arrangement or political combination directed against the other; and that, in case their duly recognized territorial rights and special interests in the Far East should be menaced, they would concert on measures required for the safe-guarding and defence of those rights and interests. Nevertheless, the Russian revolution of the following year and the events that transpired in the sequel made it necessary for Japan to take cognizance of the situation so created by the de-facto authorities of Russia. It was on account of this that Japan undertook in August, 1918, after complete accord had been reached with the allied and associated Powers, the task of rescuing the Czecho-Slovaks stranded in Siberia. This task Japan and the allied Powers accomplished; and the latter withdrew their expeditionary forces in the course of the year 1920. Then occurred an incident which stirred the people of Japan very deeply. It was the wholesale massacre at Nikolaievsk of more than seven hundred Japanese, including women and children, as well as the Japanese Consul, his family and official staff. Considering the unsettled state of affairs in Russia, there appeared to be no alternative for Japan but to occupy, as a measure of reprisal and till she could obtain redress from a responsible Government, certain points in the Russian portion of Saghalien. Not only this, but the incident urgently called for the protection of Japanese lives and property in various parts of Siberia. Again, the chaos obtaining there was taken advantage of by the outlaw Koreans in the districts around Vladivostok and Nikolsk to threaten the security of the Korean frontier, and to commit acts of conspiracy against the constituted authorities of their native land. These considerations obliged Japan also to maintain, regardless of the large expenditure it entailed, an adequate force in Siberia in self-protection; and it was more than two years after the allied evacuation of the country that she was enabled to withdraw the last of her troops in the Maritime Province.

Consequently Japan endeavoured as soon as an opportunity presented itself to readjust her relations with Soviet Russia. With a view to this, but in vain, negotiations were conducted at Dairen, Changchun, and Tokyo at various

dates between 1921 and 1923. It is not to be doubted that the Japanese efforts in this direction paved the way for the eventual conference of the Soviet-Japanese representatives at Peking, where at last they succeeded in signing on January 20, 1925, a convention embodying the basic rules of their future relations. The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics acknowledged in the convention—which established diplomatic connections between the two countries—that "the Treaty of Portsmouth of September 5, 1905, shall remain in full force." Besides, it was agreed by the Governments of the High Contracting Parties that the Fishery Convention of 1907, based on Article XI of the Treaty of Portsmouth, might be revised; that a treaty of commerce and navigation should be concluded in conformity with the following principles, which, pending the conclusion of such a treaty, should also regulate the general intercourse between the two countries, to wit: (1) The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall, in accordance with the law of the country, have full liberty (a) to enter, travel and reside in the territories of the other, and (b) to enjoy constant and complete protection for the safety of their lives and property. (2) Each of the High Contracting Parties shall in accordance with the law of the country accord in its territories to the subjects or citizens of the other, "to the widest possible extent and on condition of reciprocity, the right of private ownership and the liberty to engage in commerce, navigation, industries, and other peaceful pursuits." (3) Without prejudice to the rights of each Contracting Party to regulate by its own laws the system of international trade in its domains, it is understood that neither Contracting Party shall apply in discrimination against the other Party any measures of prohibition, restriction or impost which may tend to hamper the growth of the intercourse, economic or otherwise, between them, it being the intention of both Parties to place the commerce, navigation and industry of each, as far as possible, on the footing of the most favoured nation. Article V of the convention stipulates: "The High Contracting Parties solemnly affirm their desire and intention to live in peace and amity with each other, scrupulously to respect the undoubted right of a State, to order its own life within its own jurisdiction in its own way, to refrain and restrain all persons in any governmental service for them, and all organizations in re-

cept of any financial assistance from them, from any act, overt or covert, liable in any way whatever to endanger the order and security in any part of the territories of Japan or the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. It is further agreed that neither Contracting Party shall permit the presence in the territories under its jurisdiction—(a) of organization or groups pretending to be the Government for any part of the territories of the other Party, or (b) of alien subjects or citizens who may be found to be actually carrying on political activities for such organizations or groups." Two protocols have been appended to the convention: The Protocol (A) reserves for adjustment at subsequent negotiations between the High Contracting Parties "all questions of debts due to the Government or subjects of Japan on account of public loans and Treasury bills issued by the former Tsarist Government of Russia and the Provisional Government which succeeded it," provided that in adjusting such questions the former shall not, all other conditions being equal, be placed in any position less favorable than that which the Government of the Soviet Union may accord to any other Government or nationals on similar questions; and contains a declaration that there exists between them "no treaty or agreement of military alliance or any other secret agreement which either of them has entered into with any third Party and which constitutes an infringement upon, or menace to the sovereignty, territorial rights or national safety of the other Contracting Party." It also provides, and the provision has already been executed by Japan early in May, 1925, for the evacuation by her troops of North Saghalien. In turn, the Plenipotentiary of the Soviet Union tenders to the Government of Japan, in a note annexed to the Convention of January 20th, "an expression of sincere regrets for the Nikolaiyevsk incident of 1920." In the Protocol (B) the Government of the Soviet Union agrees to grant to Japanese concerns certain privileges "for the exploitation of minerals, forests and other resources" (details as to these have been left for subsequent arrangement), to waive the right to charge import and export duties on "any articles, minerals or products needed for or obtained from such enterprises," and not to collect from or impose on the latter "any such taxation or restriction as may in fact render their remunerative working impossible." The ratification of the convention above implies the ratification of these proto-

cols. This Japan effected on the 25th February, 1925.

RECENT RELATIONS WITH CHINA

On January 8, 1915, Japan presented to China four groups of demands (14 articles) and a group of wishes (7 articles) which were loosely called the Twenty-One Demands. In the then prevailing state of things in world politics, there was nothing alarming about the step taken by Japan, for there was nothing new or unprecedented in the set of demands and wishes presented. The method of procedure adopted by Japan may not have been of the wisest, the advisability of presenting the group of wishes along with the demands being questioned even by critics who otherwise entirely approve the diplomacy of 1915. The wisdom or the necessity of presenting an ultimatum is also questioned by many. That the demands themselves were reasonable and justifiable may be best shown by the fact that no question was raised to the treaties of 1915 by any of the Powers interested not excepting the United States which had found sixteen of the original twenty-one articles quite unobjectionable, those to which she had intimated objection being four of the seven articles coming under the group of wishes and the article concerning non-alienation of ports and islands. Japan having acceded to the American suggestions in every case there was absolutely nothing in the treaties that resulted of which the American Government had expressed the slightest disapproval.

Out of the original twenty-one articles, seven falling under Group V which at the time of the negotiations of 1915 Japan had reserved for later discussions were abandoned at the Washington Conference; the four articles concerning Shantung were terminated by the Shantung Settlement of 1922; of the seven articles concerning Manchuria and Mongolia those providing for Japan's option in regard to railway loans and for the employment of Japanese advisers were given up at the Washington Conference and the article concerning the Kirin-Changchun Railway was disposed of by the revision of the loan agreement for the said railway; of the two articles concerning Hanyeping iron mines that which concerned other mines in the vicinity was abandoned at the time of the original negotiations of 1915; the articles concerning non-alienation of ports and islands was disposed of at the time by

China making a declaration to that effect of her own accord.

Thus only five of the so-called twenty-one demands now remain in force, in modified form, as an agreement between Japan and China, they being those relating to the extension of the term of the lease of Port Arthur and Dairen and the term respecting the South Manchuria Railway and the Antung-Mukden Railway, those permitting Japanese subjects to lease land, to reside, travel and carry on business of various kinds and granting them the right of mining in South Manchuria, and one of the original two articles concerning the Hanyeping mines.

Japan's Rights and Interests

Japan has special interests in China which arise from her peculiarly close relationship with China geographically, politically and economically. While mention has been made in the past of these special interests in her treaties and agreements with other foreign Governments, it was in the nature of a mere statement of fact and not an admission on the part of those Governments of any special privileges belonging to Japan on account of her position vis-a-vis China. On the other hand, the fact that Japan is interested in the affairs of China as no other power is cannot be changed by a stroke of the pen. In the days before the World War, when the integrity of China was so often and so obviously menaced from without, Japan had on every occasion to lay stress on this peculiar relationship subsisting between herself and China. Many of the courses of policy she had followed in the past become intelligible only in this light. Owing to the change of attitude on the part of other powers towards China subsequent to the War a situation has arisen in this part of the world which warrants and even necessitates a reorientation on the part of Japan of her policy towards China. The many important concessions which she made at the Washington Conference with regard to China and the discarding of the Ishii-Lansing Agreement all form part of her new China policy. In the absence of any external menace to China's independence and integrity the need has disappeared for Japan to proclaim her interest in these matters, or to continue to occupy a position assumed in preparation for the worst eventualities which might have materialized. Japan can now afford to stand by and let

China work out her own problems in her own way, for in the nature of things, the thesis of special interests had in view, not China herself, but other extraneous powers which might have menaced the existence of China and eventually that of Japan.

In face of the incessant strifes and civil war which have been rife in China ever since the revolution of 1912, Japan has always observed an attitude of neutrality, strictly refraining from affording assistance to any of the contending factions. These internal troubles in China, however, have almost invariably involved injury to the person and property of foreigners; non-interference in China's internal affairs is one thing and the protection of foreigners' lives and property is quite another. In glaring cases such as those of Hankow, Nanking and Tsinan, foreign Governments were compelled to intervene in order to protect their people. If the Japanese Government has had to despatch war vessels and troops to China oftener than other Governments did it is only because Japan rights and interests have been oftener victimized through untoward occurrences or unwarranted attacks. In this regard Japan's attitude and policy did not in the least differ from those of any other self-respecting power interested in China. There is, for instance, nothing to distinguish the Tsinan incident, in character if not in magnitude, from that of Nanking. That is clearly shown by the entire course of the negotiations, by the demands and counter-demands, the terms of final settlement, etc.

It was in respect of her rights and interests in Manchuria that Japan assumed a characteristic attitude of her own. While in China proper her interests are mainly commercial, Japan looks upon Manchuria with a concern which does spring simply from the importance she attaches to her vested interests in the region. The entire Japanese people are at the back of a Government which is prepared to adopt measures regarding Manchuria which might scarcely be justifiable if applied to China proper. The declaration of the Japanese Government, both in and out of parliament, that it was its determination to see that Manchuria offered "a safe abode for both natives and foreigners" elicited criticism from leaders of liberal thought, Baron Shidehara among the rest. But it was Baron Shidehara himself who in 1925 as Minister of Foreign Affairs permitted the despatch of troops from Chosen to

reinforce the railway patrols, when the Fengtien (Mukden) General Kuo Sung-ling rose against Marshal Chang Tso-lin. As a matter of fact, no Government in Japan that should allow any extended disturbance to proceed unchecked in Manchuria would be able to survive the popular uproar that would promptly arise throughout Japan. This attitude of Japan towards Manchuria was enunciated in the 56th session (1928-29) of the Imperial Diet by the late Baron Tanaka, then Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs, in his latter capacity in a speech which contained the following passage:—

"I feel bound to say a few words about our position in Manchuria as distinguished from the rest of China. In view of the political and strategic importance which it bears to Japan on account of its geographic contiguity with our territory and considering the historic significance which it possesses in that the region was restored to China by Japan at the risk of her national existence from the aggressive grip of Tsarist Russia, it is quite natural that the sentiment of the Japanese people toward Manchuria should be peculiarly keen, and entirely different from that which exists towards any other part of China. Furthermore, more than a million Japanese subjects reside in the region today and Japan has many important rights and interests there. The interest and concern with which the Japanese people have come to regard the affairs of Manchuria should therefore not cause the least wonder. It goes without saying that the Japanese Government will respect the sovereignty of China over Manchuria, will do all in its power for the preservation of the principles of the open door and equal opportunity, and desire that the region should offer a safe abode for both natives and foreigners. The Japanese Government is, at the same time, fully determined to take appropriate steps should a state of affairs arise in Manchuria which should disturb the tranquility of the locality and thus put Japan's vital interests in jeopardy.

"Thus it will be seen that what has been stated concerning the theory of special interests in its general application is not in strict keeping with the facts, so far as Manchuria is concerned. For it would be idle to say that the very keen interest which Japan feels in Manchurian affairs is due only to the vast material interests she possesses there. In the

mind of the Japanese people the safety of Manchuria both from external menace and from internal disruption is bound up with the national safety to Japan herself."

The Manchurian Affair

The continuous abuse which China has perpetrated upon Japan through the violation of Japan's treaty rights and fanatic outbursts against Japan, cases of which are too numerous to count here, especially since the latter part of 1930 has forced Japan to take drastic measures in Manchuria for sheer purpose of safeguarding her treaty rights and special interests in the region as well as protecting the lives and property of Japanese subjects residing in Manchuria, including a large number of Koreans. Finally, the destruction by Chinese soldiers, who are regular troops of the Mukden army, of the South Manchurian Railway track in the vicinity of Mukden in September, 1931, has compelled Japanese army stationed in Manchuria to take the proper steps against the challenge of Chinese to put an end to the constant menace to the peace and order in Manchuria and Japan's rights and interests in the region, for which the Chinese Government is responsible. This was the direct cause of the regrettable clash between the Japanese army and Chinese troops in Manchuria which created something like sensation in diplomatic circles in Europe and America, particularly of those powers who are members of the League of Nations and the signatory parties to the Kellogg Anti-war Pact. The question was then taken up by the Council of the League of Nations as the world nations are aware.

Toshio Shiratori, Japanese Minister to Sweden and ex-Chief of the Intelligence Bureau of the Foreign Office, discussing the Sino-Japanese differences before the members of the Pan-Pacific Club (Tokyo) on October 2, 1931, stated in part as follows:—

"As you all know, it is generally said that the destruction by Chinese soldiers of the South Manchuria Railway track in the vicinity of Mukden has given rise to the present troubles in Manchuria. In spite of all accusations to the contrary, there can now be no doubt that dynamite was touched off by that act of bravado by some hot-headed Chinese soldiers. When I speak of dynamite I do not mean the bomb that was used in wrecking the railway, but the tense, oppressive atmosphere, the 'touch and go' situation, which had exist-

ed for some time in Manchuria. Given that situation, the catastrophe was bound to come sooner or later, in some way or other. That fact must always be borne in mind for a right understanding of the present affair.

"I have no intention to dwell here upon the long and tedious history of the systematic disregard on the part of China of Japan's treaty rights and legitimate interests, for that is a matter of common knowledge. Time was when Japan was, with some justice, regarded as the sinner, and China as the party grievously sinned against. That was in days when a standard of international morality prevailed which is fundamentally different from that which now rules the conduct of nations. We are not a nation of saints, I admit, but we have at least sense enough to do in Rome as the Romans do. We are aware that there was a new birth of world conscience after the World War that we now lived in a much changed world. We have played no mean part in all the peace activities of recent times. We have been regarded as not the least of the pillars of the League of Nations. We have been staunch champions of disarmament. We have been called the stabilizing power in the western Pacific. But we have learned to our cost that there is such a thing as a nation's being too good. While we were being 'modern' in our conduct towards China, we found that the tables had been turned upon us, and that we, instead of the Chinese, were placed in the position of the weaker and the wronged.

"China has repeatedly resorted to economic boycott, nearly as obnoxious and harmful a weapon as the use of force which is denounced by various international treaties. It is this absurd situation, even more than China's infringements upon our rights and interests, unpardonable as they were, that irritated our national feeling. That accounts for the surprising unanimity of public opinion in support of the action of Japanese army in Manchuria. The man in the street visualizes the figure of the old samurai who, provoked to the extreme, cuts in twain his insulter with one lightning stroke of the cold steel.

"It is, however, not in such a vindicate frame of mind as this that the Japanese Government approaches the present situation. The official statement published the other day shows that Japan's heart has not changed at all, that she still looks upon China as a neighbour with whom she must, in the words

of the late great leader of China, 'stand together or fall together.' We have no territorial designs on Manchuria, neither do we look for any fresh rights as an outcome of the settlement of the present affair. All we want is that, in the first place, China shall respect our rights and interests and in the second, that she shall abandon once for all her time-honored policy of anti-foreignism. That seems a simple enough settlement at first sight.

"As for Japan's rights and interests in Manchuria, they are so legitimate and so indispensable to our very existence that we cannot afford to have them trifled with. Nor ought there be any insurmountable obstacle in the way of an amicable understanding in this respect between Japan and China.

"The case is entirely different with that other desideratum I have mentioned. With the Chinese people, hatred and scorn of the foreigner seem to be bred in the bone. If they could have things their own way, they would have no 'foreign devils' within their borders—would have nothing to do with the outside world. It is only by the logic of force that they have been compelled to tolerate the foreigner who is there in their midst with all that his presence means to them. For Japan to tackle singlehanded the well nigh impossible task of inducing them to abandon that mental attitude would be too ambitious endeavour and would, perhaps, prove futile. But any settlement with whatever power in China it may be, that contain no attempt at some solution, if not of this fundamental question of the Chinese mentality, yet at any rate of the more practical question of the boycott and of the anti-Japanese education which has been so systematically carried out in all parts of China; such a settlement could hardly be expected to be acceptable to the Japanese people.

"I have spoken frankly and freely, and I repeat that in my opinion what is really needed is a change of heart in the Chinese leaders of opinion, and recognition of the fact that, as the world stands today, China and Japan must work together as good neighbours for their common benefit and the progress of mankind."

Japan's Standpoint

The *raison detre* for the steps taken by Japan as self-defence measures against China's aggressive designs was explicitly given in the statement issued by the Japanese Government

on September 25. The statement, reproduced hereunder, describes in concrete form the situation in Manchuria leading up to the clash between the Japanese and Chinese troops and the reasons for the action taken by the Japanese military authorities, as well as defining the position taken by Japan and reiterating that Japan has no territorial designs in Manchuria but hopes for a reign of peace and order in which Japanese subjects may engage in peaceful pursuits. The statement is as follows:—

(1) Japanese Government has constantly been exercising honest endeavours in pursuance of its settled policy, to foster friendly relations between Japan and China and to promote the common prosperity and well-being of the two countries. Unfortunately, the conduct of officials and individuals of China for some years past has been such that our national sentiment has frequently been irritated. In particular, unpleasant incidents have taken place one after another in the regions of Manchuria and Mongolia in which Japan is interested in an especial degree, until the impression has gained strength in the minds of the Japanese people that Japan's fair and friendly attitude is not being reciprocated by China in a like spirit. Amidst an atmosphere of perturbation and anxiety thus created, a detachment of Chinese troops destroyed the tracks of the South Manchuria Railway in the vicinity of Mukden and attacked our railway guards at midnight on September 18th; a clash between the Japanese and Chinese troops then took place.

(2) The situation became critical, as the number of the Japanese guards stationed along the entire railway did not then exceed ten thousand four hundreds, while there were in juxtaposition some two hundred twenty thousand Chinese soldiers. Moreover, hundreds of thousands of Japanese residents were placed in jeopardy. In order to forestall an imminent disaster, the Japanese army had to act swiftly. Chinese soldiers garrisoned in the neighboring localities were disarmed and the duty of maintaining peace and order was left in the hands of the local Chinese organizations under the supervision of Japanese troops.

