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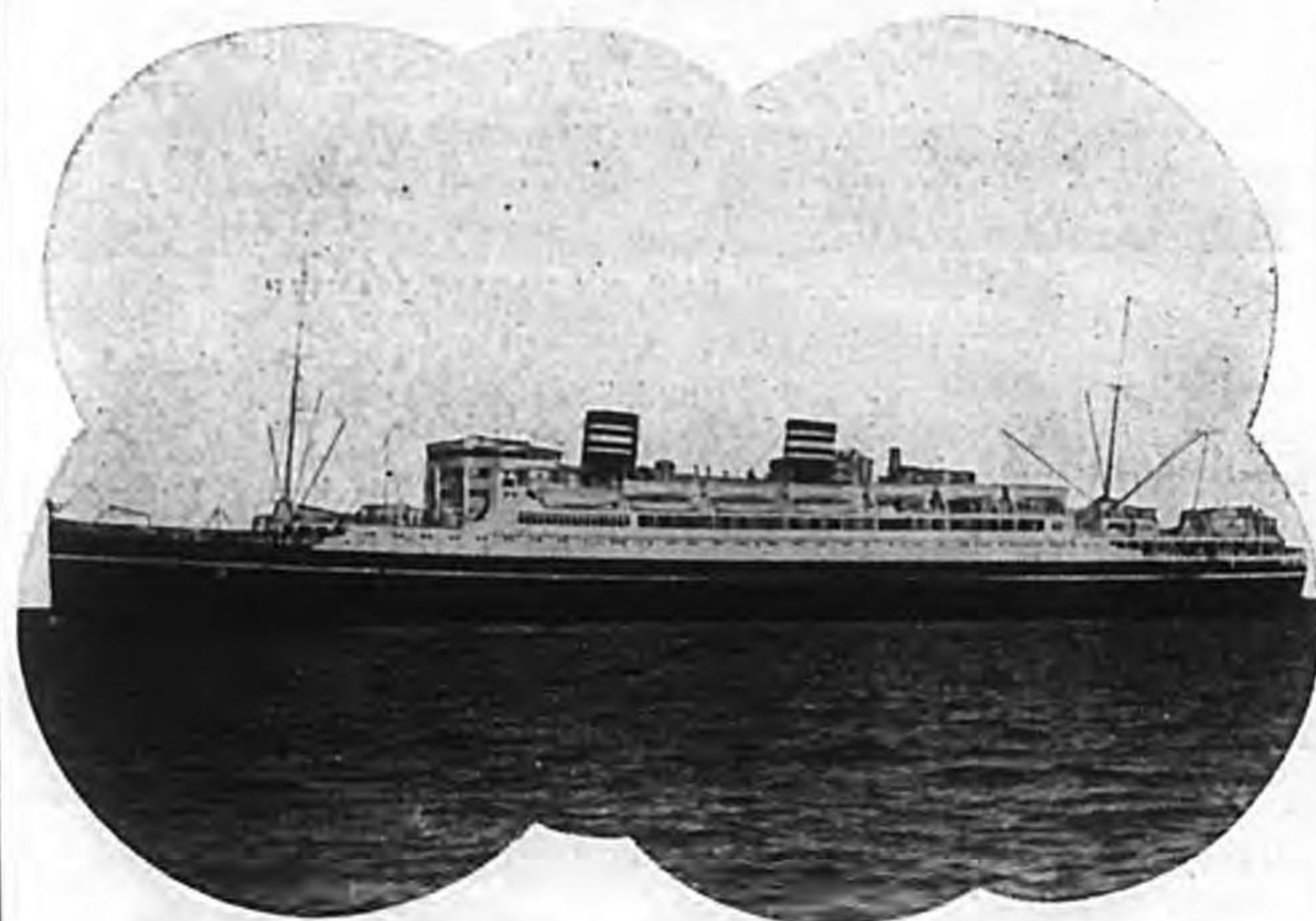
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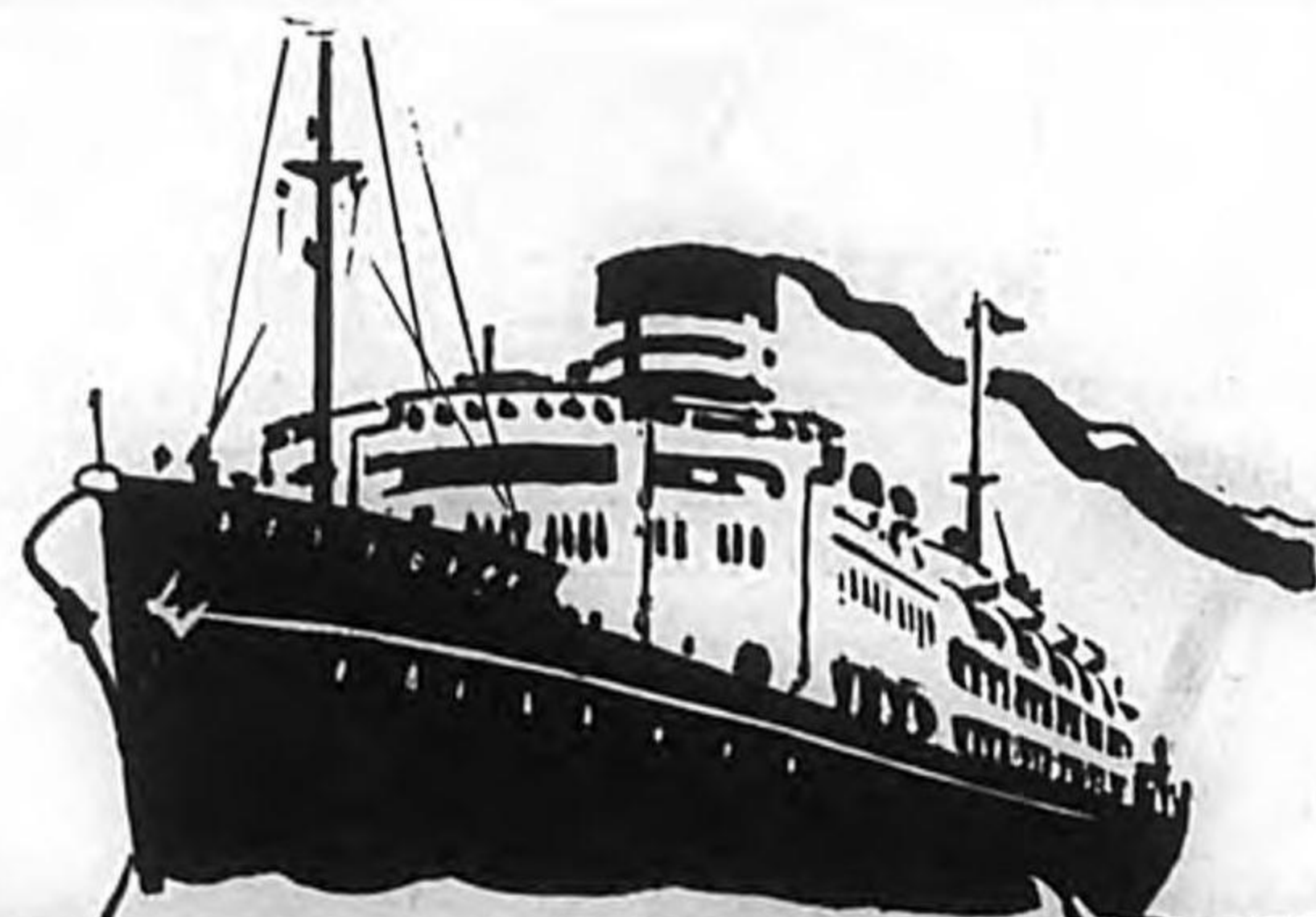
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At the conclusion of the Japan Year Book, 1934, the Editor has endeavored to preserve the features which characterized the preceding editions, while adding to it new ones. The chapters have been more carefully and revised so as to bring the material up to date and to give a balance between the various sections. In this respect the systems and their changes have had to be slightly or partially revised.