(3) These measures having been taken, our soldiers were mostly withdrawn within the railway zone. There still remain some detachments in Mukden and Kirin and a small number of men in a few other places, but nowhere

does a state of military occupation as such exist. The reports that Japanese authorities have seized the customs or the salt gabelle office at Yingkou, or that they have taken control of the Chinese railways between Ssuping-kai and Chengchiatun or between Mukden and Sinmintun are entirely untrue, nor has the story of our troops having ever been sent north of Changchun or into Chientao any foundation in fact.

(4) The Japanese Government, at the special cabinet meeting of September 19th, took the decision that all possible efforts should be made to prevent the aggravation of the situation, and instructions to that effect were given to the Commander of the Manchurian Garrison. It is true that a detachment was despatched from Changchun to Kirin on September 21st, but it was not with a view to military occupation but only for the purpose of removing a menace to the South Manchuria Railway on its flank. As soon as that object has been attained, the bulk of our detachment will be withdrawn. It may be added that while a mixed brigade of four thousand men was sent from Korea to join the Manchurian Garrison, the total number of men in the Garrison at present still remains within the limit set by treaty, and that fact cannot therefore be regarded as having in any way added to the seriousness of international situation.

(5) It may be superfluous to repeat that the Japanese Government harbors no territorial designs in Manchuria. What we desire is that Japanese subjects shall be enabled safely to engage in various peaceful pursuits and be given the opportunity of participating in the development of that land by means of capital and labor. It is the proper duty of a government to protect rights and interests legitimately enjoyed by the nation or individuals. The endeavours of the Japanese Government to guard the South Manchuria Railway against wanton attacks should be viewed in no other light. The Japanese Government, true to its established policy, is prepared to cooperate with the Chinese Government in order to prevent the present incident from developing into a disastrous situation between the two countries and to work out such constructive plans as will once for all eradicate causes for future friction. The Japanese Government would be more than gratified if the present difficulty could be brought to a solution which will give a new turn to the mutual

relations of the two countries.

American Note

On September 24, 1931, when the above-mentioned statement was issued by the Japanese Government, the Government of the United States of America sent an identical note to the Governments of Japan and China in reference to the Manchuria development. The note reads as follows:

"The Government and people of the United States observed with regret and with concern the events of the past few days in Manchuria. In view of the sincere desire of the people of this country that principles and methods of peace shall prevail in international relations, and of the existence of treaties, to several of which the United States is a party, the provisions of which we intended to regulate the adjustment of the controversies between nations without resorting to the use of force, the American Government feels warranted in expressing to the Chinese and the Japanese Governments its hope that they will cause their military forces to refrain from any further hostilities, will so dispose respectively of their armed forces as to satisfy the requirements of international law and international agreements, and will refrain from activities which may prejudice the attainment by amicable methods of an adjustment of their differences."

Japan's Reply

To the above American note, the Japanese Government replied on September 27 in the following words:

"The Japanese Government is deeply sensible of the friendly concern and the fairness of attitude with which the American Government has observed the recent course of events in Manchuria. Sharing with the American Government the hope expressed in your note under acknowledgement, this Government has already caused the Japanese military forces in Manchuria to refrain from any further acts of hostility, unless their own safety as well as the security of the South Manchuria Railway and of Japanese lives and property within that Railway Zone is jeopardized by the aggression of Chinese troops or armed bands. Every care has been, and will continue to be, exercised by the Japanese forces to observe all the requirements of international law and international agreements, and to avoid any action that is calculated to prejudice an amicable settlement of the differences between Japan and China.

"The Japanese Government believes that, by frank and unimpassioned discussion between the two parties in conflict, in the light of their true and lasting interests, an adjustment will be found to set at rest the existing situation of tension in Manchuria."

The Chinchow Incident

As the activity of the Chinese troops in and around the neighborhood of Chinchow became evident, and it appeared necessary that the Japanese troops had to attack Chinchow, the Japanese Government issued another statement on December 27 as follows:

"The maintenance of peace and order in Manchuria is a matter to which the Government of Japan has always attached the utmost importance. They have on various occasions taken every lawful step in order to secure it, and to prevent Manchuria from becoming the battle-ground of militarist factions. Only if peace and order prevails, can the country be safe either for the Chinese or for the foreigners; in the absence of peace and order it is futile to speak of the open door or of equal opportunity for the economic activities of all nations. But the events of September last have, in spite of her wishes, created a new responsibility and a wider sphere of action for Japan. Attacked by Chinese violence, her acts of necessary self-protection resulted in her considerable embarrassment, in her having to assume the duty of maintaining public order and private rights throughout a wide area.

"The local authorities might have been expected to co-operate in upholding law and order. But, in fact, they almost unanimously fled or resigned. It was Japan's clear duty to render her steps of self-defence as little disturbing as possible to the peaceable inhabitants of the region. It would have been breach of that duty to have left the population a prey to anarchy, deprived of all the apparatus of civilized life. Therefore, the Japanese military authorities have, at considerable sacrifice, expended much time and energy in securing the safety of persons and property in the districts where the native authorities had become ineffective. This is a responsibility which was thrust upon them by events, and one which they had as little desire to assume as to evade.

"2. But further than that, not only did the existing machinery of justice and civilized existence break down, but the criminal activities of the bandits who infest the country were na-

turally stimulated. The prestige and efficiency of the Japanese troops were for some time sufficient to keep them in check, and to maintain order wherever they are stationed. Since the beginning of November, however, a sudden increase in the activities of the bandits has been noted in the vicinity of the South Manchuria Railway Zone, and especially to the west of the main line,—and it has been established by demonstration, by the examination of arrested individuals, by documents which have been seized, and from other sources of information, that their depredations are being carried on through the systematic intrigues of the Chinchow military authorities.

"Reports have, indeed, been made by some of the foreign military observers suggesting that they found no evidence of any preparations being made by the Chinese for an attack. But as a matter of fact the military authorities at Chinchow are maintaining large forces at various points, west of Tahushan, on the Peiping-Mukden Railway, and in the adjacent territory. Reconnaissances conducted by the Japanese army have not only definitely confirmed the assurance that these forces are engaged in making preparations for war, but have also revealed the fact that their outposts are stationed along a line connecting Tienchuntai, Tsuian, Peichipao, and other points on the right bank of the River Liao, well advanced from Chinchow. It will readily be admitted that such a situation in itself constitutes a constant menace to the Japanese contingents posted along the South Manchuria Railway and elsewhere, but the danger is even greater than it seems at first sight, if the further fact is taken into consideration that the Peiping-Mukden Railway places the cities Mukden, Yingkow and Hopei within a short journey of three or four hours from Trhushan and Kuopants (which are bases of the Chinese forces).

"The bandit forces, which include a large number of officers and men discharged from the Chinese army are daily gaining strength. For instance, the number of bandits on the western flank of the main line of the South Manchuria Railway was estimated early in November at 1,300, whereas investigations conducted in early December revealed the fact that they numbered over 30,000. Moreover, they are banded together in large groups comprising several hundreds, or even thousands, each equipped with machine guns and trench mortars; so that they can no longer be dis-

tinguished from regular troops. This unmistakably points to the existence of a state of things in which the so-called bandits are directed and provided with arms by the Chinchow military authorities. According to the statistics compiled at the Japanese Consulate-General at Mukden, the cases of bandit-raids in the vicinity of the Railway Zone numbered 278 during the first ten days of November, 341 during the second ten days, 438 during the final ten days of the month, and 472 during the first ten days of December, thus reaching the astounding total of 1,529 in forty days. It is the usual strategy of these bandit-troops, when attacked by our men, to fly westward, or to take refuge on the right bank of the River Liao, where our army, anxious to avoid any collision with the Chinese regulars, has made it a point to refrain from further pursuit.

"On November 24, the Foreign Minister of China made an intimation to the Ministers at Nanking of the principal Powers to the effect that the Chinese Government, in order to avoid any collision between Chinese and Japanese forces, were prepared to withdraw their troops to points within the Great Wall. Upon a proposal to that effect being officially made on November 26, this Government signified their readiness to accept it in principle, at the same time instructing the Japanese Minister at Shanghai, and the Legation at Peiping, to open conversations on the matter with the Chinese Foreign Minister and with Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang respectively.

"The Japanese Minister in China had several conferences accordingly with the Chinese Foreign Ministers between November 30 and December 3. In the midst of the conversations, the latter withdrew the overture, and declined further negotiations. Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang, with whom our representative at Peiping carried on negotiations from December 4 onwards, either directly or through the Marshal's subordinates, expressed on December 7 his willingness to call in his Chinchow forces as a spontaneous move of withdrawal; and he has since given repeated assurances as to a speedy execution of his promise. In point of fact, however, there is no sign of any such withdrawal. On the contrary, the defences of Chinchow have since been strengthened.

"4. Accordingly, at the present moment, now almost a month subsequent to the initiation of these negotiations for the withdrawal

of the Chinchow troops, there appears no prospect of obtaining any tangible result, owing entirely to the want of good faith on the Chinese side. At the same time, the increased activity, above described, on the part of marauding bands, threatens to bring about a complete destruction of all peace and security throughout the whole extent of South Manchuria. In these circumstances, the Japanese forces have now begun a general movement with a view to starting a campaign against the bandits on more extensive scale than hitherto. It is obvious, from what has been said above, that the Japanese army, if it is to achieve anything like adequate success, will have to advance to points west of the River Liao where the bandits have their base. Certainly, the Japanese forces, in deference to the resolutions of the League Council adopted on September 30 and December 10, are not in the field against the regular Chinese forces; but in the present abnormal conditions prevailing in Manchuria, the necessities of the case compel them to continue their operations against lawless elements. This is a point on which the Representative of Japan at the recent session of the Council of the League held on December 10 made a definite declaration. So long as the Chinchow military authorities, while simulating an unaggressive attitude, continue to instigate and manipulate the movements of bandits organizations against the Japanese army as well as Japanese and other peaceful inhabitants, and so long as the officers and men of the Chinchow army mingle in groups and so render it impossible to distinguish the latter from regular troops, so long must the responsibility for the consequences of any action which may be entailed upon the Japanese army in self-defence rest entirely with the Chinese.

"5. During the course of the past month, in spite of the indignation aroused throughout the country by the behaviour of the Chinchow military authorities, and in accordance with the constant desire of the Japanese Government to abide scrupulously by the resolutions of the League Council, the operations of the army against the bandits have been restrained within comparatively narrow limits, and the Government have done everything in their power to devise means for forestalling a collision between the forces of the two countries in the course of an eventual anti-bandit campaign. The Japanese Government are confident that their prolonged forbearance and their desires

strictly to adhere to the stipulations of international engagements will not fail to command recognition by the public opinion of the world."

As finally the Chinese army withdrew from Chinchow, the United States Government sent an identic note to the Governments of Japan and China on January 7, 1932. The Note was as follows:

"With the recent military operations about Chinchow, the last remaining administrative authority of the Government of the Chinese Republic in South Manchuria, as it existed prior to September 18, 1931, has been destroyed. The American Government continues confident that the work of the neutral commission authorized by the Council of the League of Nations will facilitate an ultimate solution of the difficulties now existing between China and Japan. But in view of the present situation and its own rights and obligations therein, the American Government deems it to be its duty to notify both the Government of the Chinese Republic and the Imperial Japanese Government that it can not admit the legality of any situation de facto nor does it intend to recognize any treaty or agreement entered into between those governments, or agents thereof, which may impair the treaty rights of the United States or its citizens in China, including those which relate to the sovereignty, the independence, or the territorial and administrative integrity of the Republic of China, or to the international policy relative to China, commonly known as the open-door policy; and that it does not intend to recognize any situation, treaty or agreement which may be brought about by means contrary to the covenants and obligations of the Pact of Paris of August 27, 1928, to which treaty both China and Japan, as well as the United States, are parties."

To the above note of the United States Government, which was sent through the American Ambassador in Tokyo, the Japanese Foreign Minister replied through the American Ambassador on January 16, 1932, as follows:

"The Government of Japan were well aware that the Government of the United States could always be replied upon to do everything in their power to support Japan's efforts to secure the full and complete fulfilment in every detail of the Treaties of Washington and the Kellogg Treaty for the Outlawry of War. They are glad to receive this additional assurance of the

fact.

"As regards the question which Your Excellency specifically mentions of the policy of the so-called "Open Door," the Japanese Government, as has so often been stated, regard that policy as a cardinal feature of the politics of the Far East, and only regrets that its effectiveness is so seriously diminished by the unsettled conditions which prevail throughout China. In so far as they can secure it, the policy of the Open Door will always be maintained in Manchuria, as in China proper.

"They take note of the Statement by the Government of the United States that the latter can not admit the legality of matters which might impair the treaty rights of the United States or its citizens or which might be brought about by means contrary to the Treaty of August 27, 1918. It might be the subject of an academic doubt, whether in a given case the impropriety of means necessarily and always avoids the ends secured, but as Japan has no adopting improper means, that question does not practically arise.

"It may be added that the Treaties which relate to China must necessarily be applied with due regard to the state of affairs from time to time prevailing in this country, and that the present unsettled and destructed state of China is not what was in the contemplation of the High Contracting Parties at the time of the Treaty of Washington. It was certainly not satisfactory then but it did not display that disunion and those antagonisms which it does today. This can not affect the binding character of the stipulations of Treaties; but it may in material respects modify their application, since they must necessarily be applied with reference to the state of facts as they exist.

"My Government desire further to point out that any replacement which has occurred in the personal of the administration of Manchuria has been the necessary act of the local population. Even in cases of hostile occupation—which this was not—it is customary for the local officials to remain in the exercise of their functions. In the present case they for the most part fled or resigned; it was their own behaviour which was calculated to destroy the working of the apparatus of government. The Japanese Government can not think that the Chinese people, unlike all others, are destitute of the power of self-determination and of organizing themselves in order to secure civi-

lized conditions when deserted by the existing officials.

"While it need not be repeated that Japan entertains in Manchuria no territorial aims or ambitions, yet, as Your Excellency knows, the welfare and safety of Manchuria and its accessibility for general trade are matter of the deepest interest and of quite extraordinary importance to the Japanese people. That the American Government are always alive to the exigencies of Far Eastern questions has already been made evident on more than one occasion. At the present juncture, when the very existence of our national policy is involved, it is agreeable to be assured that the American Government are devoting in a friendly spirit such sedulous care to the correct appreciation of the situation."

The League of Nations

When the Manchurian affair broke out, the Assembly of the League of Nations was in session at Geneva. The Assembly at which the delegates of some fifty nations were gathered, received the news of the Sino-Japanese conflict and instantly took up the matter through the urgent request of China. Official informations from both Japan and China were received. As the Council considered that the immediate step it should take up was to stop the armed hostilities. On September 30, it passed a resolution setting forth principles to be followed by the belligerent parties. The principles mainly involved with the withdrawal of the Japanese troops and the responsibility of the Chinese Government for assuring the safety of lives and properties of Japanese, all of which were accepted by the two Governments in good spirit.

The Council met again on October 13 and resumed discussions on the Manchurian issue. At this meeting, Japanese Delegate, Yoshizawa explained the situation from Japan's point of view and upheld Japan's legal rights. In spite of the Japanese insistence that the League should not be influenced by non-member of the League, the Council requested the United States to send an observer to the Council. The Council then passed a tentative decision to settle the affair in accordance with the League Covenant and provisions of the Kellogg-Briand Pact.

The conditions in Manchuria, however, little improved in spite of the acceptance of the principle of the withdrawal of troops by the Japanese Government and safeguarding the lives

and properties of the Japanese by the Chinese Government. China continued to menace the safety of the Japanese in Manchuria, and it was absolutely impossible for Japan to withdraw her troops.

On November 4, Sir Eric Drummond, Secretary-General of the League, conveyed to the Japanese Government a note prepared by Mr. Briand to the effect that Japan should withdraw her troops, that China would live up to her promise to guarantee the safety of lives and property of Japanese; that the attitude of Japan was in violation of Article 10 of the League Covenant and Article 2 of the Paris Pact. The Japanese Government sent a protest, explaining that her action was solely for the maintenance of peace and order in Manchuria against the disturbing activities of the Chinese and for the protection of the Japanese subjects there.

Realizing the gravity of the situation and complexity of the matter, at the opening of the November Session of the League Council, Japanese Delegate Yoshizawa made a proposal for organizing a commission of the League to be sent to China to investigate the facts and report them in fair and impartial way. Accordingly, on December 10, 1931, the League Council decided to send a Commission of Enquiry to Manchuria, and appointed in January, 1932, Lord Lytton (Great Britain), as chairman of the Commission, and General Henri Claudel (France), Major-General Frank McCoy (U.S.A.), Dr. Albert Schnee (Germany) and Count Aldovrandi Marescotti (Italy) as its members. The Commission, accompanied by the suite, arrived in Tokyo on February 29, and after investigation, the party went to Shanghai, subsequently proceeding to Manchuria on April 20.

Prior to this, the Manchoukuo Government was organized on March 2nd with Pu-I (former Emperor of China) as Chief Executive and at the same time the independence of Manchuria was declared in the name of the newly organized Government, the name Manchoukuo being adopted for the newly created state. Then on March 18, Japan formally recognized the independence of Manchuria and the establishment of the new State Manchoukuo. The same day a protocol between Japan and Manchoukuo was signed and Japan shouldered upon herself the responsibility of co-operating with the Manchoukuo army in the task of assuring the national defence of Manchoukuo in accordance

with the provisions of the said protocol.

The League Commission of Enquiry issued the famous Lytton Report in October, 1932. Japan was not satisfied with the report, which from Japan's point of view, was one-sided and partial. For instance, the suggestion recognizing the Chinese sovereignty over Manchoukuo could never be accepted by neither Japan nor Manchoukuo.

Foreign Minister Count Yasuya Uchida, realizing the necessity of defending Japan's rights against certain phrases of the Lytton Report, added in October, Mr. Yosuke Matsuoka, a Seiyukai M.P. and formerly Vice-President of the South Manchuria Railway Company, to the list of Japanese delegates to the League of Nations, which included Dr. H. Nagaoka, Tsuneo Matsudaira, Naotake Sato, Isaburo Yoshida and respectively ambassadors to France, England, Belgium and Turkey. The four ambassadors, recognizing Matsuoka to be an authority on Manchurian and Mongolian problems, assigned to him the position of chief delegate.

Japan's Withdrawal from the League

Since the opening of the League Conference at Geneva on December 1, 1932, up to the spring of 1933, Japanese delegates did their utmost in clearing up all misunderstandings, suspicions, prejudice and animosity on the part of the world powers as to Japan's true intentions vis-a-vis Manchuria. On the stage of Geneva, Japan played a very characteristic role. Never tired of expounding what Japan was convinced as right and assuming very serene and pacific attitude throughout, Yosuke Matsuoka and other Japanese delegates did their best to induce the League to reconsider the matter by seeing things from Japan's standpoint. Unfortunately, however, due to misunderstanding and misconceptions the League made no concession and Japan was finally compelled to withdraw from the League of which she was one of the most faithful members and co-operators from the beginning and as such she had done her utmost in espousing the cause of its mission during the past thirteen years. However, Japan entertains no ill-feeling toward the League nor to any of its member states or other countries outside the League. With an earnest hope that some day the misunderstanding will be cleared, Japan now stands in isolation from the international ties of the League, yet she is rest content that she had firmly adhered to what she believed right.

Immediately following Japan's decision on her withdrawal from the League of Nations which was duly notified to the League Council the Japanese Government issued on March 27th (1933) a statement clarifying Japan's standpoint and reason for her withdrawal from the League. Together with the statement was issued the same day an Imperial Rescript addressed to the Nation concerning the Manchurian controversy in the League of Nations and Japan's determination on the withdrawal from the League. The text of the Imperial Rescript follows:—

Imperial Rescript

"When the League of Nations came into being upon the restoration of a general peace, Our Imperial father was pleased to order the entry of Our Empire thereto; and We, in Our turn, have labored assiduously to fulfil the high purpose of the late Emperor. It is thus that Our Empire has for these thirteen years past extended consistently its co-operation to the League.

"Now Manchoukuo having of late been found, Our Empire deems it essential to respect the independence of the new State and to encourage its healthy development, in order that the sources of evil in the Far East may be eradicated and an enduring peace thereby established. Unhappily, there exists between Our Empire and the League of Nations a wide divergence of views in this regard, and it has devolved upon Us to cause Our government to take, upon mature deliberations, the necessary steps for the withdrawal of Our Empire from the League.

"However, the advancement of international peace is what as evermore We desire, and Our attitude toward enterprises of peace shall sustain no change. By quitting the League and embarking on a course of its own, Our Empire does not mean that it will stand aloof in the Extreme Orient nor that it will isolate itself thereby from the fraternity of nations. It is Our desire to promote mutual confidence between Our Empire and all the other Powers and to make known the justice of its cause throughout the world.

"Every country is overtaken today by emergencies of an unprecedented magnitude. Our Empire itself is confronted by a situation fraught with momentous possibilities. It is indeed an hour that calls for an intensification of efforts on the part of Our entire nation. We command that all public servants, whether civil

or military, shall faithfully perform each his appointed duty, and that all private citizens shall pursue their wonted tasks with diligence. Stray not, in advancing, from the path of rectitude; and in action, embrace always the golden mean. Strive to meet the present situation with a united will, and with courage and resolution. So may ye carry forward the glorious work bequeathed by Our Grandsire and contribute to the prosperity and well-being of mankind."

Simultaneously with the aforementioned Imperial Rescript the Japanese Government issued the following statement concerning Japan's withdrawal from the League of Nations:—

"The Japanese Government believe that the national policy of Japan, which has for its aim to insure the peace of the Orient and thereby to contribute to the cause of peace throughout the world, is identical in spirit with the mission of the League of Nations, which is to achieve international peace and security. It has always been with pleasure, therefore, that this country has for thirteen years past, as an original Member of the League, and a permanent Member of its Council, extended a full measure of co-operation with her fellow-Members towards the attainment of its high purpose. It is indeed a matter of historical fact that Japan has continuously participated in the various activities of the League with a zeal not inferior to that exhibited by any other nation. At the same time, it is and has always been the conviction of the Japanese Government that in order to render possible the maintenance of peace in various regions of the world, it is necessary in existing circumstances to allow the operation of the Covenant of the League to vary in accordance with the actual conditions prevailing in each of those regions. Only by acting on this just and equitable principle can the League fulfil its mission and increase its influence.

"Acting on this conviction, the Japanese Government, ever since the Sino-Japanese dispute was, in September, 1931, submitted to the League, have, at meetings of the League and on other occasions, continually set forward a consistent view. This was, that if the League was to settle the issue fairly and equitably, and to make a real contribution to the promotion of peace in the Orient, and thus enhance its prestige, it should acquire a complete grasp of the actual conditions in this quarter of the globe

and apply the Covenant of the League in accordance with these conditions. They have repeatedly emphasized and insisted upon the absolute necessity of taking into consideration the fact that China is not an organized State,—that its internal conditions and external relations are characterized by extreme confusion and complexity, and by many abnormal and exceptional features,—and that, accordingly, the general principles and usages of International Law which govern the ordinary relations between nations are found to be considerably modified in their operation so far as China is concerned, resulting in quite abnormal and unique international practices which prevail in that country.

"However, the majority of the Members of the League evinced in the course of its deliberations during the past seventeen months a failure either to grasp these realities or else to face them and take them into proper account. Moreover, it has frequently been made manifest in these deliberations that there exist serious differences of opinion between Japan and these Powers concerning the application and even the interpretation of various international engagements and obligations including the Covenant of the League and the principles of International Law. As a result, the Report adopted by the Assembly at the special session of 24 February last, entirely misapprehending the spirit of Japan, pervaded as it is by no other desire than the maintenance of peace in the Orient, contains gross errors both in the ascertainment of facts and in the conclusions deduced. In asserting that the action of the Japanese army at the time of the Incident of 18 September and subsequently did not fall within the just limits of self-defence, the Report assigned no reasons and came to an arbitrary conclusion, and in ignoring alike the state of tension which preceded, and the various aggravations which succeeded, the Incident—for all of which the full responsibility is incumbent upon China—the Report creates a source of fresh conflict in the political arena of the Orient. By refusing to acknowledge the actual circumstances that led to the foundation of Manchoukuo, and by attempting to challenge the position taken up by Japan in recognizing the new State, it cuts away the ground for the stabilization of the Far Eastern situation. Nor can the terms laid down in its recommendations—as was fully explained in the Statement issued by this Government on 25 February last

—ever be of any possible service in securing enduring peace in these regions.

"The conclusion must be that in seeking a solution of the question the majority of the League have attached greater importance to upholding inapplicable formulæ than to the real task of assuring peace, and higher value to the vindication of academic theses than to the eradication of the sources of future conflict. For these reasons, and because of the profound differences of opinion existing between Japan and the majority of the League in their interpretation of the Covenant and of other treaties, the Japanese Government have been led to realize the existence of an irreconcilable divergence of views, dividing Japan and the League on policies of peace, and especially as regards the fundamental principles to be followed in the establishment of a durable peace in the Far East. The Japanese Government, believing that in these circumstances there remains no room for further co-operation, hereby give notice, in accordance with the provisions of Article I, Paragraph 3, of the Covenant, of the intention of Japan to withdraw from the League of Nations."

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Minister—(absent)
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Attaches:—A. Oye, H. Yamaguchi
- Switzerland** (95, Thunstrasse, Berne, Suisse)
Minister—Shichitaro Yata
Secretaries:—(3rd) Y. Ando, S. Shibusawa, S. Kawamura
- Japanese Office for International Conference** (Paris, France)
Director—Setsuzo Sawada
Deputy Director—Masayuki Yokoyama
Secretary—Yutaka Tsuchida
Secretary—Kumao Nishimura
- Japanese Consulates-General Abroad**
- London** (1, Broad Street Place, Finsbury Circus, London, E.C. 2, England)
Consul-General—Shinjiro Matsuyama; Vice-Consul—I. Asahi
- Hamburg** (Hamburg, Alsterdamm 39, Europa, Haus, Deutschland)
Acting Consul-General—Katsumi Ono
- Vladivostok** (24, Pekinskaya Ulitsa, Vladivostok, U.S.S.R.)
Consul-General—Tametaro Yamaguchi
- Alexandrovsk** (3, Ulitsa Imeni Dzerzinskavo, Alexandrovsk, Sakhalim)
Consul-General—Seigo Sasaki
- Habarovsk** (54, Komsomolskaya Ulitsa, Habarovsk, U.S.S.R.)
Vice-Consul—Yukio Koyanagi
- Harbin** (Harbin, Kirin, Manchuria)
Consul-General—Morito Morishima; Consul—Kaneyuki Akiyama; Vice-Consul—Hanroku Nagaoka
- Hsinking** (Hsinking, Kirin, Manchuria)
Consul-General—Seiji Yoshizawa; Consuls—Shigenori Tashiro, S. Hanawa; Vice-Consul—Takayoshi.
- Kirin**
Consuls—Masahei Morioka (Acting Consul-General), Toshifusa Fujimura
- Chientao**
Consul-General—Kiyoshi Nagai; Consuls—Isamu Shoji, Seiji Takiyama; Vice-Consul—Hitoshi Sugiura
- Mukden**
Consul-General—Teruo Hachiya; Consuls—G. Masui, W. Otani; Vice-Consuls—Kan Kure, Koichi Nakano, Wasaburo Otani, S. Teraoka
- Tientsin**
Consul-General—Sho Kurihara; Consuls—Toshitsugu Koizumi, Sotaro Tanaka, Otoji Saito

Tsingtao

Consul-General—I. Itane; Consuls—Kin-ichi Hori, Nariyuki Murakami; Vice-Consuls—Tsuru Kuwabara, Fukumatsu Ikeda, Tojiro Mogi, G. Iogi

Tsinan

Consul-General—Koichi Nishida; Vice-Consuls—Onari Yoshimura, T. Fukushi

Shanghai

Consul-General—Itaro Ishii; Consuls—Yazo Kokietsu, Chikayuki Akagi, Katsuo Okazaki, Sadao Iguchi, Vis. Sei-ichi Motonu, Manabu Arino, Kyuichi Shimokawa, Keishi Saeki, Arata Sugihara, Hokoji Otozu; Vice-Consuls—Tasuke Saeki, Genkichi Hasegawa

Nanking

Consul-General—Shinrokuro Hidaka; Vice-Consul—Saijiro Shimada

Hankow

Consul—Hiroshi Ashino (Acting Consul-General)—Fumio Osaki, Suyehiko Takai, Tokinosuke Takeuchi, Takashi Taniguchi

Fuchou

Consul-General—Waro Moriya

Canton

Consul-General—Shigeru Kawagoye; Consul—Tan-ichiro Yoshida (Acting Consul-General); Vice-Consul—Senpachi Tanaka

Hongkong

Consul—Hiroshi Ashino (Acting Consul-General); Vice-Consul—Tetsujiro Kohri.

Hanoi (76, Boulevard Carnot, Hanoi, Tonkin, Indochine)

Consul-General—Yasukichi Nagata

Singapore (Union Bldg., Colleyer Quay, Singapore, Straits-Settlement)

Consul-General—Teiji Tamura

Manila (G. de Les Reyes Bldg., Plaze, Cervantes, Manila, P.I.)

Consul-General—Atsushi Kimura; Vice-Consul—Taro Kasahara

Batavia (3, Gang Scott, Batavia, Java)

Consul-General—Saichiro Koshida; Vice-Consul—Tan-un Kotani

Calcutta (Royal Insurance Bldg., Dalhousie Sq., Calcutta, India)

Consul-General—Tetsuichiro Miyake; Consul—Meiji Hara; Vice-Consuls—Shizuka Mochizuki, Michizo Ono

Alexandria (7, Nebe Daniel, Alexandrie, Egypte)

Consul-General—Masamoto Kitada; Vice-Consul—Yoshiro Yamashita

Sydney (17, Castlereagh St., Sydney, New South Wales, Australia)

Consul-General—Kuramatsu Murai; Vice-Consul—Tsuneo Hattori

Honolulu (1742, Nuuanu Av., Honolulu, Hawaii)

Consul-General—Ken-ichi Okada; Vice-Consuls—Ichitaro Shibata, Tsuneshiro Yamazaki, Motonosuke Yonekawa

San Francisco (22, Battery St., San Francisco, Cal., U.S.A.)

Consul-General—Kaname Wakasugi; Shu Tomii; Vice-Consul—Kogyo Yonegaki

New York (90, Broad St., New York City, N.Y., U.S.A.)

Consul-General—Kensuke Horiuchi; Consuls—Sadao Iguchi, Nobuo Fujimura; Vice-Consul—Toyaji Inouye

Mexico (c/o Japanese Legation, Mexico)

Vice-Consul—Yoriyoshi Saida

San Paulo (83, Av. Bringadeiro Luiz Antonio, San Paulo, Brazil)

Consul-General—Iwataro Uchiyama; Consul—Mitsuo Hamaguchi; Vice-Consul—Tetsuo Umimoto

Ribeirao Preto Branch (Rua General Osorio 112, Ribeirao Preto, Brazil)

Vice-Consul—Ren Naruse

Santos branch (13, Rua D. Pedro, Santos, Brazil)

Vice-Consul—Sakae Nanjo

Japanese Consulates Abroad

	Consuls
Liverpool, England	M. Noda
Lyons, France	(V.) Y. Takazawa
Marseilles, France	U. Munemura
Milan, Italy	S. Inouye
Stockholm, Sweden	S. Kato
Odessa, U.S.S.R.	B. Tanaka
Blagovestchensk, U.S.S.R.	(V.) S. Toyohara
Novosibirsk, U.S.S.R.	(V.) J. Otani
Petropavrovsk, U.S.S.R.	S. Ogata
Manjuli, Manchoukuo	(V.) J. Otani
	(V.) K. Izumi
Hairar, Manchoukuo	Yonaiyama
Tsitsihar, Manchoukuo	G. Uchida
Chenchiatung, Manchoukuo	Y. Owaku
	(V.) K. Ishizaka

Liaoyang, Manchoukuo (V.) T. Yamazaki

Antung, Manchoukuo { I. Okamoto
(V.) U. Nakatsu

Yingkow, Manchoukuo M. Arakawa

Chinchow, Manchoukuo (V.) R. Goto

Chiefeng, Manchoukuo { C. Seino
(V.) N. Nakane

Chefoo, China S. Yamazaki

Suchou, China { E. Iwasaki
S. Kawanami

Wuhu, China H. Shibasaki

Kiukiang, China N. Nishida (in charge)

Ichang, China (V.) M. Urakawa

Changsha, China Y. Kasuya

Amoy, China { T. Tsukamoto
S. Takeuchi

Swatow, China C. Tonegi (in charge)

Saigon, Indo China (V.) K. Ito

Davao, Philippines (V.) T. Kaneko

Sourabaya, Java { J. Aneha
N. Mizuta

Medan, Sumatra { K. Naito
(V.) A. Saito

Bangkok, Siam { T. Takatsu
(V.) S. Kase

Rangoon, French Indo-China K. Yuya (in charge)

Bombay, India { S. Kurihara
U. Sato

Port Said, Egypt (V.) C. Harada

Mombassa, East Africa S. Kuga

Cape Town, British South Africa (V.) C. Shigegaki

Los Angeles, U.S.A. T. Sato

Portland, U.S.A. T. Nakamura

Seattle, U.S.A. K. Uchiyama

Chicago, U.S.A. Y. Muto

New Orleans, U.S.A. (V.) Y. Sato

Vancouver, Canada { Y. Ishii
(V.) G. Nonomura

Ottawa, Canada (V.) H. Iwanaga

Havana, Cuba C. Watanabe

Panama T. Wakabayashi

Mazatlan Y. Otani

Lima, Peru { K. Kasuga
(V.) M. Yodogawa

Buenos Aires, Argentina { C. Miyakoshi
(V.) M. Shibasaki

Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (V.) H. Hayao

Bauru, Brazil K. Ito

(V.)—Vice-Consul.

Japanese Honorary Consuls Abroad

Albania	
Tirana	Alexandre Hobdari
Austria	
Vienna	Hans Carl Zimmermann
Belgium	
Liege	Armand Baar Magis

Bolivia

Labas* Victor Munoz Reyes (C.G.)

Trinidad Samuel Avila Alvarado

Brazil

Manaos Aluysio de Araujo

Chile

Iquique Don Horacio Mujica

Columbia

Bogota Don Luis Carlos Corral

Czechoslovakia

Braha Hans Reiser

Denmark

Copenhagen Henrik Gether

Ecuador

Guayakil Pedro V. Miller

France

Algier Pierre Marie Auguste Ferrat

Bordeaux Edouard G. Faure

Beylute Edouard Soubret

le Havre Charles Francis Langstaff

Tunis Jules Charles Prat

Dankirk Jean Philippe Marie Sebaux

Germany

Aachen Wilhelm Anton Lieven

Bremen F.H. Noltinius

Koln Heinrich Maus

Leipzig Alfred Selter

Munchen Edouard Schussel

Stettin Arthur Kunstmann

Great Britain

Adelaide (Australia) Frank Lancelot Parsons

Auckland (New Zealand) A.B. Robertson

Brisbane (Australia) Frederic Ewen Loxton

Broome (") Arthur Male

Cardiff Ronald Howard Evans

Dublin A.M. Wealtherrill

Durban William Robert Wright

Gibraltar W.H. Smith

Glasgow A. Scott Younger

Manchester William Peer Groves

Melbourne (Australia) { P.J. Black
David York Syme (V.C.)

Middlesborough Alfred William Bulmer

Valetta Robert Howard

Wellington (New Zealand) Norris Stephen Falla

Greece

Salonika Edwin N

Hungary

Budapest Hollos Odon

Italy		Peru	
Genoa.....	Lionel Canali	Trujillo	Carlos Larco Herrera
Livorno.....	Comto Giorgio de Chayes	Spain	
Naples.....	Marques de Compolattro, Charles Emile Capomazza	Barcelona	Georges Delgado Lauger
Venice	Giuseppe Fujinato	Sweden	
Jugoslavia		Gothenburg	Carl Ossian Kjellberg
Belgrade	Milutin Stanojevitch	Switzerland	
Luxemburg		Geneva.....	Alfred Kern
Luxemburg.....	Jean Pierre Arendet	Zurich.....	Ernest Voegeli
Morocco		U.S.A.	
Casa Blanca.....	Albert Emile Klaus	Boston	Courtenay Croker
Netherlands		Philadelphia	J. Franklin McFadden
Rotterdam.....	Hendrik Pieter Van Vliet	Galveston.....	J. H. Langben
Amsterdam	J.H.L.J. Baron Sweerts de Landas Wyborgh	Mobile	Henry H. Clarke
Norway		San Juan	Miguel Such
Oslo.....	Arthur Hervich Methiesen	Venezuela	
Portugal		Caracas	Santiago Sosa Gonzales
Lisbon*.....	Carlos Gomes (C.G.)		

* Consulate-General; (C.C.) Consul-General; (V.C.) Vice-Consul.

CHAPTER IX NATIONAL DEFENCE

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Relative Position of Army and Navy

Till the time of the Russo-Japanese war (1904-05) the Army was dominant and the Navy secondary in the scheme of national defence. In the organization of the Imperial Headquarters on the occasion of the Japan-China war, for instance, the Chief of the General Staff, a General in the Army, controlled for strategical reasons the two wings of national defence, though they had been distinctly separated in 1893. In the Imperial Headquarters organized at the time of the Russo-Japanese war, the Chiefs of the two services were for the first time placed on equal status as to power, and were placed under the direct control of the Emperor. Since then, so far as expansion is concerned, the Navy has surpassed the Army in the amount voted by the Imperial Diet.