1935

With the selection and classification of material the original plan and to the greatest extent of the Year Book has been followed as far as possible in order to present the subject as it is before the reader.

Tetsuo Saitoh, Editor

THE FOREIGN AFFAIRS ASSOCIATION OF JAPAN

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JAPAN YEAR BOOK

1935

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PREFACE

In the compilation of The Japan Year Book, 1935, care has been taken to preserve the features which characterized the preceding editions, while adding some new ones. All the chapters have been gone over thoroughly and revised so as to bring the material up to date and to insure greater balance as between the various sections. In this attempt some sections and even chapters have had to be entirely or partially re-written.

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

Tokyo, September, 1935

K. Inahara, *Editor*

JAPANESE WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Weights

Kan (Kwan)=1,000 mommé	= { 8.26733 lb. (Avoir.) 10.04711 lb. (Troy) }	=3.75000 kilogrammes
Mommé	= { 0.13228 oz. (Avoir.) 0.12057 oz. (Troy) }	=3.75000 grammes
Kin=160 mommé	= { 1.32277 lb. (Avoir.) 1.60754 lb. (Troy) }	=0.60000 kilogramme
Koku (fish)=40 kan		
Metric system,		
Kilogramme	= 2.20459 pounds (Avoir.)	=0.26667 kan
Gramme	=15.43210 grains (Avoir.)	=0.26667 mommé
Ton	=1,000 kilogrammes	=2,204.6 pounds
Gross Ton	=1,016.064 kilogrammes	=2,240 pounds

Measures of Length

Ri=36 cho=2,160 ken=2.44030 miles	=3.92727 kilometres
Ken=6 shaku	=5.96516 feet=1.81818 metres
Shaku=10 sun	=0.99419 foot=0.30303 metre
Shaku (cloth measure)	=1.25 shaku
Tan (a roll of cloth)	=about 35 shaku
Metric system,	
Kilometre	=0.62137 mile=3,280 feet 10 inches=9.16667 cho