National Defence Program

Subsequent to the Russo-Japanese war Prince Yamagata memorialized the Throne, suggesting that the Army should be increased to twenty-five Divisions in the future, namely in the first term to nineteen Divisions and in the second term to twenty-five divisions, while the Navy should be expanded to two Squadrons, each consisting of at least eight superior battleships, and of some cruiser squadrons. The project was sanctioned by the Emperor Meiji, and the then Saionji Cabinet promised that the scheme would be carried out as far as the State finances allowed. The national defence program has, however, been modified as the result of the Washington Conference as described elsewhere in the present chapter.

Board of Marshals and Fleet Admirals The Board of Marshals and Fleet Admirals

was created in 1898 as the highest advisory body on military and naval matters to the Emperor. The present members are:

Fleet Admiral Count Togo; H.I.H. Marshal Prince Kan-in; Marshal Viscount Uyehara; H.I.H. Fleet Admiral Prince Fushimi; H.I.H. Marshal Prince Nashimoto.

The Supreme War Council

This is a special war office created in 1887 and may be regarded as the Emperor's advisers and staff officers on all important matters pertaining to war. The members consist of Marshals, Fleet Admirals, Ministers of the Army and the Navy, Chiefs of the General Staff Office and the Naval Staff Board, all as ex-officio members, and also those specially nominated by the Emperor. At present the specially nominated members of the Council are:—

Adm. K. Kato; Adm. Baron K. Abo; Gen. J. Minami; Adm. E. Yamamoto; Gen. T. Watanabe; Gen. S. Hayashi; Gen. S. Masaki; Gen. N. Abe.

The Court-Martial Law

The Court-Martial Law revised in 1921 and in force since April, 1922, provides that (1) all offences committed by officers and men to be tried in public, (2) and the accused to be allowed benefit of counsel in their defence. A way is open for appeal.

There are in the Army eight court-martials, i.e. the High, the Divisional and six other temporary ones, while the Navy has the High, the Tokyo, the Admiralty and four other temporary ones. In both services the court-martial is composed of judges (military or naval officers), law officers (civil) and clerks, the number of these varying according to the nature of the court.

The Army Expenditure

Year	Ordinary (¥1,000)	Extraordinary (¥1,000)	Total (¥1,000)	%
1893 (Before Sino-Japanese war)	12,420	2,301	14,721	17.40
1896 (After Sino-Japanese war)	32,614	30,629	53,243	32.02
1903 (Before Russo-Japanese war)	39,355	7,529	46,884	18.78

Year	Ordinary (¥1,000)	Extraordinary (¥1,000)	Total (¥1,000)	%
1906 (After Russo-Japanese war).....	37,835	30,045	67,870	14.65
1912	80,175	23,950	104,125	17.52
1917	88,344	35,093	123,437	16.78
1923	176,224	47,704	223,927	14.89
1924	179,331	27,403	206,734	12.73
1925	170,761	44,044	214,805	14.09
1926	167,561	29,380	199,941	12.47
1927	174,190	43,913	218,104	12.35
1928	167,620	81,486	249,106	13.73
1929	178,899	48,356	227,255	13.09
1930	174,546	26,278	200,824	12.89
1931	163,680	63,808	227,488	15.40
1932	166,316	195,317	361,633	18.60

N.B.—Figures for 1932 are Budget estimates up to the end of July; those for 1931 are actual account, others being settled account.

The Navy Expenditure

Year	Ordinary (¥1,000)	Extraordinary (¥1,000)	Total (¥1,000)	%
1893 (Before Sino-Japanese war).....	5,141	2,960	8,101	9.58
1896 (After Sino-Japanese war).....	7,351	12,655	20,006	10.73
1903 (Before Russo-Japanese war).....	21,991	14,588	36,118	14.47
1906 (After Russo-Japanese war).....	27,991	33,885	61,876	13.36
1912	41,534	53,952	95,486	10.68
1917	48,528	113,906	162,434	22.10
1925	122,242	106,761	229,003	15.02
1926	127,428	109,879	237,307	15.03
1927	136,545	136,992	273,537	15.49
1928	143,026	125,106	268,132	14.77
1929	147,649	120,017	267,665	15.41
1930	146,888	95,147	242,035	15.54
1931	138,914	88,215	227,129	15.38
1932	140,767	156,828	297,595	15.31

N.B.—Figures for 1932 are Budget estimates up to the end of July; those for 1931 are actual account, others being settled account.

SECTION I. THE ARMY

Prefatory Remarks

For about seven centuries till the abolition of feudalism in 1868, military service was an exclusive privilege of samurai class, but with the advent of the resuscitated Imperial regime (1868) it was converted into a system of conscription service to which sons and brothers of all classes of people are liable on reaching majority. Japan thus adopted the Western system, namely that of a nation in arms. Of the generals who rendered distinguished service in the task of thus organizing the military system of Japan, the names of the late Marshals Yamagata and Oyama and the late General Prince Katsura stand out prominent. Marshal Yamagata carried out in 1884 minute investigations into the military systems of the leading Powers

of Europe. As a result of his memorable tour of inspection to Europe, the military organization of the country was remodelled on the Prussian system. The Marshal's suite contained the best talents of the time so far as military affairs were concerned and included the late General Kawakami, Chief of the General Staff, and the late Prince Katsura. It was by General Kawakami, who by the way died soon after the close of the Japan-China war in which he played the most distinguished part, that the staff service of the country was laid on the present basis of perfection and efficiency. On the other hand General Katsura did much to improve the administrative side of the service. In acclimatizing the German method Japan owed much to the late General Meckel of the Prussian army

who came to this country in 1885 as adviser to the Japanese army and took under his tutelage most of our distinguished generals.

1. CONSCRIPTION

The conscription system, first elaborated in 1873 and lastly revised in 1927, requires all able-bodied Japanese males of from full 17 to 40 years old to respond to the nation's call. In practice, that fundamental principle has never been put in force, and even on such an extraordinary occasion as that of the 1904-5 War the call was limited to a portion of those on the second reserve.

The service is divided as follows:—*Jobi hei-eki* (standing army) consisting of *gen-eki* (active service) and *yobi-eki* (1st reserve service); *kobi hei-eki* (2nd reserve service); *hoju hei-eki* (territorial army service); *kokumin hei-eki* (national army service). The youths at full 20 years of age are subject to examination for conscription. Those who pass it as Class I are enrolled by lottery in the active service which extends 2 years (3 years in the navy) or 1st or 2nd territorial army service. Lads who finish the active service are placed on the 1st reserve list for 5 years and 4 months (4 years in the navy) at the end of which they are transferred to the 2nd reserve for 10 years (5 years in the navy), and finally, after 17 years and 4 months (12 years in the navy) of service, on the national army. Those who have gone through the period of territorial army service also pass into the national army. Youths who are classed as II are not recruited, but placed on the national army service.

Exemption and Postponement.—Those who are classed as III are exempted from service, while Class IV lads are to be examined again the following year and, if they remain in the same class after repeated examinations, are exempted. Criminals and the only supporters of the family have their enlistment put off. The postponement of enlistment is allowed in favor of lads studying at schools, Government or private, which are recognized to be of a status at least equal to that of Middle Schools till they reach 27 years of age according to the length of the term of schools they attend. Such boys are subject to conscription examination when they cease to attend schools. This postponement is also applicable to those staying abroad except in near Asiatic countries, to

the age of 37. On the other hand, a student living within the eligible limit is enrolled at once in the service without the favor of chance of exemption from active service incidental to the drawing of lots, as soon as he leaves a school placed under the postponement clause, or when he reaches the above age.

Short Term Active Service.—Under the new conscription law in force since Dec. 1927, the term of active service of those conscripts who finished the course of the *Seinen Kunren-sho* or Young Men's Training Institutes (also see under Chapter on Education) has been reduced to 18 months, while that of the graduates of normal schools has been shortened to 5 months. The system of this short term active service has also been adopted in the Navy with the object of spreading and popularizing the maritime knowledge. The term of active service for the students of middle schools and higher grade schools who underwent the course of military training at schools has been reduced to 12 months for the graduates of middle grade schools and 10 months for those of higher grade schools. The former system of one year volunteers was discontinued after Nov. 30, 1927.

While, under the old system the students matriculating in schools were exempted from occasional calls merely, the conscription examination of those students is to be postponed under the new measure till they reach the age of full 27 years.

Examination for Conscription.—Lads of conscript age are classified into six grades as regards their physical examination, as, A, B1, B2, C, D, and E, the respective figures in the 1930 and 1931 examinations being as follows:—

	1930	1931
Total Number	595,505	619,146
A Grade.....	174,482	178,355
B-1 Grade.....	69,275	72,617
B-2 Grade.....	121,691	124,942
C Grade.....	178,863	200,263
D Grade.....	40,986	42,245
E Grade.....	934	724

Statistics on stature and weight ascertained through physical examination for three years ending 1931 make the following showing:—

Stature

Year	Over 1.75 m.	Over 1.70	Over 1.65	Over 1.60	Over 1.55	Over 1.50	Over 1.45	Under 1.40	Dis-qualified	Aver. stature
1929.....	2,295	18,478	81,177	179,611	184,570	90,995	21,501	3,868	3,314	1,602
1930.....	2,612	19,969	84,311	184,612	185,879	89,629	21,232	3,917	3,344	1,598
1931.....	2,899	21,762	90,109	192,904	190,725	92,283	21,206	3,585	3,673	1,600

Average Weight (Kg.)

Year	Over 1.75 m.	Over 1.70	Over 1.65	Over 1.60	Over 1.55	Over 1.50	Over 1.45	Under 1.40	Average
1929.....	64,158	60,253	57,432	54,566	51,332	48,405	45,103	39,803	52,823
1930.....	63,585	60,048	57,221	54,371	51,409	48,283	44,661	39,528	52,727
1931.....	63,695	60,238	57,443	54,574	51,620	48,476	45,210	39,822	53,007

The ratio of illiteracy, which stood at 4.28 per cent in 1910, fell to 2.17 in '15, 0.88 in '25, 0.48 in '30, further dropping to 0.42 in 1932.

Conscripts and Leave of Absence

In order to meet the convenience of the families of conscripts the military authorities adopted in 1919 a new measure, according to which conscripts may return home to assist the business of their families at convenient period, staying for the number of days representing their leave, but in no case for more than a fortnight.

2. PERSONNEL OF ACTIVE SERVICE

Officers.—Infantry, cavalry, artillery, engineer, commissariat and aviation officers are appointed from among cadets trained at the Military Cadets' School, or non-commissioned officers. Technical officers, surgeons and veterinary surgeons are promoted from among probational officers who must be graduates of universities and technical or medical schools, while paymasters are trained at the Paymasters' School. Officers can also volunteer for the gendarmerie when they are put to training at the Gendarmerie Training Institute.

Warrant officers.—These are special sergeant-majors.

Non-Commissioned officers.—These comprise sergeant-majors, sergeants and corporals, all to be promoted from the ranks of the privates.

Privates.—These are classified into senior (jotohei), 1st (ittohei) and 2nd (nitohei) classes.

Promotion and Age-Limit of Officers

Rules for promotion of military officers in service in time of peace are as follows, this limit being reduced to ½ in time of war:

1 year from Sub-Lieutenant to Lieutenant, 2 years from Lieutenant to Captain, 4 years to Major, 2 years to Lieutenant-Colonel, 2 years each to Colonel and next to Major-General, 3 years to Lieutenant-General. The promotion to full General and next to Marshal is left to the will of the Emperor.

Age-limit in the active service is—44 for Sub-Lieutenant and Lieutenant, 48 for Captain, 50 for Major, 53 for Lieutenant-Colonel, 55 for Colonel, 58 for Major-General, 62 for Lieutenant-General, 65 for General and no limit for Marshal.

Opens the Door of the Service

To induce non-commissioned officers to remain in the service, the military authorities devised in 1920 a special system by which the warrant officer of capability may be promoted to a special lieutenant after a short education, to be elevated according to merit to a higher post, even to the supreme Marshalship. On the other hand, to reinforce the Army with erudite officers, the graduates of universities in science or engineering can now be appointed by the Appointment Regulations of Technical Officers gazetted in August 1919, to Engineer or Artillery Lieutenants after 6 months' cadetship, while those graduated from the medical and agricultural colleges are likewise qualified to become Surgeon and Veterinary Lieutenants respectively.

No. of Officers on Active List

	1930
Gen. to Maj-Gen. and ranking officers.....	220
Col. to Maj. and ranking officers.....	3,747
Capt. to Sub-Lieut. and ranking officers...	9,823
Non-commissioned officers.....	3,531
Total.....	17,321
Do. for 1929.....	17,303
Do. for 1928.....	17,234

3. ARMY EDUCATION

Military education is under the control of the Military Education Superintendence Board. The principal institutions for military education are:—(1) The Military Preparatory School at Tokyo educates candidates aspiring to become officers; (2) The Military Cadets' School situated at Tokyo receives the graduates of the Preparatory School and other candidates; (3) The Military Staff College gives the finishing polish to lieutenants and captains of promising ability and gives necessary training so as to qualify them to become staff officers. The third is under direct control of the General Staff Office. For benefit of those aspiring to become non-commissioned officers, Military Training Schools were established at Sendai, Toyohashi and Kumamoto in 1927.

Besides the above there are various schools to give special education connected with Army. These are the Artillery and Engineering School for 2nd lieutenants of the respective corps to receive necessary training; (2) the Infantry School to instruct captains and lieutenants in tactics, etc.; (3) the Toyama Military School to give officers and non-commissioned officers two to seven months' training in gymnastics and fencing, and also to train the Military Band; (4) the Cavalry School to give eleven months' training to officers and non-commissioned officers of cavalry; (5) the Heavy Artillery School; (6) Field Artillery School; (7) Gunnery Mechanic School; (8) Paymasters School; (9) Surgery School; (10) Veterinary Surgery School; (11) the Engineering School for training officers and non-commissioned officers in military engineering; (12) the Military Communications School; (13) the Military Motor Car School; (14) Military Aviation schools (4); (15) the Gendarmerie Training Institute.

Latest Statistics

(at the end of Sept. 1932)

	Staff	Students	*Graduates
Staff College.....	97	150	51
Cadets' School.....	59	1,637	445
Art. & Eng. School.....	50	123	122
Infantry School.....	38	175	175
Toyama School.....	53	150	140
Cavalry School.....	—	—	—
Field Art. School.....	87	—	87
Heavy Art. School.....	40	143	100

Army Eng. School.....	—	—	—
Mil. Aviation Schools (4).....	94	—	—
Mil. Motor Car School.....	—	—	—
Mil. Communications School..	23	36	—
Mil. Preparatory School.....	29	170	50
Mil. Mechanical School.....	64	230	115
Paymasters School.....	25	68	47
Surgery School.....	—	—	—
Vet. Surgery School.....	18	46	58
Mil. Training School (3).....	156	1,350	4,673
Gendarmerie Training School	41	75	74
Narashino School (est. 1933)...	—	—	—

* At the end of Mar. 1931.

4. DEVELOPMENT & REORGANIZATION OF SPECIAL CORPS

As a result of actual experience learned in the 1904-05 war and the World War, special corps has been expanded or reorganized. The development is especially conspicuous in (1) Heavy Artillery, (2) Field and Mountain Artillery, (3) Machine Gun Companies, (4) Communication Corps, (5) Flying Corps, etc.

Heavy Artillery.—This is the new term adopted for the Fortress Artillery in the old system, stationed at the forts existing at various strategic points, as the Bay of Tokyo, Shimonoeki, and others. The system of the former Fortress Artillery having been exclusively defensive and therefore unsuited for aggressive operations, thorough reform was introduced to the system to bring it up to date, the strength of the artillery corps stationed at various places being unified at the same time. Further to strengthen the efficiency and mobile power of the Heavy Artillery Corps, lighter guns were attached, to be made use of when quick work is required. The Heavy Artillery Corps are distributed as follows:—

Regiments:—Yokosuka; Miyama; Shimonoeki.

Battalions:—Hakodate; Maizuru; Keichi; Sasebo; Masan; Ryojun; Keelung; Mako.

Field Artillery and Mountain Artillery.—(A) A field artillery regiment, composed of three battalions, is attached to each Army Division with the exception of the 9th and 11th Divisions, for each of which a mountain artillery regiment is provided.

(B) Besides there are four brigades of field heavy artillery, each of two regiments strength, distributed as follows:—

Stature

Year	Over 1.75 m.	Over 1.70	Over 1.65	Over 1.60	Over 1.55	Over 1.50	Over 1.45	Under 1.40	Dis-qualified	Aver. stature
1929.....	2,295	18,478	81,177	179,611	184,570	90,995	21,501	3,868	3,314	1,602
1930.....	2,612	19,969	84,311	184,612	185,879	89,629	21,232	3,917	3,344	1,598
1931.....	2,899	21,762	90,109	192,904	190,725	92,283	21,206	3,585	3,673	1,600

Average Weight (Kg.)

Year	Over 1.75 m.	Over 1.70	Over 1.65	Over 1.60	Over 1.55	Over 1.50	Over 1.45	Under 1.40	Average
1929.....	64,158	60,253	57,432	54,566	51,332	48,405	45,103	39,803	52,823
1930.....	63,585	60,048	57,221	54,371	51,409	48,283	44,661	39,528	52,727
1931.....	63,695	60,238	57,443	54,574	51,620	48,476	45,210	39,822	53,007

The ratio of illiteracy, which stood at 4.28 per cent in 1910, fell to 2.17 in '15, 0.88 in '25, 0.48 in '30, further dropping to 0.42 in 1932.

Conscripts and Leave of Absence

In order to meet the convenience of the families of conscripts the military authorities adopted in 1919 a new measure, according to which conscripts may return home to assist the business of their families at convenient period, staying for the number of days representing their leave, but in no case for more than a fortnight.

2. PERSONNEL OF ACTIVE SERVICE

Officers.—Infantry, cavalry, artillery, engineer, commissariat and aviation officers are appointed from among cadets trained at the Military Cadets' School, or non-commissioned officers. Technical officers, surgeons and veterinary surgeons are promoted from among probational officers who must be graduates of universities and technical or medical schools, while paymasters are trained at the Paymasters' School. Officers can also volunteer for the gendarmerie when they are put to training at the Gendarmerie Training Institute.

Warrant officers.—These are special sergeant-majors.

Non-Commissioned officers.—These comprise sergeant-majors, sergeants and corporals, all to be promoted from the ranks of the privates.

Privates.—These are classified into senior (jotohei), 1st (ittohei) and 2nd (nitohei) classes.