Measures of Surface

Square ri=1,296 cho=5.95505 sq. miles	=15.42347 sq. kilometres
Cho (chobu)=10 tan=3,000 tsubo=2.45064 acres	=99.17355 ares
Tsubo (bu)=3.95369 sq. yards	=3.30579 centiares
Ko (Formosa)=2,934 tsubo	
Metric system,	
Hectare	=10,000 m ² =2.471 acres=1.00833 cho
Are	=100 m ² =119.6 sq. yards=30.25000 bu
Sq. kilometre	=0.386 sq. mile=247.10 acres=0.06484 sq. ri

Measures of Capacity

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

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MAP OF JAPAN
(In Separate Envelope)



THE IMPERIAL COURT

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

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

H.I.M. THE EMPEROR

His Imperial Majesty HIROHITO, Emperor of Japan, 1st son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born in the Aoyama Palace, Tokyo, on April 29, 1901, and shortly afterwards was entrusted for bringing up to the family of Count Kawamura (Sumiyoshi),² a retired Admiral. Upon the Count's death in 1903, the Imperial Prince entered the Imperial Palace, with Marquis Kido (Takamasa) and later Mr. Kinsaku Maruo, chamberlain at the Aoyama Palace, in charge of his affairs. At the age of 7, he entered the elementary department of the Peers' School. In 1912, the year of his father's accession to the Throne, he was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army and Sub-

lieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy and decorated with the Grand Cordon of the Chrysanthemum.

On completion of the elementary course in the Peers' School in 1914, he continued the study of various subjects in a special school instituted for the purpose under Admiral Togo. Promotion to the ranks of Lieutenant in the Army and Sublieutenant, 1st Class in the Navy came the same year; to Captain and Lieutenant in 1916, and to Major and Lieutenant-Commander in 1920. Ending his special studies in 1921, His Majesty toured Europe, the first Crown Prince to do so.

Because of the Emperor Taisho's illness, he was appointed Regent on November 25, 1921. Two years later, his ranks in the defence services were raised to those of Lieutenant-Colonel and Commander. Marriage to Princess Nagako took place on January 26, 1924. In 1925, he was promoted to the ranks of Colonel in the Army and Captain in the Navy. On the demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25, 1926, he succeeded to the Throne, and the new era was named Showa, meaning Light and Peace. Formal installation took place in Kyoto on November 10, 1928, and the grand ceremony of making offerings to the Imperial Ancestors was held on November 14 and 15.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS

Her Imperial Majesty NAGAKO, Empress of Japan, was born on

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

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

March 6, 1903, 3rd child and 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince¹ Kuni (Kuniyoshi), in his residence at 1, Roppongi-machi, Azabu-ku, Tokyo. She entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in April, 1909, and advanced to the higher course in March, 1915. Shortly after becoming Crown Princess-elect on January 17, 1918, she left the Peers' School for Girls and engaged in special study at home. Imperial sanction was given for marriage to the Crown Prince in June of the same year, and their betrothal took place on September 28, 1922. At that time she was decorated with the 1st Order of Merit. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on the day of the marriage, January 26, 1924, and Empress on December 25, 1926.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS DOWAGER

Her Imperial Majesty SADAHO, the Empress Dowager, was born on June 25, 1884, 4th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michitaka) [Peer], a Court noble of the first rank. She entered the Peers' School for Girls in 1890 and advanced to the higher course six years later, leaving in 1899. Her marriage to Crown Prince Yoshihito, later the Emperor Taisho, took place on May 10, 1900. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on that day; Empress on July 30, 1912, and Empress Dowager on December 25, 1926. Her Majesty now resides in the Omiya Palace, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H.I.H. THE CROWN PRINCE

H. I. H. Imperial Prince TSUGUNO-MIYA (Akihito) was born on

¹ Imperial Prince (Shinno) or Prince (5) means Prince of the Blood except when the name is followed by the word Peer in brackets, thus [Peer]. For the difference between Imperial Prince and Prince see the Imperial House Law, Chapter VII, Art. XXXI (Appendix).

December 23, 1933, and is Heir-Apparent.

DAUGHTERS OF THE EMPEROR

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

H. I. H. Imperial Princess TAKA (Kazuko) was born on September 30, 1929.

H. I. H. Imperial Princess YORI (Atsuko) was born on March 7, 1931.

BROTHERS OF THE EMPEROR

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

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

Marriage to Miss Setsuko Matsu-daira, born on September 9, 1909, 1st daughter of Mr. Tsuneo Matsu-

daira (at present Ambassador to the Court of St. James's), took place on September 28, 1928. The Imperial Prince was promoted to the rank of captain in 1930 and to that of major in 1935. After a course in the Military Staff College and a term as Company Commander in the 3rd Infantry Regiment, he was attached to the General Staff, then removed to Hirosaki as Battalion Commander in the 31st Infantry Regiment on August 1, 1935. His residence is at Omoté-cho, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

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

In 1925, on appointment Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy, he was ordered to take up duties aboard the battleship Fuso. At the same time, he was decorated with the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum. Promotion to the rank of Sublieutenant, 1st Class came in 1927.

On February 4, 1930, he married Miss Kikuko Tokugawa, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshihisa) [Peer], who was born on December 26, 1911. The mother of the Princess was the 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, whose house Imperial Prince Takamatsu revived. In April of the same year, the Imperial Prince and his consort made a tour of the world, partly to return the courtesies shown by King George V of England in sending a mission to Japan to present the Order of the Garter to the

Emperor. They returned to Japan in June, 1931, and took up residence in a new house at Takanawa, Shibaku, Tokyo. The Imperial Prince, now a Lieutenant, is a student in the Naval War College.

H. I. H. Imperial Prince SUMI (Takahito), 4th son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on December 2, 1915. He entered the Peers' School in 1922 and left in 1932 to enter the Military Academy. A special residence is maintained for him in the park of the Aoyama Palace.

OTHER IMPERIAL PRINCES AND PRINCES

In addition to those of the Emperor's brothers, there are 11 Houses of Imperial male descendants:

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

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

Court noble of the first rank.

The heir is H. I. H. Prince Kan-in (Haruhito); Captain in the Cavalry, the 2nd son, who was born on August 3, 1902. He was graduated from the Odawara Middle School in 1921, appointed Lieutenant in 1927, promoted to the rank of Captain in 1932 and in the same year, following a course in the Military Staff College, given command of a company in the 16th Cavalry Regiment at Narashino. On July 14, 1926, he married Princess Ichijo (Naoko), 4th daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Saneteru) [Peer], a Court noble of the first rank, who was born on November 7, 1908.

The House of Kan-in was founded in 1718 by Prince Naohito, a son of the Emperor Higashiyama. The residence is at Nagata-cho, Kojimachiku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-FUSHIMI. The House is extinct except for H. I. H. Imperial Princess Higashi-Fushimi (Kaneko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Higashi-Fushimi (Yorihito), who married her on February 10, 1898 and died in 1922. She was born on August 29, 1876, 1st daughter of the late Prince Iwakura (Tomosada) [Peer]. The residence is at Tokiwamatsu-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

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

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Tsuneko), was born on September 23, 1882, 9th daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshinobu)

[Peer]. They were married on January 9, 1897. The 1st son and heir, H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyoshi), Commander in the Navy, was born on December 8, 1897, and graduated from the Naval College in 1917. He married, on December 23, 1919, Tokiko, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Saneteru) [Peer], who was born on June 20, 1902. Their 1st son, H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroaki), was born on January 26, 1932. Their first daughter, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Mitsuko), was born on July 28, 1929.

The second daughter, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Yoshiko) was born on February 14, 1933.

The third daughter, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Ayako) was born on February 11, 1934.

Also members of the House are H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hirohidé), 4th son of H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu), who was born on October 4, 1912.

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

YAMASHINA. The 3rd head of the House, H. I. H. Prince Yamashina (Takehiko), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy, was born on February 13, 1898, 1st son of the late Prince Yamashina (Kikumaro). He was appointed Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy in August, 1919, and on July 19, 1922, married Princess Kaya (Sakiko), who died in the great earthquake the following year. The Prince now leads a retired life in his residence at Fujimi-cho, Kojimachiku, Tokyo.

His step-mother, H. I. H. Princess Yamashina (Hisako), was born on February 7, 1874, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer].

The House of Yamashina was founded in 1864 by the late Prince

Yamashina (Akira), 1st son of H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Kuniyô), who had earlier entered the priesthood and taken the name Kanshujû.

KAYA. The 2nd head of the House, H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Tsunenori), Lieutenant-Colonel in the Cavalry, was born on January 27, 1900, 1st son of the founder, the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori). He was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Cavalry in 1920 and is now Lieutenant-Colonel and Commander of the 10th Cavalry Regiment. On March 9, 1934, he left Tokyo, with his consort, for a tour round the world and returned to Tokyo on September 18 of the same year.

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

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

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

KUNI. H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Asakira), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy, 3rd of the line, was born on February 2, 1901, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi). His consort, H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Tomoko), whom he married on January 26, 1925, was born

on May 18, 1907, 3rd daughter of H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu). There are four children: H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Kuniaki), born on March 25, 1929; H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Masako), born on December 8, 1926; H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Asako), born on October 23, 1927; and the third daughter, H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Michiko) was born on September 4, 1933.

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

H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Taka), Chief Priest of the Grand Shrines of Isé, 5th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko), was born on August 17, 1875. His consort, H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Shizuko), whom he married on March 9, 1907, was born on September 25, 1884, 1st daughter of the late Viscount Minasé (Takasuké). There are three children: H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Iyéhiko), born on March 17, 1920; H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Norihiko), born on November 19, 1922, and H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Kuniko), born on May 18, 1917.