Promotion and Age-Limit of Officers

Rules for promotion of military officers in service in time of peace are as follows, this limit being reduced to ½ in time of war:

1 year from Sub-Lieutenant to Lieutenant, 2 years from Lieutenant to Captain, 4 years to Major, 2 years to Lieutenant-Colonel, 2 years each to Colonel and next to Major-General, 3 years to Lieutenant-General. The promotion to full General and next to Marshal is left to the will of the Emperor.

Age-limit in the active service is—44 for Sub-Lieutenant and Lieutenant, 48 for Captain, 50 for Major, 53 for Lieutenant-Colonel, 55 for Colonel, 58 for Major-General, 62 for Lieutenant-General, 65 for General and no limit for Marshal.

Opens the Door of the Service

To induce non-commissioned officers to remain in the service, the military authorities devised in 1920 a special system by which the warrant officer of capability may be promoted to a special lieutenant after a short education, to be elevated according to merit to a higher post, even to the supreme Marshalship. On the other hand, to reinforce the Army with erudite officers, the graduates of universities in science or engineering can now be appointed by the Appointment Regulations of Technical Officers gazetted in August 1919, to Engineer or Artillery Lieutenants after 6 months' cadetship, while those graduated from the medical and agricultural colleges are likewise qualified to become Surgeon and Veterinary Lieutenants respectively.

No. of Officers on Active List

	1930
Gen. to Maj-Gen. and ranking officers.....	220
Col. to Maj. and ranking officers.....	5,747
Capt. to Sub-Lieut. and ranking officers...	9,823
Non-commissioned officers.....	3,531
Total.....	17,321
Do. for 1929.....	17,303
Do. for 1928.....	17,234

3. ARMY EDUCATION

Military education is under the control of the Military Education Superintendence Board. The principal institutions for military education are:—(1) The Military Preparatory School at Tokyo educates candidates aspiring to become officers; (2) The Military Cadets' School situated at Tokyo receives the graduates of the Preparatory School and other candidates; (3) The Military Staff College gives the finishing polish to lieutenants and captains of promising ability and gives necessary training so as to qualify them to become staff officers. The third is under direct control of the General Staff Office. For benefit of those aspiring to become non-commissioned officers, Military Training Schools were established at Sendai, Toyohashi and Kumamoto in 1927.

Besides the above there are various schools to give special education connected with Army. These are the Artillery and Engineering School for 2nd lieutenants of the respective corps to receive necessary training; (2) the Infantry School to instruct captains and lieutenants in tactics, etc.; (3) the Toyama Military School to give officers and non-commissioned officers two to seven months' training in gymnastics and fencing, and also to train the Military Band; (4) the Cavalry School to give eleven months' training to officers and non-commissioned officers of cavalry; (5) the Heavy Artillery School; (6) Field Artillery School; (7) Gunnery Mechanic School; (8) Paymasters School; (9) Surgery School; (10) Veterinary Surgery School; (11) the Engineering School for training officers and non-commissioned officers in military engineering; (12) the Military Communications School; (13) the Military Motor Car School; (14) Military Aviation schools (4); (15) the Gendarmerie Training Institute.

Latest Statistics

(at the end of Sept. 1932)

	Staff	Students	*Graduates
Staff College.....	97	150	51
Cadets' School.....	59	1,637	445
Art. & Eng. School.....	50	123	122
Infantry School.....	38	175	175
Toyama School.....	53	150	140
Cavalry School.....	—	—	—
Field Art. School.....	87	—	87
Heavy Art. School.....	40	143	100

Army Eng. School.....	—	—	—
Mil. Aviation Schools (4).....	94	—	—
Mil. Motor Car School.....	—	—	—
Mil. Communications School..	23	36	—
Mil. Preparatory School.....	29	170	50
Mil. Mechanical School.....	64	230	115
Paymasters School.....	25	68	47
Surgery School.....	—	—	—
Vet. Surgery School.....	18	46	58
Mil. Training School (3).....	156	1,350	4,673
Gendarmerie Training School	41	75	74
Narashino School (est. 1933)...	—	—	—

* At the end of Mar. 1931.

4. DEVELOPMENT & REORGANIZATION OF SPECIAL CORPS

As a result of actual experience learned in the 1904-05 war and the World War, special corps has been expanded or reorganized. The development is especially conspicuous in (1) Heavy Artillery, (2) Field and Mountain Artillery, (3) Machine Gun Companies, (4) Communication Corps, (5) Flying Corps, etc.

Heavy Artillery.—This is the new term adopted for the Fortress Artillery in the old system, stationed at the forts existing at various strategic points, as the Bay of Tokyo, Shimono-seki, and others. The system of the former Fortress Artillery having been exclusively defensive and therefore unsuited for aggressive operations, thorough reform was introduced to the system to bring it up to date, the strength of the artillery corps stationed at various places being unified at the same time. Further to strengthen the efficiency and mobile power of the Heavy Artillery Corps, lighter guns were attached, to be made use of when quick work is required. The Heavy Artillery Corps are distributed as follows:—

Regiments:—Yokosuka; Miyama; Shimono-seki.

Battalions:—Hakodate; Maizuru; Keichi; Sasebo; Masan; Ryojun; Keelung; Mako.

Field Artillery and Mountain Artillery.—(A) A field artillery regiment, composed of three battalions, is attached to each Army Division with the exception of the 9th and 11th Divisions, for each of which a mountain artillery regiment is provided.

(B) Besides there are four brigades of field heavy artillery, each of two regiments strength, distributed as follows:—

Brigade headquarters	Regiments	Capacity of motor car	For construction Yen	Extra allowance Yen	For Purchase Yen	For maintenance (yearly) (Yen)
1st (Mishima)	{ 2nd 3rd	A. $\frac{3}{4}$ metric tons and over	1,500	500	1,000	400
2nd (Kokura)	{ 5th 6th	B. 1.0 metric tons and over	2,000	500	1,000	500
3rd (Konodai)	{ 1st 7th	C. 1.5 metric tons and over	3,000	500	1,000	600
4th (Tokyo)	{ 7th 8th	D. $\frac{3}{4}$ metric tons and over	1,500	375	750	300
		E. 1.0 metric tons and over	2,000	375	750	400
		F. 1.5 metric tons and over	3,000	375	750	500

(C) Two independent mountain artillery regiments, each two battalions strong, are stationed at Takata (1st reg.) and Kurume (3rd reg.)

Mounted Artillery.—A mounted artillery battalion is stationed at Konodai, Chiba Prefecture.

Mounted Machine Guns.—A Battery of mounted machine guns is attached to each infantry regiment.

Telegraph Regiments.—There are two telegraph regiments, the 1st regiment being stationed in Tokyo, and the 2nd in Hiroshima.

Railway Regiments.—Two railway regiments (both belonging to the Guard Division) are stationed at Narashino and Chiba, both in Chiba prefecture.

Tank Corps.—A tank corps (created in 1925) is stationed at Kurume and attached to the 12th Division.

Anti-Aircraft Artillery.—An anti-aircraft artillery regiment (created in 1925) is stationed at Hamamatsu and attached to the 3rd Division.

Balloon Corps.—A balloon corps is stationed at Tsugamura, Chiba Prefecture.

Army Air Force.—At present there are eight flying regiments each consisting of 3 or 4 companies. The force was made an independent service in June 1925, the former term "flying battalions" having been changed into "flying regiments" at the same time. (For further details vide Aviation Section of this Chapter.)

Motor-car Corps and Subsidy.—Motor-car corps, which was created several years ago as a special unit of the Service Corps, was abolished in 1925, in connection with the army reorganization and instead an Army Motor-car School was established at Setagaya, Tokyo. In May 1918, a law for granting bounty to motors strong enough for purposes of transportation in time of need was enacted. Rate of bounty allowed to such motor-cars is as follows:—

N.B.—A.B. and C. are goods wagons while D, E and F are those whose bodies can easily be reconstructed into wagons.

Fortresses.—There are 17 fortresses at points of strategic importance, in different parts of the country and dependencies. A heavy artillery regiment or battalion is stationed at each of these fortresses as stated before. They are as follows:—

Yokosuka, Chichijima (Bonin Is.), Yura, Shimonoseki, Maizuru, Sasebo, Tsushima, Nagasaki, Iki, Hakodate, Saganoseki (Oita), Amami-Oshima, Keelung, Mako, Chinkai and Gensan.

5. THE MILITARY LIMITATION

The general situation of the defence scheme the world over, after the Washington Conference, has induced the Army authorities to act up to what the signs of the times demand in the problem of armament limitation. The public opinion that had been chafing along under what it considered the exacting demands of the militarists in their appropriations now began to insist that the Army should follow the example set by the Navy and be subjected to thorough process of curtailment. The cry became universal and finally took concrete shape as a representation of the House of Representatives. It passed undivided in the 1921-22 session of the Diet, and was to the effect that the army budget should be cut down by at least ¥40 millions a year and that the term of service of conscripts be reduced from two years to 1 year 4 months. The representation was received with good grace by the Army, and as the result of readjustment effected between 1922 and 1924 1,800 officers (spread over two years for administrative convenience), 56,000 rank and file and 13,000 horses were eliminated, this corresponding to the reduction of about five Divisions on peace

strength. Other important items on the readjustment program were the curtailment by 40 days of the term of service in barracks and by 47 days in calls of reservists of foot-soldiers, 87 days in all; reduction of the barrack service from 3 months to 2 months for commissariats; the abolition of the independent garrisons, the elimination of the higher officers' complement in Chosen, etc. Thus at the end of 1924 the total number of the rank and file had been reduced to about 236,000. The retrenchment amounted to ¥313 millions on ordinary account and ¥41 millions on extraordinary account, total ¥354 millions approximately.

2nd Curtailment.—The second reduction carried out in May 1925 consisted in the abolition of 4 Divisions (13th, 15th, 17th and 18th), this affecting 16 infantry regiments, 4 cavalry regiments, 4 field artillery regiments, 4 engineer battalions and 4 commissariat battalions, and 1 motor-car battalion. Approximately 37,000 officers, non-commissioned officers and privates were eliminated. Besides, about 300 officers were relieved of their duties during the previous year as preparatory step to the Division reduction, and by the end of March 1926 more were discharged.

6. THE REORGANIZED ARMY SYSTEM

The new army system as enforced in the summer of 1925 was based on the principle of quality than quantity, the authorities adopting a new equipment program to compensate for what was lost in the man-power. This new equipment includes the establishment of 10 air companies, 6 anti-air-craft corps with 24 anti-craft guns, and 2 regiments of tank corps with 40 tanks. Poison gas and other chemical methods are receiving similar attention.

Of the two new tank regiments, each with 20 tanks, one (1st tank corps) organized in 1927, is stationed at Kurume and the other (2nd) is attached to the Infantry School, Chiba prefecture. A regiment of the anti-aircraft corps, organized in 1927, is stationed at Hamamatsu, another regiment at the Field Artillery School in Yotsukaicho, Chiba prefecture, and a detachment of similar corps at Ryusan in Chosen. Two additional air regiments, also organized in 1927, are stationed at Hamamatsu and Koshun (Taiwan). An army communications school and an army motor-car school were created in Tokyo. The Manchurian independent garrison and the high (maximum) complement of the Chosen army, which were

to be discontinued in 1925 according to the previously determined program, are to be maintained for the present in view of the situation obtaining in Manchuria and Chosen.

The proposal to reduce the period of active service of infantry men from 24 months to 18 months has caused the authorities to enforce a compulsory system of military training of the rising generation and especially boys in middle and higher schools. The education authorities introduced the particular item into the curriculum of those schools, commencing April 1925, training being given by army officers in active service specially detailed by the Minister of War. Over 1,000 army officers were selected from among all army Divisions for this purpose and appointed instructors of military training in universities, colleges, other higher schools, middle schools, etc.

At the same time, the term of the active service for graduates of normal and other schools have been reduced. As the result thereof the former system of one-year volunteer service was discontinued after 1927.

7. ARMS DEPOTS AND MILITARY ARSENALS

The Arms Depot has its headquarters in Tokyo, and branches at Tokyo, Chiba, Nagoya, Osaka, Hiroshima and Kokura. They conduct the purchase, storing, maintenance, repairs, distribution, replacement, etc. of arms and ordnance, mounting of guns and similar work. The Military Arsenals exist at Kokura, Osaka, Nagoya and Koishikawa (Tokyo), each having a number of branch factories and powder magazines, with the headquarters at Kokura (Kyushu). They undertake the designing, planning and manufacture of arms, ordnance, munitions of war and powder required in the army, their repairs and inspection, and also undertake the manufacture of powder and arms for the Navy and the public at their request. Besides there are ordnance manufacturing factories at Jujo (Tokyo), Tadaumi, Atsuta, Kokura and Heijo (Chosen).

8. ARMY ON PEACE STANDING

A Division is generally composed of 2 brigades of infantry, 1 regiment each of cavalry and artillery, 1 battalion each of engineers and army service corps. A regiment of infantry consists of 3 battalions, each 600 men,

while a regiment of cavalry is composed of 3 or 4 squadrons, each 100 sabres. A regiment of field artillery consists of 6 batteries, each of 4 guns, while a battalion of engineers consists of 3 companies, each of 150 men, and that of army service corps of 300 men. There are also independent corps, as shown in the table of army distribution given later.

Strength of the Standing Force

As the result of the army adjustment and re-organization effected twice, in 1922 and 1925, the strength of standing force has considerably decreased, it now consisting of 17 Divisions with approximately 230,000 officers and men as against 290,000 in 1900. Classified according to kinds, the figure is tabulated as follows:—

Kind	No. of Regiments (or battalions)	No. of Companies (squadrons or batteries)
Infantry	70 regiments & 6 battalions	730 companies
Cavalry	25 regiments	70 squadrons
Field artillery	15 regiments	90 batteries
Mountain artillery	4 regiments & 1 battalion	22 batteries
Mounted artillery	1 battalion	2 batteries
Field heavy artillery	8 regiments	44 batteries
Heavy artillery	3 regiments & 8 independent battalions	34 batteries
Sappers (Engineers)	17 battalions	48 companies
Railway corps	2 regiments	16 companies
Telegraph corps	2 regiments	16 companies
Air force	8 regiments	26 companies
Balloon corps	1 corps	2 companies
Commissariat	15 battalions	30 companies
Tank corps	1 corps	1 company
Anti-aircraft artillery	1 regiment & 1 battery	5 batteries

The above force is divided and organized into 17 Divisions (34 brigades), as shown below:—

DISTRIBUTION (As Revised in April 1925)

Divisional headquarters	Brigade, Regiment, Battalion, etc. of various corps and headquarters	Garrison or corps	
Imperial Guard Division (Tokyo)	Infantry { Guard Brig. 1: Tokyo ... Guard Regs. 1 & 2 ... } Guard Brig. 2: Tokyo ... Guard Regs. 3 & 4 ... }	Tokyo	
	Cavalry Brig. 1: Narashino... { Regs. 13 & 14 ... }	Narashino	
	Field Heavy Art. Brig. 4 Tokyo { Guard F.A. Reg. ... } Reg. 8 ...	Tokyo	
	Guard Engineer Bat.; Guard Commissariat Bat.; Telegraph Reg. 1... { Reg. 4 ... }	Shimoshizu	
	Railway Reg. { 1 ... } 2 ...	Chiba	
	Air Reg. 5... { 2 ... }	Narashino	
	Balloon Corps ...	Tachikawa	
		Tokorozawa	
	1st Division (Tokyo)	Infantry { Brig. 1: Tokyo ... { Reg. 49 ... } Reg. 1 ... } Brig. 2: Tokyo ... { Reg. 3 ... } Reg. 57 ... }	Kofu Tokyo Sakura
		Cavalry Brig. 2: Narashino ... { Regs. 15 & 16 ... } Reg. 1 ...	Narashino Tokyo
Field Heavy Art. Brig. 3 Konodai { Field Art. Reg. 1... Mounted Art. Bat. ... } Field Heavy Art. Regs. 1 & 7 ... }		Konodai	
Yokosuka Heavy Artillery Reg... Eng. Bat. 1; Commissariat Bat. 1 ...		Yokosuka Tokyo	
2nd Division (Sendai)		Infantry { Brig. 3: Sendai ... { Reg. 4 ... } Reg. 26 ... } Brig. 15: Takata... { Reg. 16, Bats. 1 & 2... Reg. 16, Bat. 3 ... } Reg. 30 ... }	Sendai Wakamatsu Shibata Muramatsu Takata
		Cavalry Reg. 2; Field Art. Reg. 2; Eng. Bat. 2; Comt. Bat. 2... Independent Mountain Art. Reg. 1 ...	Sendai Takata

Divisional headquarters	Brigade, Regiment, Battalion, etc. of various corps and headquarters	Garrison or corps
3rd Division (Nagoya)	Infantry { Brig. 5: Nagoya ... { Reg. 6 ... } Reg. 68 ... } Brig. 29: Shizuoka ... { Reg. 18, Bats. 1 & 2 ... } Reg. 18, Bat. 3 ... } Reg. 34 ... }	Nagoya Gifu Toyohashi Hamamatsu Shizuoka
	Cavalry Brig. 4: Toyohashi... { Reg. 3 ... } Regs. 25 & 26 ... }	Nagoya Toyohashi
	Field Heavy Art. Brig. 1: Mishima... { Field Art. Reg. 3... } Field Heavy Art. Regs. 2 & 3 ... }	Mishima
	Comt. Bat. 3 ...	Nagoya
	Anti-aircraft Art. Reg. 1 ...	Hamamatsu
	Eng. Bat. 3 ...	Toyohashi
	Air Regs. 1 & 2 ...	Gifu
	Air Reg. 7 ...	Hamamatsu

Note.—The standing armies stationed in Taiwan and Manchuria are excluded. Figures show number (No.) of brigades, regiments, etc.; locations of headquarters are given either after colon or dot.