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

NASHIMOTO. H. I. H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa), Field Marshal, was born on March 9, 1874, 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko); ordered to inherit the Nashimotos, December 2, 1885; entered Central Military Preparatory School, 1886; graduated from Military Academy, May 27, 1898; Second Lieutenant, January, 1899; Captain, March 1901; sent to Europe for study, 1903; returned home

and immediately sent to the front at the Russo-Japanese War, 1904; again in Europe for study, August 1906—July, 1909; Lieutenant-General and Commander of the 16th Division, August, 1917; High Military Councilor, November, 1919; General, August, 1923; Field Marshal, August, 8, 1932.

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

ASAKA. H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Yasuhiko), Lieutenant-General, was born on October 2, 1887, 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Asaka in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army in 1908, studied in Europe from 1922 to 1925 and is now Commander of the Imperial Guard Division.

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Asaka (Nobuko), whom he married on May 6, 1910, was born on August 7, 1891, 8th daughter of the Emperor Meiji and died on November 3, 1933. There are three children: H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Takahiko), Second lieutenant, 1st son, born on October 8, 1912; H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Tadahiko), 2nd son, born on January 5, 1914, and H. I. H. Princess Asaka (Kiyoko), 2nd daughter, born on August 2, 1919. The residence is at Shirokané Dai-machi, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-KUNI. H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Naruhiko), Lieutenant-General, was born on December 3, 1887, 9th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Higashi-Kuni in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Infantry in 1908, studied in France from 1920 to 1927, was given command of the 3rd Infantry

Regiment of the Imperial Guard Division in 1928, was promoted to command of the Nagoya Brigade in 1930 and is now Commander of the Fourth Division (Osaka).

H. I. H. Imperial Princess Higashi-Kuni (Toshiko), his consort, whom he married on May 18, 1915, was born on May 11, 1896, 9th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. There are three sons: H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Morihiro), 1st son, born on May 6, 1916; H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Akitsuné), 3rd son, born on May 13, 1920, and H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Toshihiko), 4th son, born on March 24, 1929. The residence is at Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo.

KITASHIRAKAWA. H. I. H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Nagahisa), Lieutenant in the Artillery, 4th of the line, was born on February 19, 1910, only son of the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), who died in Paris in 1923. His consort, H. I. H. Princess Sachiko, whom he married on April 26, 1935, was born on August 26, 1916, second daughter of Baron Yoshikuni Tokugawa.

H. I. H. Imperial Princess Kitashirakawa (Tomiko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa), 2nd of the line, was born on October 1, 1862, 2nd daughter of the late Marquis Daté (Muné-nori) and later adopted daughter of the late Prince Shimazu (Hisamitsu) [Peer].

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

The House of Kitashirakawa was founded in 1870 by the late Imperial

Prince Kitashirakawa (Tomonari), 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kuniyé). The residence is at Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

TAKÉDA. H. I. H. Prince Takéda (Tsuneyoshi), Lieutenant in the Cavalry, 2nd of the line, was born on March 4, 1909, only son of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa). He married Miss Mitsuko, second daughter of Prince Sanjo (Kinteru) [Peer], on May 12, 1934.

H. I. H. Imperial Princess Takéda (Masako), consort of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa), was born on September 30, 1888, 6th daughter of the Emperor Meiji.

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

Korean Royalty

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

H. H. Prince RI (Gin), Colonel in the Infantry, head of the House of Shotoku-kyu since the death in 1926 of his brother, Prince RI (Seki), former Emperor, was born on October 20, 1897, 7th son of the late Grand Prince RI (Kei). He studied at the Peers' School in Tokyo and the Military Academy in preparation for a military career. He was promoted to the rank of captain on August 1, 1935, and appointed Commander of the 59th Infantry Regiment.

H. H. Princess RI (Masako), whom he married in 1920, was born on November 4, 1901, 1st daughter of H. I. H. Prince Nashimoto (Mori-

masa). On promotion to the rank of captain in 1923, the Prince was attached for a time to the Headquarters of the General Staff and in 1927-28 he and Princess RI made a year's tour of Europe. They have a daughter RI (Kyu) who was born on December 29, 1931.

H. H. Princess IN, consort of the late Prince RI (Seki), was born on September 19, 1894, 1st daughter of Marquis In Taku-yei.

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

H. H. Prince RI (Ken), Lieutenant in the Cavalry, heir of the retired Prince RI (Ko), was born on October 28, 1909. On graduation from the Military Academy in 1930, he was appointed Lieutenant in the Cavalry.

H. H. Princess RI (Yoshiko), whom Prince RI (Ken) married in 1931, was born on October 6, 1911, 1st daughter of Captain Yutaka Matsudaira, of the Navy. Their first son, RI (Chu), was born on August 14, 1932, second son RI (Ki) was born on March, 1935.

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

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

H. H. Princess RI (Sanshu), whom Prince RI (Gu) married on May 3, 1935, was born on November 11, 1914, granddaughter of Marquis Boku-Ei.

H. H. Princess RI, consort of the

late Prince Ri (Ki), was born on July 10, 1883, 1st daughter of Ri Rin-kyu, and married the Prince in 1901.