4th Division (Osaka)	Infantry { Brig. 7: Osaka ... { Reg. 8 ... } Reg. 70 ... } Brig. 32: Wakayama... { Reg. 61 ... } Reg. 37 ... }	Osaka Sasayama Wakayama Osaka	
	Cavalry Reg. 4: Comt. Bat. 4 ...	Shidayama	
	Field Artillery Reg. 4 ...	Miyama	
	Miyama Heavy Artillery ... Engineer Bat. 4 ...	Takatsuki	
5th Division (Hiroshima)	Infantry { Brig. 9: Hiroshima ... { Reg. 11 ... } Reg. 41 ... } Brig. 21: Yamaguchi... { Reg. 21 ... } Reg. 42 ... }	Hiroshima Fukuyama Hamada Yamaguchi	
	Cavalry Reg. 5; Field Art. Reg. 5; Eng. Bat. 5; Comt. Bat. 5; Telegraph Reg. 2 ...	Hiroshima	
	6th Division (Kumamoto)	Infantry { Brig. 11: Kumamoto ... { Reg. 13 ... } Reg. 47 ... } Brig. 36: Kagoshima... { Reg. 23 ... } Reg. 45 ... }	Kumamoto Oita Miyakonojo Kagoshima
Cavalry Reg. 6; Field Art. Reg. 6; Eng. Bat. 6; Comt. Bat. 6...		Kumamoto	
7th Division (Asahikawa)		Infantry { Brig. 13: Asahikawa ... { Reg. 25 ... } Reg. 26 ... } Brig. 14: Asahikawa ... { Regs. 27 & 28 ... } Cavalry Reg. 7; Field Art. Reg. 7; Eng. Bat. 7; Comt. Bat. 7 } Hakodate Heavy Bat. Art. ...	Sapporo Asahikawa Hakodate
	8th Division (Hirosaki)	Infantry { Brig. 4: Hirosaki ... { Reg. 5 ... } Reg. 31 ... } Brig. 16: Akita ... { Reg. 17 ... } Reg. 32 ... }	Aomori Hirosaki Akita Yamagata
		Field Art. Reg. 8; Comt. Bat. 8 ...	Hirosaki
Cavalry Brig. 3: Morioka ... { Reg. 8 ... } Eng. Bat. 8 ... { Regs. 23 & 24 ... }		Morioka	
9th Division (Kanazawa)	Infantry { Reg. 6: Kanazawa ... { Reg. 7 ... } Reg. 35 ... } Brig. 18: Tsuruga ... { Reg. 19 ... } Reg. 36 ... }	Kanazawa Toyama Tsuruga Fukui	
	Cavalry Reg. 9; Mount. Art. Reg. 9; Eng. Bat. 9; Comt. Bat. 9...	Kanazawa	
10th Division (Himeji)	Infantry { Brig. 8: Himeji ... { Reg. 39 ... } Reg. 40 ... } Brig. 33: Okayama ... { Reg. 10 ... } Reg. 63 ... }	Himeji Tottori Okayama Matsuye	
	Cavalry Reg. 10; Field Art. Reg. 10 ... Eng. Bat. 10 ... Comt. Bat. 10 ...	Himeji Okayama Himeji	

Divisional headquarters	Brigade, Regiment, Battalion, etc. of various corps and headquarters	Garrison or corps
11th Division (Zentsuji)	Infantry { Brig. 10: Zentsuji ... { Reg. 12 Zentsuji Reg. 22 Matsuyama Brig. 22: Tokushima ... { Reg. 43 Tokushima Reg. 14 Kochi	Zentsuji
	Cavalry Reg. 11; Mount. Art. Reg. 11; Eng. Bat. 11; Comt. Bat. 11	
12th Division (Kurume)	Infantry { Brig. 12: Fukuoka ... { Reg. 14 Kokura Reg. 24 Fukuoka Reg. 46 Omura Brig. 24: Kurume ... { Reg. 48, Bats. 1 & 2 ... Kurume Regs. 48, Bat. 3 Saga Reg. 5 & 6 Kokura	Kurume
	Field Heavy Art. Brig. 2: Kokura	
	Field Art. Reg. 24; Independent Mountain Art. Reg. 3	
	Shimonoseki Heavy Art. Reg.	
	Sasebo Heavy Art. Battalion	
	Keichi Heavy Art. Battalion	
Air Reg. 4. Tachiarai		
Cavalry Reg. 12; Eng. Bat. 18; Comt. Bat. 18; Tank Corps. 1		
14th Division (Utsunomiya)	Infantry { Brig. 27: Utsunomiya ... { Reg. 2 Mito Reg. 59 Utsunomiya Brig. 28: Takasaki ... { Reg. 15 Takasaki Reg. 50 Matsumoto	Utsunomiya
	Cavalry Reg. 18; Field Art. Reg. 20; Comt. Bat. 14	
16th Division (Kyoto)	Infantry { Brig. 19: Kyoto ... { Reg. 9 Kyoto Reg. 20 Fukuchiyama Reg. 33 Tsu Brig. 30: Tsu ... { Reg. 38 Nara	Kyoto
	Cavalry Reg. 20; Field Art. Reg. 22; Eng. Bat. 16; Comt. Bat. 16	
	Air Reg. 3 Yokaichi	
	Maizuru Heavy Art. Battalion Maizuru	
	Maizuru Heavy Art. Battalion Maizuru	
19th Division (Ranan, Chosen)	Infantry { Brig. 37: Kanko ... { Reg. 73 Ranan Reg. 74 Kanko Brig. 38: Ranan ... { Reg. 75 Kainei Reg. 76 Ranan	Kainei
	Cavalry Reg. 27; Field Art. Reg. 25	
20th Division (Ryusan, Chosen)	Infantry { Brig. 39: Heijo ... { Reg. 77 Heijo Reg. 78 Ryusan Reg. 79 Ryusan Brig. 40: Ryusan ... { Reg. 80, Bats. 1 & 2 ... Taikyu Reg. 80, Bat. 3 Taiden	Ryusan
	Cavalry Reg. 28; Field Art. Reg. 26; Eng. Bat. 20	
	Air Reg. 6 Heijo	
	Masan Heavy Art. Battalion Masan	
	Masan Heavy Art. Battalion Masan	

Note.—The 13th Division at Takata, the 15th Division at Toyohashi, the 17th Division at Okayama and the 18th Division at Kurume were abolished and disbanded in April 1925.

SECTION II. THE NAVY

Prefatory Remarks

Absence of stimulus at first, and next the enforcement of a seclusion policy during the Tokugawa period, caused the maritime and naval activities of Japan to remain comparatively insignificant. The only noteworthy instance of naval operations witnessed in early days were a sea fight at Dan-no-ura (Inland Sea) between the Genji and the Heike clans in the 12th century, and the encounters at the time of Hideyoshi between Japanese and Korean fleets off the Korean coast, when the former was rather

hard pressed by a Korean Admiral. So far as bold maritime adventurers are concerned, the predatory visits of Japanese piratical junks to the coast of southern China about the beginning of the 17th century may have been far more important in the maritime history of the country. It was about that time too that Japanese junks used to sail for commercial purpose to Korea, China, also to Java, the Philippines, Siam and India.

Because of the isolation policy pursued by the Tokugawa Shogunate, Japan possessed not

a single warship fit for service when European and American ships visited her shores in the middle of the 19th century to persuade her to open the country for foreign trade. The sight of these huge foreign men-of-war strongly impressed the whole nation with the necessity of sea armament. The Shogunate and some of the more powerful feudal lords, such as the Lords of Satsuma and Tosa, purchased or ordered war vessels. At the time of the Restoration (1868) Japan possessed not more than 10 such warships, of which eight that belonged to the Shogunate were sunk or destroyed in the battle off the port of Hakodate. When in 1870 a War Department was created by the new Government, the puny "fleet" in existence was made subordinate to it, though two years later the two services were divided into the Army and Navy Departments, the latter having acquired in that short period 17 warships with an aggregate tonnage of 14,000 tons. This formed the nucleus of the Japanese Navy.

Gradually expanded in tonnage it had grown to 59,000 by the time of the Sino-Japanese war (1894) and to 260,000 on the occasion of the more formidable Russo-Japanese war (1904). The expansion subsequently made was so rapid that when the Washington Conference was held in 1921 the Imperial fleet comprised 15 battleships, 7 battle-cruisers, about 50 cruisers, coast-defence ships, and gun-boats, including other auxiliary ships, 130 torpedo-boat destroyers and torpedo boats, and about 30 submarines, representing an aggregate tonnage of approximately 770,000 tons.

1. THE NAVAL PROGRAM

At the time of the Washington Conference the Japanese Navy had on hand a program for the construction of the first 8-8 unit fleet as approved at the 41st (1920) session of the Diet. The program, scheduled to be completed in 1927, consisted of a main force of 8 battleships armed with 16-inch guns (Nagato and later ships), and 8 battle-cruisers (the Akagi and later ships), and auxiliaries of 26 cruisers, 94 destroyers; and 93 submarines. This scheme, however, had to be abandoned, in conformity with the Naval Treaty agreed upon at the Washington Conference, only the Mutsu and the Nagato on the list being retained. The construction of 6 other battleships and 8 battle-cruisers was either suspended or given up, with the exception of the battle-cruisers Akagi and Amagi, which were retained for conver-

sion as aeroplane tenders. As the Conference did not come to any definite agreement in regard to cruisers and other auxiliary ships, excepting aeroplane carriers, the Japanese Navy decided to follow the prescribed program in this respect, though with some reduction. The program, to be completed by 1927 as originally scheduled, was completed in March 1929 as follows:—

Kind of Ships	No. of Ships	Tonnage
Cruisers (Tenryu built in 1919, and later ships)	25	150,000
Destroyers (Built in 1918 and later)	81	89,600
Submarines	67	68,536

On the completion of the aforementioned program the strength of the Japanese Navy stood as follows:—

Capital ships	10	304,320
Battleships (Mutsu, Nagato, Hyuga, Ise, Yamashiro, Fuso)	6	191,320
Battle-cruisers (Kongo, Hiei, Kirishima, Haruna)	4	113,000
Auxiliary ships	173	315,236
Cruisers	25	157,700
Destroyers	81	89,000
Submarines	71	68,536

Besides the above there were at the time of the Washington Conference about 40 cruisers, coast defence ships, gunboats, etc. of older type representing a tonnage of 150,000, and about 100 destroyers and torpedo boats, also of older type, aggregating 27,000 tons.

The lesson taught by the World War has persuaded Japan to slightly modify, strictly within the limit of the Washington Conference, the original 8-8 program, and to supersede the plan of building light cruisers of 5,500-ton class with that of building those of 7,000 tons, and moreover to construct four 10,000-ton high-speed cruisers equipped with 8-inch guns. This preference of larger vessels is also seen as regards destroyers and submarines, as Japan has to follow as far as possible the example set by other Naval powers.

Apart from the ten capital ships (298,400 tons), the existing strength of the Imperial fleets consists of 283 warships (of which 12 ships are unfinished as yet) with the aggregate tonnage of 1,129,963 tons, comprising 33 cruisers (198,055 tons), 4 aircraft carriers (68,870 tons), 4 submarine tender ships (21,015 tons), 5 mine layers (15,230 tons), 8 coast defence

ships (62,530 tons), 13 gunboats (5,300 tons), 104 destroyers (120,295 tons), 64 submarines (71,379 tons), 12 mine sweepers (7,290 tons), 24 special commission ships (261,617 tons) and 2 torpedo boats. The above is the minimum strength of the auxiliary warships that Japan considers as absolutely necessary for ensuring her national defence.

2. NAVAL DISTRICTS AND BASES

The coast of Japan is divided into three naval districts, each having its base or naval stations, i.e. Yokosuka, Sasebo, and Kure. At each of these stations there is an Admiralty, with an arsenal, a marine corps, air force, and other provisions necessary for a naval base. Besides there are Strategic Ports or secondary naval stations at Maizuru, Ominato, Ryojun (Port Arthur), Mako (Taiwan) and Chinkai (Chosen). The coast and adjacent sea of Kwantung province are termed the Kwantung naval district, and those of the South Sea mandatory isles the South Sea naval district, and are respectively under control of the Sasebo and Yokosuka Admiralties.

Naval Arsenals and Shipbuilding

Each Admiralty has an arsenal with a ship-building yard and possesses a dry dock for accommodating large warships. The Yokosuka and Kure Arsenals have each two cradles, capable of taking in superdreadnoughts of over 40,000 tons, but the Sasebo and Maizuru Arsenals have each only one cradle for building cruisers and lesser ships. Besides the above there are private establishments approved by the Navy. They are the Mitsubishi Shipyard at Nagasaki, Kawasaki Shipyard at Kobe, Fujinagata Shipyard at Kobe, Ishikawajima Shipyard at Tokyo and others. The first two have capacity of building superdreadnoughts.

The first warship built in Japan was the Seiki (870 tons) launched at Yokosuka in 1875. The cruiser Hashidate (4,228 tons) was the largest warship constructed at home till 1903. The progress attained in this respects since that time is demonstrated by the building of the battleships Kurama (14,600 tons) and Satsuma (19,300 tons) in 1909. The launching in October 1910 at Yokosuka of the Kawachi (20,800 tons), the first dreadnought ever attempted at home, marks another stage in the progress of naval architecture in Japan.

Supply of Building Materials at Home

Japan is almost self-dependent as regards materials for war implements. Armour plates, rails, etc. are now turned out to the extent of about 190,000 tons a year at the Imperial Iron Works at Yawata (Kyushu), the plates being also produced at the Naval Yard belonging to the Kure Admiralty. A steel works established in 1908 at Muroran (Hokkaido), as a joint undertaking of the Hokkaido Colliery and Steamship Co. and Armstrong and Vickers (of England), with the countenance of the Navy, is devoted to casting guns and some commercial products.

In wood, Siamese teak and Oregon pine are used for decks, while foreign oaks, maples, etc. are used for decorative parts. "Keyaki" (*Obelicea serrata*), a species of "Zelkova" oaks, also serves for the latter purpose.

3. PERSONNEL OF THE SERVICE

Officers.—Besides the executive officers there are in the civil branch engineers, surgeons, pharmacists, hydrographers and construction, mechanical and ordnance officers. The executive officers, engineers, surgeons and paymasters are trained respectively at the Naval College, Engineering College, Surgery School and Paymasters School. The other non-combatant officers are appointed from among the candidates who should be graduates of universities or other schools of similar grade.

Petty and Warrant Officers.—Petty officers are appointed by selection from among the 1st-class seamen, and are of 1st to 3rd classes, while for warrant officers the last class petty officers are eligible. Warrant officers of meritorious active service of not less than 5 years may be commissioned and gradually promoted as special service officers to the rank of Lieut.-Commander or even higher.

Officers and Men of the Service

The personnel of the service for the three years ending 1931 was as follows:—

Year	Active service	Reserve (1st & 2nd)	Total
1929	83,697	53,489	137,186
1930	85,552	53,203	138,755
1931	88,886	54,662	143,548

Those on the active service list numbered as follows at the end of 1931:—

Adm. to Rear-Adm. and ranking officers...	112
Captains to Lieut.-Commanders and ranking officers	2,082
Lieutenants to 2nd-class Sub-Lieutenants and ranking officers	2,602
Special service officers	1,353
Warrant officers	1,598
Petty officers	80,250
Midshipmen	336
Cadets at schools.....	546
Total	88,886

Elimination of Officers.—The elimination of officers in accordance to the Limitation of Armaments, begun in August 1922, was completed in March 1924. The total eliminated was as follows:—

Full Admirals.....	8
Vice-Admirals.....	52
Rear-Admirals	99
Captains	290
Commanders	262
Lieut.-Commanders	171
Lieutenants.....	115
Sub-Lieutenants.....	43
Total.....	1,043

At the same time warrant and ranking officers were reduced by over 700 and petty officers and seamen by over 13,000.

Volunteers and Conscripts

In the Navy the volunteer service is supplemented by conscription. The age-limit for volunteers is fixed at over 15 and below 21 years, that for aerial service being 15 to 17. The annual enlistment of men makes the following record for the three years ending 1931:—

	Conscripts	Volunteers
1929.....	9,920	5,195
1930.....	7,525	4,936
1931.....	9,780	4,676

Naval Officers' Promotion

Promotion by selection is the rule in the Japanese Navy. Candidates for special promotion are selected at the conference of the Admirals' Council. The time-limit for promotion is reduced to one half in time of war. The regular course of promotion for junior officers is as follows:—Midshipmen, over one year's service in a training ship; 2nd Sub-Lts. over one year's service; 1st Sub-Lts. over 18 months of which six months in Torpedo or

Gunnery School; Lts. of over 4 years in the service are promoted to Lieut.-Commanders.

Special service 1st Sub-Lts. over two years' service; Special service 2nd Sub-Lts., over three years' service; Special service Lieutenants (combatants, engineers and paymasters) may be promoted to Lieut.-Commander by special appointment.

Commanders.—Lieut.-Commanders of over two years' service are promoted to Commander.

Captains.—Commanders of over two years' service are promoted to Captain.

Rear-Admirals.—Captains of over two years' service are promoted to Rear-Admiral.

Vice-Admirals.—Rear-Admirals of over three years' service are promoted to Vice-Admiral.

Admirals.—Vice-Admirals, who have seen much actual service or are of special merits are promoted by Imperial order.

N.B.—1st-class warrant or ranking officer of over 6 years in the service may be promoted to 1st Lieutenant or ranking officer.

Age-Limit of Officers in Active Service

	No limit
Fleet Admiral.....	No limit
Admiral	65
Non-Combatant Vice-Admiral	62
Vice-Admiral	60
Rear-Admiral & Non-Combatant	
Rear-Admiral	58
Non-Combatant Captain	54
Captain & Engineer Captain	52
Non-Combatant Commander	50
Commander & Engineer Commander.....	48
Non-Combatant Lieut.-Commander	47
Lieut.-Commander & Engineer Lieut.-Com.	45
Non-Combatant Lieutenant	44
Lieutenant and Engineer Lieutenant	43
Sub-Lieutenant (Non-Combatant,	
1st & 2nd)	40
Sub-Lieut. & Eng. Sub-Lieut. (1st & 2nd)	38

4. NAVAL EDUCATION

There are ten educational institutions, namely, the Naval Staff College, Naval College (or Cadets School), Engineering College, Torpedo School, Gunnery School, Paymasters School, Surgery School, Artificers School, and Submarine School (all thoroughly recast after the World War), and Naval Communications School (created in 1930).

Latest Statistics (Sept. 1933)

	Staff	Students	*Graduates
Naval Staff College (Tokyo)	121	54	—
Naval College (Etajima).....	—	545	149
Naval Engineering College (Maizuru).....	—	170	49
Paymasters School (Tokyo)...	79	202	127
Surgery School (Tokyo).....	18	65	—
Gunnery School (Yokosuka)	194	953	1,912
Torpedo School (Yokosuka)...	176	448	300
Submarine School (Kure) ...	—	151	374
Artificers School (Yokosuka)	132	1,000	—
Communications School (Yokosuka).....	105	435	596

*At the end of Mar. 1932

5. THE IMPERIAL FLEETS

The Standing Fleets

The standing fleets as reorganized on Nov. 15, 1933, consist of the following:

First Squadron:—Commander-in-Chief Vice-Adm. N. Suyetsugu.

1st Battle Squadron: Fuso (Flagship), Ise, Hyuga and Kirishima;

7th Battle Squadron: Nagara (Flagship), Natori and Isuzu;

1st Torpedo Battle Squadron: Kawachi (Flagship), 5th, 22nd, 23rd, and 30th destroyer flotillas;

1st Submarine Squadron: Yura (Flagship), Tendership Jungei, 28th and 30th submarine flotillas.

Second Squadron:—Commander-in-Chief Vice-Adm. S. Takahashi.

4th Battle Squadron: Chokai (Flagship), Takao, Maya and Atago;

6th Battle Squadron: Aoba (Flagship), Kinukasa and Furutaka;

2nd Torpedo Battle Squadron: Naka (Flagship), 7th, 8th, 11th and 12th destroyer flotillas;

2nd Submarine Battle Squadron: Chogei

(Flagship), 18th and 19th submarine flotillas;

1st Air Battle Squadron: Akagi (Flagship), Ryujo and 2nd destroyer flotilla.

Third Squadron: Commander-in-Chief Vice-Adm. S. Imamura.

Izumo, Tenryu and 27th destroyer flotilla.

1st Overseas Squadron:—Tsushima, Ataka, Uji, Sumida, Fushimi, Toba, Seta, Katada, Hira, Hozu, Atami, Futami, Urakaze and 24th destroyer flotilla.

2nd Overseas Squadron:—Hirado and 16th destroyer flotilla.

Training Squadron:—Yakumo and Iwate. (Commander Vice-Adm. H. Matsushita).

The above constitutes the Combined Fleet, which was made a standing fleet on May 25, 1933. As a result of this, the 3rd battle squadron and 7th battle squadron have been renamed 7th and 6th battle squadrons respectively. The 1st overseas squadron is to be made the 11th battle squadron. The Combined Fleet is under command of the Commander-in-Chief of the 1st Squadron.

Attached to the Combined Fleet are four special service ships (Mamiya, Naruto, Tsurumi and Notoro).

Classification of the Ships

Under the new classification the ships are subdivided into:—(1) battleships; (2) 1st-class cruisers (displacement over 7,000 tons); (3) 2nd-class cruisers (displacement under 7,000 tons); (4) air-craft carriers; (5) submarine tender ships; (6) mine-layers; (7) coast defence ships; (8) gunboats; (9) 1st-class destroyers (displacement over 1,000 tons); (10) 2nd-class destroyers (displacement 600-1,000 tons); (11) 1st-class submarines (displacement over 1,000 tons); (12) 2nd-class submarines (displacement 600-1,000 tons); (13) Torpedo boats; (14) Mine sweepers; (15) Special service ships, etc.

LIST OF WARSHIPS (Sept. 1933)

Battleships

	Displacement (tons)	Length (feet)	When launched	Nominal speed (knots)	Torpedo tubes	Armor at water line (feet)	Main armaments (centimeter)	High angle guns
Fuso	29,330	630	1914	22.5	6	28	36 (12);	8 cm. (3)
Yamashiro	29,330	430	1915	22.5	6	28	36 (12);	8 cm. (3)
Ise	29,990	640	1916	23.0	6	28	36 (12);	8 cm. (3)
Hyuga	29,990	640	1917	23.0	6	28	36 (12);	8 cm. (3)
Nagato	32,720	660	1919	23.0	8	30	40 (8);	8 cm. (4)
Mutsu	32,720	660	1920	23.0	8	30	40 (8);	8 cm. (4)

	Displacement (tons)	Length (feet)	When launched	Nominal speed (knots)	Torpedo tubes	Armor at water line (feet)	Main armaments (centimeter)	High angle guns
Kongo	29,330	653	1912	26.0	8	27	36 (8);	8 cm. (4)
Hiyei	26,330	653	1912	27.5	8	27	36 (8);	8 cm. (4)
Haruna	29,330	653	1913	26.0	4	27	36 (8);	8 cm. (4)
Kirishima	29,330	653	1913	26.0	4	27	36 (8);	8 cm. (4)

1st-Class Cruisers

	Displacement (tons)	Length (feet)	When launched	Nominal speed (knots)	Torpedo tubes	Armor at water line (feet)	Main armaments (centimeter)	High angle guns
Kako	7,100	580	1925	33.0	12	14	20 (6);	8 (4)
Furutaka	7,100	580	1925	33.0	12	14	20 (6);	8 (4)
Kinukasa	7,100	580	1926	33.0	12	14	20 (6);	12 (4)
Aoba	7,100	580	1926	33.0	12	14	20 (6);	12 (4)
Myoko	10,000	580	1927	33.0	12	14	20 (10);	12 (6)
Nachi	10,000	580	1927	33.0	12	14	20 (10);	12 (6)
Ashigara	10,000	580	1928	33.0	12	14	20 (10);	12 (6)
Haguro	10,000	580	1928	33.0	12	14	20 (10);	12 (6)
Takao	10,000	580	1932	33.0	8	14	20 (10);	12 (4)
Atago	10,000	580	1932	33.0	8	14	20 (10);	12 (4)
Chokai	10,100	580	1932	33.0	8	14	20 (10);	12 (4)
Maya	10,100	580	1932	33.0	8	14	20 (10);	12 (4)

2nd-Class Cruisers

	Displacement (tons)	Length (feet)	When launched	Nominal speed (knots)	Torpedo tubes	Armor at water line (feet)	Main armaments (centimeter)	High angle guns
Hirado	4,400	440	1911	26.0	3	16	15 (8);	8 (2)
Yahagi	4,400	440	1911	26.0	3	16	15 (8);	8 (2)
Tatsuta	3,230	440	1918	31.0	6	13	14 (4);	8 (1)
Tenryu	3,230	440	1918	31.0	6	13	14 (4);	8 (1)
Kuma	5,100	500	1919	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Tama	5,100	500	1920	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Kitakami	5,100	500	1920	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
O-i	5,100	500	1920	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Kiso	5,100	500	1920	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Nagara	5,170	500	1921	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Isuzu	5,170	500	1921	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Natori	5,170	500	1922	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Yura	5,170	500	1922	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Kinu	5,170	500	1922	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Abukuma	5,170	500	1923	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Sendai	5,195	500	1923	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Jintsu	5,195	500	1923	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Naka	5,195	500	1925	33.0	8	15	14 (7);	8 (2)
Yubari	2,890	500	1925	33.0	4	15	14 (6);	8 (1)
*Mogami	8,500	—	—	33.0	—	—	15½(15);	12.7 (4)
*Mikuma	8,500	—	—	33.0	—	—	15½(15);	12.7 (4)

* In course of construction.

Coast Defence Ships

	Disp't. (tons)	When launched	Speed (knots)	Main armaments	Highest guns
Asama	9,240	1898	21.25	20cm. (4);	8cm. (5)
Yakumo	9,010	1899	20.00	20cm. (4);	8cm. (5)
Azuma	8,640	1899	20.00	20cm. (4);	8cm. (5)
Iwate	9,180	1900	20.75	20cm. (4);	8cm. (5)
Izumo	9,180	1900	20.75	20cm. (4);	8cm. (5)
Kasuga	7,080	1903	20.00	25cm. (1);	8cm. (6)
Nisshin	7,080	1903	20.40	20cm. (4);	8cm. (5)
Tsushima	3,420	1902	20.00	15cm. (6);	8cm. (8)

Aircraft Carriers

Name	Disp't. (tons)	Launched	Speed (knots)	Armaments
Hosho	7,470	1921	25.0	14 (4)
Akagi	26,900	1925	28.5	20 (10)
Kaga	26,900	1928	23.0	"
Ryujo	7,600	1931	25.0	12; H. a (12)

Submarine Tender Ships

Name	Disp't. (tons)	Launched	Speed (knots)	Main arm'ts
Jungei	5,160	1923	16.0	14cm. (4)
Chogei	"	1924	"	"
Kanzaki	9,570	1896	12.6	8cm. (1)
Komahashi	1,250	1913	13.9	" (1)
Taigei	7,500	1933	20.0	12cm.

Gunboats

Name	Disp't. (tons)	Launched	Speed (knots)	Armaments
Yodo	1,320	1907	22	8cm. (2)
Futami	170	1930	16	8cm. H. a (1)
Atami	170	1929	"	"
Uji	540	1903	13	8cm. (3)
Sumida	105	"	"	6cm. (2)
Fushimi	150	1906	14	"
Ataka	725	1922	16	12cm. (2)
Toba	215	1911	15	8cm. H. a (2)
Saga	685	1912	15	12cm. (1)
Hira	305	1923	16	8cm. H. a (2)
Hozu	305	"	"	"
Seta	305	"	"	"
Katada	305	"	"	"

1st-Class Destroyers

Name	Disp't. (tons)	When launched
Urakaze	810	1915
Amatsukaze	1,105	1916
Isokaze	"	"
Hamakaze	"	"
Tokitsukaze	"	"
Kawakaze	1,180	1917
Tanikaze	"	1918
Minekaze	1,215	1919
Sawakaze	"	"
Okikaze	"	"
Shimakaze	"	1920
Nadakaze	"	"
Yakaze	1,215	1920
Hakaze	"	"
Shiokaze	"	"
Akikaze	"	"
Yukaze	"	1921
Tachikaze	"	"
Hokaze	"	"
Nokaze	"	"
Namikaze	"	1922
Numakaze	"	"

Name	Disp't. (tons)	When launched
Kamikaze	1,270	1922
Asakaze	"	"
Harukaze	"	"
Matsukaze	"	1923
Hatakaze	"	1924
Oikaze	"	"
Hayate	"	1925
Asanagi	"	1924
Yunagi	"	"
Mutsuki	1,315	"
Kisaragi	"	1925
Yayoi	"	"
Uzuki	"	"
Satsuki	"	"
Minazuki	"	"
Fuzuki	"	1926
Nagatsuki	"	"
Kikuzuki	"	"
Mikazuki	"	"
Mochizuki	"	1927
Yuzuki	"	"
Fubuki	1,700	1928
Shirayuki	"	"
Hatsuyuki	"	"
Miyuki	"	"
Murakumo	"	"
Shinonome	"	"
Usugumo	"	"
Shirakumo	"	"
Isonami	"	"
Uranami	"	"
Ayanami	"	"
Shikinami	"	1929
Amagiri	"	1930
Asagiri	"	1929
Sagiri	"	"
Yugiri	"	1930
Oboro	"	1928
Akebono	"	"
Sazanami	"	"
Ushio	"	"
Akatsuki	"	"
Hibiki	"	"
Ikazuchi	"	"
Inazuma	"	"
Hatsuharu	"	1933
Nenoki	"	"
Ariake	" (in course of const.)	"
Yugure	" (ditto)	"
Hatsushimo	" (ditto)	"
Wakaba	" (ditto)	"

2nd-Class Destroyers

Momo	775	1916
Kashi	"	"

Name	Disp't. (tons)	When launched	Name	Disp't. (tons)	When launched
Hinoki	775	1916	Hagi	770	1920
Yanagi	"	1917	Susuki	"	1921
Nara	770	1918	Fuji	"	1920
Kuwa	"	"	Tsuta	"	1921
Tsubaki	"	"	Ashi	"	"
Maki	"	1917	Hishi	"	"
Keyaki	"	1918	Hachisu	"	"
Enoki	"	"	Sumire	"	"
Momi	"	1919	Yomogi	"	"
Kaya	"	"	Tade	"	"
Nire	"	"	Wakatake	820	"
Kuri	"	1920	Kuretake	"	"
Nashi	"	1919	Sanaye	"	1923
Take	"	"	Sawarabi	"	"
Kaki	"	"	Asagao	"	1922
Tsuga	"	1920	Yugao	"	1923
Kiku	"	"	Fuyo	"	1922
Aoi	"	"	Karukaya	"	1923

Mine Layers

Name	Disp't. (tons)	Length (feet)	When launched	Nominal Speed (knots)	Armor at water line (feet)	Main armaments
Katsuriki	1,540	240	1916	13.00	13	8cm. (3)
Tokiwa	9,240	408	1898	21.25	24	20cm. (2)
Itsukushima	1,970	—	1929	17.00	—	14cm. (3)
Shirataka	1,345	—	1929	16.00	—	12cm. H. a. (2)
Yaeyama	1,135	—	1933	20.00	—	"

Special Service Ships

Name	Disp't. (tons)	Length (feet)	When launched	Nominal Speed (knots)	Armor at water line (feet)	Main armaments
Shiretoko	14,050	450	1920	12	27	12cm. (2)
Notoro	"	450	1920	12	26	12cm. (2)
Erimo	"	450	1920	12	26	12cm. (2)
Sata	"	450	1920	12	26	14cm. (2)
Tsurumi	"	450	1921	12	26	14cm. (2)
Shiriya	"	450	1921	12	26	14cm. (2)
Iro	"	450	1922	12	26	14cm. (2)
Kamoi	17,000	496	1922	15	28	14cm. (2)
Ondo	14,050	450	1922	12	26	14cm. (2)
Hayatomo	"	450	1922	12	26	14cm. (2)
Naruto	"	450	1923	12	26	14cm. (2)
Muroto	8,215	345	1918	12½	23	12cm. (2)
Nojima	"	345	1919	12½	23	12cm. (2)
Seito	7,542	241	1906	10	21	8cm. (2)
Kenzaki	1,760	210	1917	14	14	8cm. (2)
Sasaki	8,001	400	1918	14	24	12cm. (2); 8cm. (2)
Mamiya	15,820	475	1923	14	28	14cm. (2)
Otomari	2,330	200	1921	13	28	8cm. (1)
Yamato	1,330	201	1885	14	55	8cm. (4)
Koshu	2,080	252	1904	10.3	12	8cm. (2)
Fuji	9,179	—	1897	18.25	—	—
Kanto	15,820	—	1924	14.00	—	14cm. (2)
Asahi	11,441	400	1899	18.20	—	—
Shikishima	11,275	400	1898	18.60	—	—
Settsu	16,130	500	1911	21.00	—	—

The following List of Units prepared by the Navy Department in 1931 is appended for reference:—

LIST OF UNITS

Battleships

When launched	When completed	Standard displacement (Tons)	Length (Feet)	Beam (Feet)	Mean draught (Feet)	Horse power	Guns	Torpedo tubes
Nagato.....1919	1920	32,720	700	95	30	80,000 (23 kts.)	8 16-inch; 20 5.5-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Mutsu.....1920	1921	32,720	700	95	30	80,000 (23 kts.)	8 16-inch; 20 5.5-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Ise.....1916	1917	29,990	683	94	28	45,000 (23 kts.)	12 14-inch; 20 5.5-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	6
Hyuga.....1917	1918	29,990	683	94	28	45,000 (23 kts.)	12 14-inch; 20 5.5-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	6
Fuso.....1914	1915	29,330	673	94	28½	40,000 (22.5 kts.)	12 14-inch; 16 6-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	6
Yamashiro...1915	1917	29,330	673	94	28½	40,000 (22.5 kts.)	12 14-inch; 16 6-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	6
Kongo.....1912	1913	29,330	704	92-95	27½	64,000 (27.5 kts.)	8 14-inch; 16 6-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	4
*Hiyei.....1912	1914	19,700†	704	92-95	27½	64,000 (18.0 kts.)	6 14-inch; 16 6-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Haruna.....1913	1915	29,330	704	92-95	27½	64,000 (27.5 kts.)	8 14-inch; 16 6-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	4
Kirishima...1913	1915	29,330	704	92-95	27½	64,000 (27.5 kts.)	8 14-inch; 16 6-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	4

N.B.—* Training battleship; † Normal displacement.

Aircraft Carriers

*Akagi.....1925	1927	26,900	763	92	21¾	—	10 8-inch; 4 4.7-inch; 12 4.7-inch (A.A.)	8
*Kaga.....1921	1928	26,900	715	102¾	21¾	—	10 8-inch; 4 4.7-inch; 12 4.7-inch (A.A.)	8
Hosho.....1921	1922	7,470 (Dimensions: 510×62×20¼ ft.)	—	—	—	30,000 (25 kts)	4 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	—
Ryujo.....1931	1933	7,100 (Dimensions: 503×61×15.5 ft.)	—	—	—	40,000 (25 kts)	12 5-inch (A.A.)	—

N.B.—* Originally laid down as battle-cruisers but converted into aircraft carriers as the result of Washington Treaty.

1st-class Cruisers

Atago.....1930	1932	9,850	653	57	16½	—	10 8-inch; 4 4.7-inch (A.A.)	8
Takao.....1930	1932	9,850	653	57	16½	—	10 8-inch; 4 4.7-inch (A.A.)	8
Chokai.....1931	1932	9,850	653	57	16½	—	10 8-inch; 4 4.7-inch (A.A.)	8
Maya.....1930	1932	9,850	653	57	16½	—	10 8-inch; 4 4.7-inch (A.A.)	8
Nachi.....1927	1928	10,000	630	57	16½	—	10 8-inch; 6 4.7-inch (A.A.)	12
Myoko.....1927	1929	10,000	630	57	16½	—	10 8-inch; 6 4.7-inch (A.A.)	12
Ashigara.....1928	1929	10,000	630	57	16½	—	10 8-inch; 6 4.7-inch (A.A.)	12
Haguro.....1928	1929	10,000	630	57	16½	—	10 8-inch; 6 4.7-inch (A.A.)	12
Kinukasa...1926	1927	7,100	580	50¾	14¾	100,000 (33 kts.)	6 8-inch; 4 4.7-inch (A.A.)	12
Aoba.....1926	1927	7,100	580	50¾	14¾	100,000 (33 kts.)	6 8-inch; 4 4.7-inch (A.A.)	12
Kako.....1925	1926	7,100	580	50¾	14¾	100,000 (33 kts.)	6 8-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	12
Furutaka...1925	1926	7,100	580	50¾	14¾	100,000 (33 kts.)	6 8-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	12
Nisshin.....1903	1904	7,080	357	61.11 25¼ (Max.)	13,500 (20 kts.)	—	4 8-inch; 14 6-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	4
*Kasuga.....1902	1904	7,080	357	61.11 25¼ (Max.)	13,500 (20 kts.)	—	1 10-inch; 2 8-inch	4

N.B.—* Coast defence ship.

Old 1st-class Cruisers (Coast Defence Ships)

Izumo.....1899	1900	9,180	434	68½	24¾	16,000 (20.75 kts.)	4 8-inch; 8 6-inch; 2 3-inch	4
Iwate.....1900	1901	9,180	434	68½	24¾	16,000 (20.75 kts.)	4 8-inch; 8 6-inch; 2 3-inch	4
Asama.....1898	1899	9,240	442	67¾	24¾	—	4 8-inch; 8 6-inch; 4 3-inch (A.A.)	4
Azuma.....1899	1900	9,227	452¾	59½	25	—	4 8-inch; 12 6-inch	4
*Yakumo...1899	1900	9,010	434	64¾	23¾	—	4 8-inch; 12 6-inch	4

N.B.—* Employed as coast defence ship.