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

Former Princes

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

Name	Princely Father	Year of Change
Marquis Komatsu (Teruhisa)	Late Kitashirakawa (Yoshibisa)	1910
Marquis Yamashina (Yoshimaro)	" Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1920
Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1926
Marquis Tsukuba (Fujimaro)	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1928
Count Katsuragi (Shigemaro)	" " "	1929
Count Higashi-Fushimi (Kunihidé)	" Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	1931

Former Princesses

The following table shows Prin-

cesses of the Imperial Family and the Royal House of Chosen who have married into the families of Peers:

Name	Princely Father	Consort	Year of Marriage
Ayako	Late Kuni (Asahiko)	Late Viscount Takenouchi (Koretada)	1892
Yeiko	" "	Viscount Higashizono (Motoharu)	1899
Teiko	" Fushimi (Sadanaru)	Marquis Yamanouchi (Toyokagé)	1901
Sadako	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Count Arima (Yoriyasu)	1903
Mitsuko	" " "	Count Kanroji (Osanaga)	1904
Suzuko	" Kuni (Asahiko)	Count Mibu (Motoyoshi)	1906
Takeko	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Viscount Hoshina (Masaki)	1911
Shigeko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Kuroda (Nagamichi), heir of Marquis	1914
Yukiko	Late Kaya (Kuninori)	Machijiri (Kazumoto), heir of Viscount	1915
Hiroko	" Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Count Futaara (Yoshinori)	1915
Yukiko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Viscount Ando (Nobuaki)	1915
Yasuko	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	Asano (Nagatake), heir of Marquis	1920
Satoko	" Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	Count Otani (Kocho)	1924
Nobuko	" " "	Sanjo-nishi (Kin-osa), heir of Viscount	1924
Atsuko	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	Count Kiyozumi (Yukiyasu)	1926
Noriko	Nashimoto (Morimasa)	Count Hirohashi (Tadamitsu)	1926
Hanako	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	1926
Tokuhei	Late Ri (Kei)	Count So (Takeyuki)	1931
Kikuko	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	Nabeshima (Naoyasu), heir of Marquis	1931
Mineko	Late Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Tachibana (Tanekatsu), heir of Viscount	1933
Ayako	" Takeda (Tsunehisa)	Sano (Tsunemitsu) heir of Count	1934
Sawako	" Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Viscount Higashizono (Motobumi)	1935

Palaces, Gardens, etc.

Imperial Palace The residence of the Emperor covers an area of about 531 acres in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo. Originally built in 1457 by a provincial general, Dokan Ota, who named it Yédo Castle, it be-

came the headquarters of the Tokugawa Shogunate in the 16th century and was greatly extended. With the transfer of the capital from Kyoto to Tokyo in 1869, the second year of the Meiji Restoration, it was selected as the Imperial Residence and renamed Tokyo Castle. Much of it

was destroyed in the great fire of 1878. The present palace, built between 1880 and 1888, cost ¥3,968,000. On completion, the name was changed to Kyujo, or Imperial Palace.

(1) **Kyoto Palace.** Situated in Kamikyo-ku, Kyoto, it was the Imperial Residence for 1,075 years, from 794 A. D., when the capital was moved from Nara to Kyoto, until 1869, when the seat of government was transferred to Tokyo. In accordance with the Accession Law, the ceremony of ascension to the Throne is always held here. The grounds cover about 229 acres.

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

(3) **Omiya Palace.** Also within the park of the Aoyama Palace, it is the residence of the Empress Dowager, mother of the reigning Emperor.

(4) **Shinjuku Imperial Garden.** At Naito-Shinjuku-machi, Yotsuyaku, Tokyo, the garden was originally the site of the residence of the Lord of the Takato Clan in Shinano, but in 1879 it came under the control of the Imperial Household Department and in 1906 was given its present name. Here are held the spring and autumn Imperial garden parties.

(5) **Akasaka Detached Palace.** Also on part of the former property of the Lord of Kii, in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, it was made a detached palace in 1872 and became a temporary residence of the Imperial Family from 1873 to 1889 during the construction of the present Imperial Palace. Royal and princely visitors from abroad are guests here while in Tokyo.

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

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

(8) **Nijo Detached Palace.** Originally Nijo Castle, in Kamikyo-ku, Kyoto, it was made a detached palace in 1884.

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

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

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

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

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

(14) **Taté-ishi Rest-House.** It is located at Nishiura-mura, Miuragun, Kanagawa prefecture.

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

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

location.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

In 1930, the Nagoya Detached Palace was donated to Nagoya city; and the Odawara Imperial Villa and Shizuoka Imperial Villa were abolished, part of the latter being granted to Shizuoka city. In 1931, the Atami Imperial Villa and Kamakura Imperial Villa were abolished and the former was sold to Atami-machi.

Miyanoshta Imperial villa was abolished, December, 1933, and given to H. I. H. Imperial Prince Takamatsu.