Second-class Cruisers

When launched	When completed	Standard displacement (Tons)	Length (Feet)	Beam (Feet)	Mean draught (Feet)	Horse power	Guns	Torpedo tubes
Isuzu.....1921	1923	5,700	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Nagara.....1921	1922	5,700	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Natori.....1922	1922	5,700	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Yura.....1922	1923	5,700	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Abukuma...1923	1923	5,700	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Kinu.....1922	1922	5,700	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Jintsu.....1923	1925	5,195	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Sendai.....1923	1924	5,195	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Naka.....1925	1925	5,195	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8

When launched	When completed	Standard displacement (Tons)	Length (Feet)	Beam (Feet)	Mean draught (Feet)	Horse power	Guns	Torpedo tubes
Kuma.....1919	1920	5,100	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Tama.....1920	1921	5,100	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
O-i.....1920	1921	5,100	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Kitakami...1920	1921	5,100	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Kiso.....1920	1921	5,100	535	46¾	15	90,000 (31 kts.)	7 5.5-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	8
Yubari.....1923	1924	2,890	435	39½	11.9	—	6 5.5-inch; 1 3-inch (A.A.)	4
Tatsuta.....1918	1919	3,230	468	40¾	13	51,000 (31 kts.)	4 5.5-inch; 1 3-inch (A.A.)	6
Tenryu.....1918	1919	3,230	468	40¾	13	51,000 (31 kts.)	4 5.5-inch; 1 3-inch (A.A.)	6
Hirado.....1911	1912	4,400	475	46½	16½	22,500 (26 kts.)	8 6-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	3
Yahagi.....1911	1912	4,400	475	46½	16½	22,500 (26 kts.)	8 6-inch; 2 3-inch (A.A.)	3

Old Cruiser (Coast Defence Ships)

Tsushima...1902	1904	3,420*	334¾	44	16	—	6 6-inch; 8 3-inch (A.A.)	—
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N.B.—*Normal

Destroyers

Boats over 1,000 tons are officially rated first class, and those of 600-1,000 tons, second class.

Period	No. of ships of same type	Class	Construction		Standard displacement (Tons)	Dimensions: Length, beam, max. draught	Horse power	Fuel (coal, oil) (Tons)	Guns	Torpedo tubes
			First begun	Last completed						
1st	24	Fubuki.....1926	Bldg.	1,700	367½×34×10¾	50,000	400	6 5.1-inch	9	
	12	Mutsuki.....1923	1925-27	1,315	320×30×9¾	40,000	350	4 4.7-inch	6	
	9	Kamikaze...1922	1922-25	1,270	320×30×9¾	38,500	315	4 4.7-inch	6	
	15	Minekaze...1918	1922	1,215	320×29¼×9¾	38,500	315	4 4.7-inch	6	
	2	Tanikaze.....1916	1919	1,180	320×29¼×9¾	28,000	315	3 4.7-inch	6	
2nd	4	Amatsukaze..1915	1917	1,105	310×28×10½	27,000	145+195	4 4.7-inch	6	
	1	Urakaze.....1913	1915	810	275×27¼×10½	22,000	248	{ 1 4.7-inch 4 12-pdr. }	4	
1st	7	Wakatake...1921	1924	820-770	275×26×8-8¼	21,000	275	3 4.7-inch	4	
	6	Ashi.....1920	1922							
	13	Momi.....1918	1920							
2nd	8	Momo.....1915	1916	755	275×25×7¾-8	16,000	90+210	3 4.7-inch	6	
	6	Nos. 1-6.....1923	1928	615	235×26½×7¾	2,000	—	{ 2 4.7-inch 2 3-inch A.A. }	Nil	
Mine Sweepers	2	Nos. 7-8.....1910	1912	1,030	323×28×9	19,500	250/180	{ 2 4.7-inch 5 3-inch }	Nil	
	2	Nos. 9-10...1917	1918	750	275×25×7¾	16,000	92/212	3 4.7-inch	Nil	

Submarines

Total 68: 64 completed, 4 ordered or authorized

1st Class

Type	No.	Date of Construction	Displacement (Tons)	Horse power	Torpedo tubes	Maximum draught (Feet)
"i"	(65, 66, 67, 68, 69)	1927—	1,638	—	6	16
"i"	(61, 62, 64)	1926—1929	1,635	60,000	8	16½
"i"	(53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 63)	1924—1929	1,635	60,000	8	16½
"i"	(51, 52)	1921—1925	1,390	5,200—6,000	8	17
"i"	(21, 22, 23, 24)	1924—1928	1,142	4,000	4	14½
"i"	(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)	1923—1929	1,955	6,000	6	16
"ro"	(60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68)	1921—1926	988	2,400	6	13
"ro"	(51, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59)...	1918—1923	893	2,400	6	12½

2nd Class

"ro"	(29, 30, 31, 32)	1921—1925	665	2,400	6	12
"ro"	(26, 27, 28)	1921—1924	746	2,600	4	12
"ro"	(16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25)	1919—1924	735	2,600	6	12
"ro"	(14, 15)	—1921	736	2,600	6	12

Summary of Naval Units

Class	Number		Total tonnage			Depreciated tonnage (1929)
	1929	1930	1929	1930 Standard displacement	Normal displacement	
Battleships and battle-cruisers...	10	10	304,433	271,890	27,500	109,297
Aircraft carriers	3	3	65,658	—	65,658	58,133
Cruisers and light cruisers	37	37	242,854	163,050	67,517	113,327
Destroyers	99	101	108,273	95,775	—	43,906
Submarines.....	66	67	71,600	—	72,552	47,807
Miscellaneous craft	11	14	5,566	800	5,035	1,627
Total.....			798,394	531,515	238,262	374,097
Total number of personnel			75,000			

The depreciated tonnage is calculated as follows:

(1) For battleships, battle-cruisers, coast-defence ships, monitors, aircraft carriers and miscellaneous vessels a reduction in original tonnage at the rate of 1/20 per annum from date of completion.

(2) For cruisers and light cruisers, a reduc-

tion of 1/17 per annum from date of completion.

(3) For torpedo craft and submarines, a reduction of 1/12 per annum from date of completion.

Under the heading "Miscellaneous Craft", only sloops, gunboats, river gunboats and despatch vessels are shown.

Number and Tonnage

(in thousands of tons)

Only units actually completed in the years in question have been considered.

	1913		1919		1928		1929	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
Battleships	23 ¹	337.8	25 ²	475.5	10 ³	303.2	10 ⁴	304.4
Cruisers	18 ⁴	159.0	24 ⁵	141.2	35	222.9	37	242.8
Destroyers and torpedo boats ...	119	28.7	93	44.8	96	103.1	99	108.3
Submarines.....	15	63.5	26 ⁷	11.3	73	72.3	66	71.6
Miscellaneous.....	9	6.9	8	5.8	12 ⁸	6.6	11 ⁹	5.6

2 dreadnoughts, 5 battle-cruisers, 2 first-class battleships and 14 other battleships.

5 dreadnoughts, 7 battle-cruisers (including 2 of the dreadnought class), 2 semi-dreadnoughts (first-class battleships) and 11 other battleships.

6 battleships and 4 battle-cruisers.

7 first class cruisers, 3 first-class armoured cruisers (coast defence), 7 second-class cruisers

and 11 protected cruisers.

9 first-class cruisers, 7 second-class cruisers (including 1 coast defence); exclusive of 4 cruisers under construction and 1 cruiser launched in 1919 but not yet completed, 4 protected cruisers and 4 obsolete cruisers.

Approximate tonnage

Gunboats

Not including 3 aircraft carriers (65,658 tons)

SECTION III. AVIATION

1. MILITARY AVIATION

Two Army officers who were trained in France and returned home in 1911 were the first airmen in Japan, followed by two others in 1912 and three in 1913. In 1919, an aviation section was created in the Army Department and the first army aviation school was opened

at Tokorozawa (near Tokyo) in 1920 to give training to about 100 students including both commissioned and non-commissioned officers, besides admitting a few civilians. In 1922, two military aviation schools were newly established, one at Shimoshizu (Chiba prefecture) and the other at Akeno (Miye prefecture). Since

1917 the Army has yearly bought powerful machines from Europe, at the same time making best efforts to produce them at home, at State and private factories.

Japan sent an aviation mission to the Italian front during the World War in August, 1918, it consisting of 22 officers (1 died there) and over 70 artisans. They returned home in August 1919. Equally noteworthy was the arrival in February, 1919, of some 60 French army aviators headed by Col. Faure, for giving training to Japanese army aviators, and also the participation with marked success of the army and navy aviators in the Tsingtao campaign of 1914.

In June 1925, the Army aviation corps were made independent and on equal footing as infantry, cavalry, field artillery, etc., and at the same time each air battalion was reorganized into an air regiment. Simultaneously with the independence of the air force two bombing regiments were newly added to the force.

In 1927 a section of Army flight officers received special training in bombing practice at Akenogahara aerodrome under a French expert.

Expansion of Air Force.—To strengthen the air force to suitable level, the Army authorities drew up in 1925 an expansion program which was put into execution the following year, the object being to create 1 bombing battalion, 1 reconnoitring battalion and 1 fighting battalion, each consisting of 3 companies, as the first period expansion work. On principle, one air regiment is organized with 3 companies in ordinary time, each company being equipped with 12 machines for a fighting corps and 9 machines for reconnoitring. The 1st, 4th, 5th and 7th regiments are to be increased to 4 companies each, and 1 company is to be added to 8th regiment. Similarly the balloon corps will have 1 additional company. The expansion program was completed by the end of 1932.

Organization of Air Regiments.—The Army air force consists at present of 8 flying regiments, i.e. 11 reconnoitring, 11 fighting and 4 bombing companies and 2 balloon corps, organized with 6,900 officers and men, equipped with 800 standing machines. The headquarters of these air regiments are located as follows:

1st Regiment (4 air companies) and 2nd Regiment (2 air companies) at Kagamigahara, Gifu prefecture; 3rd Regiment (3 air com-

panies) at Yokaichi, Shiga prefecture; 4th Regiment (3 air companies) at Tachiarai, Fukuoka prefecture; 5th Regiment (4 air companies) at Tachikawa, Tokyo; 6th Regiment (3 air companies) at Heijo (Pingyang), Chosen; 7th Regiment (4 air companies) at Hamamatsu, Shizuoka prefecture; 8th Regiment (2 air companies) at Koshun, Taiwan; Balloon Corps (2 companies) at Tsugamura, Chiba prefecture.

General Mobilization Practice.—Under the superintendence of the National Resources Board a general mobilization practice was carried out, for the first time in Japan, between June 24 and July 3, 1929, in the prefectures of Kyoto, Osaka and Hyogo including the industrial centers of Osaka and Kobe, to test the efficiency of industrial production, manufacture of the war supplies, distribution and transportation of goods, etc. The practice requisitioned all principal industrial concerns and factories, schools, young men's associations and local authorities of the prefectures concerned, and the National Resources Board, the Army, the Navy, Departments of Home Affairs, Commerce & Industry, Agriculture & Forestry, Education, Communications and Railways. The results were highly satisfactory.

Air Defence Provisions.—The defence plan as decided in 1929 provides for the completion of the defence arrangements against air raids by 1931 in Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya and other important cities at the estimate cost of ¥5½ millions as a work spread over 3 years. The program for Tokyo consists of the equipments of anti-aircraft guns, anti-aircraft machine guns, search lights and other necessary provision.

Home-made Motors for the Army.—The Tokyo Gas & Electric Industrial Co. has succeeded after repeated experiments in turning out aeroplane motors (130 h.p.) made of home materials. The motors passed the official time test for 50 hours run with highly satisfying record in the spring of 1928, and though rather simple in form of mechanism, they require less fuel than the French or German motors (Lorraine and B.M.W.) but are none the less efficient.

Adoption of Home-made Planes.—The French aeroplanes (Salmson 230 h.p.) which have been employed for reconnoitring purpose in the Army air service since 1919 have been replaced by the home-made planes (semi-metallic B.M.W. 450 h.p.) manufactured at the

Kawasaki and Ishikawajima aeroplane works. The home-made machines are reputed to develop a speed two times that of the French machines and are far superior to them in other respects.

2. NAVAL AVIATION

Naval aviation in Japan dates from 1912 when our officers trained in France and America returned home. It was not long before a training ground was established at Oppama near Yokosuka and an experimental course was started. From 1912 till 1917, the sum yearly disbursed on this account amounted to ¥3-400,000, to increase in 1918 to ¥1 million and to ¥2 millions in 1919, the total aggregating ¥5,800,000 in ten years. From 1921 to 1922 the British air experts headed by Captain Senville gave thorough training at Kasumigaura to our flight officers whose efficiency has in consequence made striking improvement. Thus the Japanese navy aviation is indebted for the marked progress it has attained to the tutoring of British flight officers just as the Army air service to that of French flight officers. An expansion program completed by March 1923, brought the strength of the naval air force up to 10 fleets, 72 machines, 1 tender squadron and 1 zeppelin corps, these being distributed to Yokosuka, Kasumigaura and Sasebo. In April 1927, an aviation department was created in the Navy following the example set by the Army and in April 1928 a tender squadron was organized as a unit of the standing fleet, it consisting of the Akagi (flagship), Hosho, and two destroyers.

Further Expansion Scheme.—In view of the trend of the times and the backward situation of the present air service, the Navy authorities formed in 1929 a plan to create a few air fleets in the course of three years and to effect diverse improvements of the service, as, for instance, the creation of an air fleet depot at Tateyama outside Tokyo Bay and an aeronautical experiment institute at Yokosuka, etc.

The completion of the expansion plan in 1931 has increased the strength of the air force to 16½ fleets consisting of 132 machines, besides 4 tender ships, 10 balloons and 2 airships, these being apportioned as follows:—

Base	Strength
Kasumigaura	7 fleets (56 machines) and 1 zeppelin corps (2 ships)
Yokosuka	2½ fleets (20 machines) and 1 balloon corps (10 balloons)
Tateyama	3 fleets (24 machines)

Base	Strength
Kure	½ fleet (4 machines)
Sasebo	1½ fleets (12 machines)
Omura	2 fleets (16 machines)

The unit of 1 fleet (which corresponds to 1 flying company of the Army air force) being 8 machines with several reserve machines, the aggregate strength of the Navy air service as it stands now is 800 machines including reserve machines, about 9,800 officers and privates.

The above is the existing status of the air force belonging to the respective naval stations. Besides, there is certain number of seaplanes carried on board the tender ships Akagi, Kaga, Hosho and Ryujo, the special service ship Noto the Nagato, Mutsu and other battleships, battle-cruisers and light cruisers, each carrying a few machines.

The annual allotment for the upkeep of this standing force is on ordinary account ¥16 millions, and 70 per cent replacement policy is to be pursued.

Tender Ships.—Prior to the Washington Conference the Japanese navy had only one tender ship, namely, the Hosho (7,470 tons; 25 knots). Following the example of the U.S. Navy Japan has converted the battle-cruiser Akagi (26,900 tons) and the battleship Kaga (also 26,900 tons) into tender ships. The former was completed in 1927 and commissioned in 1928, and the latter completed in 1928 and put to commission the same year. They are the pride of the Japanese navy. The Ryujo (7,600 tons) built at the Yokosuka navy yard (completed and commissioned in May 1933) is the latest addition to the list of tender ships of the kind.

The Navy aviation department has decided to adopt the system of youthful aviators, candidates to be selected from among lads of 15 to 17 years old and after going through necessary training to be appointed navy aviators ranking as petty officers. The training institution was opened at Yokosuka in May 1930.

3. CIVILIAN AVIATION

Though dating about 15 years ago, it was not till the creation of the Aviation Bureau in August 1920, first as part of the Army, but now under control of the Minister of Communications, that a new epoch opened in the history of aviation in Japan. So marked has been the progress in recent years that regular flying ser-

vices, for instance, are now conducted between Tokyo and Dairen via Osaka, Kyushu and Chosen, and between Tokyo and Niigata and between Sakai (near Osaka) and Shikoku. The International Convention pertaining to Aerial Navigation, signed at Paris in October 1919, became effective in Japan in June 1922, and Japan enacted in April 1921 the Aerial Navigation Law, which took effect in June 1927.

The Army Aviation Board at first controlled both military and civilian aviation, but the latter branch was transferred to the Communications Department in 1923, and at last the long pending scheme to create two aerial routes (Tokyo-Dairen via Chosen and Osaka-Shanghai via Fukuoka) was carried into effect in the spring of 1929, the State aerodromes (landing stations) having been established at Tachikawa (near Tokyo), Osaka, Fukuoka, Keijo and Dairen, these being open to the free use of aviators in general. The radio stations have been established at important points along the air routes, these being located at Hakone, Kamayama, Fukuoka, Tsushima and Goto. Two more air routes, one to Mukden and the other to Etorop (in the Kuriles) are contemplated. Then for the benefit of civilian aviators the Aviation Board is granting small bounty for the upkeep and repairs and also for loss of planes.

Regular Air Transport Service.—The Japan Air Transport Co. started the air service in April 1929, on the lines between Tokyo and Fukuoka and between Urusan (Chosen) and Dairen. The service on the intermediate line, i.e. between Fukuoka and Urusan was commenced in June same year, and at the same time a direct air mail service between Tokyo and Dairen was established. Then on July 15 was started the passenger carrying service on the Tokyo-Osaka-Dairen line, this departure being memorable as the first oversea air

transport service undertaken in this country. The distance of 1,320 miles between Tokyo and Dairen is covered by relay flights of 1 day and a half including five intermediate landings, the actual flying time being only 13 hours. In order to assure safety for passengers to Chosen and Manchuria who have to cross the Chosen Strait (a distance of 150 miles requiring a flight of 2 hours), tri-motored Fokker airplanes accommodating 8 persons are used, the planes being equipped with a life-belt for each passenger and 2 two-passengers life-boats of rubber. The schedule and tariff of the service are as follows:—

Line	Fare
Tokyo-Osaka and vice versa	
Twice daily (morning and afternoon) ...	¥30.00
Osaka-Dairen and vice versa	
6 times a week (daily except Sundays) ...	115.00

The passenger fare between Tokyo and Dairen and vice versa is ¥145 which is divided into five sections as follows:—

Line	Fare
Tokyo-Osaka	¥30.00
Osaka-Fukuoka	35.00
Fukuoka-Urusan	18.00
Urusan-Keijo (Seoul)	22.00
Keijo-Heijo	13.00
Heijo-Dairen	27.00

Besides the above, there are at present three air transport services, namely, (1) between Osaka and Matsuyama (Shikoku) maintained by the Nippon Koku Yuso Kenkyusho, (2) between Tokyo and Shimizu by the Tokyo Koku Yuso-sha and (3) between Tokyo and Niigata by the Teiki Koku-kai of the Asahi Shimbun Company, the last named being limited only to the conveyance of mail and parcels during the summer months. Appended is the schedule of the regular air services maintained by the respective concerns:—

Regular Air Service

Company	Line	Distance (km.)	No. of flights (Per week)	Service
Nippon Koku Yuso Kabushiki Kaisha	Tokyo-Osaka	425	12 times	Passengers, parcels, mail
	Osaka-Fukuoka	500	6 "	
	Fukuoka-Urusan	240	6 "	
	Urusan-Keijo	310	6 "	
	Keijo-Heijo	200	6 "	
	Heijo-Dairen	400	6 "	
	Osaka-Fukuoka	500	6 "	
	Fukuoka-Shanghai	950		
	Tokyo-Dairen			
	Osaka-Shanghai			