Imperial Household Finance

The Civil List is appropriated by

the National Treasury and no approval of the Diet is necessary except when an increase in it is required. At present, it amounts to ¥4,500,000, any deficiency in it being met by an outlay from the Imperial property. The Board of Imperial Auditors is located in the Imperial Household Department and its present Director-General is Mr. Yahachi Kawai. Prince Saionji and Baron Ikki are financial advisers to the Imperial Household.

The total Imperial Household expenditure is estimated at approximately ¥20,000,000 annually and is met by the Civil List, ¥4,500,000, and by receipts from the Imperial forests, Imperial estates and other Imperial property.

The Naidaijin-fu

The Naidaijin, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, who has been so called from olden times, is a dignitary of the Imperial Household with the function of keeping the Imperial and State Seals and of administering matters regarding Imperial decrees and documents of the Imperial Household. He is a State functionary of the Shinnin rank, or one appointed directly by the Emperor, and is assisted by three secretaries in the execution of his duty.

The Imperial Household Department

The Imperial Household Department is divided into the office of the Minister of the Imperial Household and ten principal subsidiary offices, namely, the Secretariat of the Minister, the Board of Chamberlains, the Board of Ceremonies, the Imperial Family and Peerage Board, the Imperial Mausolea Bureau, the Imperial Archives Bureau, the Court Physicians Bureau, the Imperial Treasury Bureau, the Maintenance and Works Bureau, and the Imperi-

al Stables Bureau, and is charged with the conduct of affairs pertaining to the Imperial Household. There are, in addition to those above mentioned, such other institutions as follows coming under the supervision of the Minister of the Imperial Household:

The Office of H. I. M. the Empress' Household,

The Office of H. I. M. the Empress Dowager's Household,

The Office of H. I. H. Prince Sumi's Household,

The Board of the Imperial Auditors,

The Imperial Forests and Estates Board,

The Imperial Poetry Bureau,

The Imperial Museums (at Tokyo and Nara),

The Peers' School,

The Peers' School for Girls,

The Temporary Board for the Compilation of the History of the Emperor Meiji.

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

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

Name	Time of appointment
Late Prince Hirobumi Ito	Dec., 1885
Late Marquis Hisamoto Hijikata	Sept., 1887
Viscount Mitsuaki Tanaka	Feb., 1898
Late Prince Tomosada Iwakura	June, 1909
Viscount Chiaki Watanabé	April, 1910
Baron Takatada Hatano	April, 1914
Late Baron Yujiro Nakamura	June, 1920
Count Nobuaki Makino	Feb., 1921
Baron Kitokuro Ikki	Mar., 1925
Kurahel Yuasa	Mar., 1933

Court Councillors

The Court Councillors are honorary officials of the Chokunin rank, or those appointed by the Emperor,

and return reports or make recommendations on matters submitted to them for deliberation by the Minister of the Imperial Household, and, on special occasions, assist the conduct of the affairs of the Imperial Household Department by order of the Minister. At present, their number is limited to 25.

The Peerage

The modern system of the Peerage, with its five grades of Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount and Baron, dates from 1884, but prior to this there was a well-established aristocracy. Up to the time of the Meiji Restoration, there were two groups, the Court Nobles, called Kugé, most of whom were descendants of younger sons of Emperors, and the Feudal Lords, called Daimyo or Tonosama, most of whom had attained their standing through military prowess. With the Restoration, these were amalgamated under the name of Kwazoku (Peerage), meaning the "Flowers of the Nation". In 1884, an Imperial edict was issued establishing the five grades of the present Peerage, and to the members of the Kwazoku were added subjects who had assisted in the work of the Restoration. In the first list there were 11 Princes, 24 Marquises, 76 Counts, 376 Viscounts and 382 Barons.

When Chosen was annexed in 1910, 67 Koreans of distinction were selected to become Peers, six Marquises, three Counts, 22 Viscounts and 45 Barons.

The families of the Peerage stood as follows on June 19, 1933:

Grade	Number of families	Minors to succeed when of age	Unsuccessful
Prince	19	—	—
Marquis	39	2	1
Count	110	5	—
Viscount	379	27	1
Baron	411	29	3
Total	958	63	5

Decorations

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

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

Rising Sun and Paulownia This is a single decoration, combining the devices of two lesser orders, known as the Grand Cordon of the Imperial Order of the Rising Sun with Paulownia Flowers which is awarded only to holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit. From a cordon of red with two white stripes, worn over the right shoulder and falling to the opposite hip, are suspended a small medallion showing paulownia flowers and leaves and a larger medallion, below it, of a double-rayed rising sun flanked with paulownia flowers.

Rising Sun There are six classes, from the Grand Cordon of the Ris-

ing Sun, to which holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit are eligible, to the 6th Class Order of the Rising Sun, which holders of the 6th Class Order of Merit may receive. Foreigners in the employ of the Government are often awarded this decoration, usually the 3rd, 4th, 5th or 6th class, after long and meritorious service. This decoration may, but not necessarily, carry an annuity.

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

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

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

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

died within five years of being decorated, until the end of that period.

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

Medals of Honour The Medal with Red Riband is conferred on persons who risk their lives in rescuing others; the Medal with Green Riband on those who distinguish themselves for filial piety, feminine virtues, devotion to the aged and loyalty to masters; the Medal with Blue Riband on those who aid public and private undertakings by important discoveries or inventions; the Medal with Dark Navy Blue Riband on those who contribute money or property for public welfare; and the Medal with Yellow Riband, divided into two classes, gold and silver, on persons who help undertakings connected with coast defence. Cups of gold or wood or monetary gifts are sometimes granted simultaneously to the recipients.

Court Rank

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

There were 224,729 holders of Court rank at the end of 1933, divided as follows:

First	Senior	—	Junior	1
Second	"	28	"	66
Third	"	878	"	749
Fourth	"	1,735	"	3,457
Fifth	"	8,071	"	11,511
Sixth	"	13,507	"	18,861
Seventh	"	30,354	"	55,023
Eighth	"	77,965	"	2,033
Total		224,729		

Stick Granted to the Aged

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

Prince Saionji (Kimmochi)
 Marquis Asano (Nagakoto)
 Baron Kubota (Yuzuru)
 Count Kiyoura (Keigo)
 Baron Kuratomi (Yuzaburo)
 Count Tanaka (Mitsuaki)
 Viscount Kaneko (Kentarō)
 Viscount Soga (Sukenorī)
 Viscount Kurino (Shinichiro)
 Viscount Ishiguro (Tadanori)
 General Oseko (Naomichi)
 Count Toda (Ujitaké)
 Takahashi (Korekiyo)
 Baron Yamamoto (Tatsuo)
 Tomiya (Shotaro)

Court Artists

For the promotion and encouragement of fine arts, representative artists are chosen by a special committee in the Court and their appointment as Court artists is made by the Minister of the Imperial Household. The artists may produce objects of art for the Court or present opinions upon Imperial enquiries on questions pertaining to arts. Koun Takamura died in October, 1934 and new

members were appointed in December, 1934, and the present Court artists are as follows :

Sculptor	Chōun Yamazaki
Painters	Seiho Takeuchi
	Gyokudo Kawai
	Taikwan Yokoyama
	Yukihiko Yasuda
	Kansetsu Hashimoto
	Keigetsu Kikuchi
	Eisaku Wada
	Saburotsuké Okada
	Takeji Fujishima
Architect	Iwajiro Sasaki
Metal Carver	Kamezo Shimizu
Metal Worker	Shushin Katori
Ceramist	Hazan Itaya

State Funerals

There had been no special provision for the State Funeral for honoured personages, although it had been held several times since the 16th year of Meiji, or 1883. The Government, however, issued the State Funeral Ordinance as an Imperial Order in 1926. According to the Ordinance, the State Funeral is held with distinguished rituals, its expenses being borne by the National Treasury. There are two kinds of State Funerals, i.e. the one for Imperial Personages and the other for the subjects. The former is still divided into two; the first one is called the Grand Funeral and is for the Emperor, the Great Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and the Empress, while the second one is called the Imperial Funeral and is for the Crown Prince, the Crown

Princess, the Emperor's grandson and his consort, the Regent Imperial Prince or Emperor's daughters or children. Both the Grand and Imperial Funerals are held under special ritual according to the Provisions of the Imperial House Funeral Ordinance.

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

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

Prince Iwakura (Tomomi) [Peer]	1883
Prince Shimazu (Hisamitsu) [Peer]	1887
Prince Sanjo (Sanetomi) [Peer]	1891
Prince Arisugawa (Taruhito)	1895
Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1895
Prince Mori (Motonori) [Peer]	1896
Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer]	1897
Prince Komatsu (Akihiko)	1903
Prince Ito (Hirobumi) [Peer]	1900
Prince Arisugawa (Takehito)	1913
Prince Oyama (Iwao) [Peer]	1915
Grand Prince Ri (Kei)	1919
Prince Yamagata (Aritomo) [Peer]	1922
Prince Fushimi (Sadanaru)	1923
Marquis Matsukata (Mazayoshi)	1924
Prince Ri (Seki)	1925
Marquis Togo (Heihachiro)	1934

Imperial Interest in Social Work

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

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

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

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

With the ¥1,000,000 granted on the occasion of the wedding of the present Emperor, Viscount Kiyoura, Premier at the time, established the Keifuku-kai, Beatitude Association, for promotion of social work done by private bodies. On every Kigensetsu, the anniversary of the foundation of the country, which takes place on February 11, Imperial grants are made directly to public and private social welfare organizations. At first limited to such organizations as the Japan Red Cross Society, the Women's Patriotic Association, the Imperial Association for the Support of Soldiers, the Salvation Army, the Fukuden-kai (Charity Association) Orphanage and the Tokyo Asylum, these grants have been greatly increased since 1921 and now go even to superior private bodies in Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Islands.

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

Since the days of the Emperor

Meiji, it has been customary for the Emperor, while travelling in the provinces to supervise the grand military and naval manoeuvres or on observation tours, to send representatives to various welfare organizations to present money or other gifts.

Also since the beginning of the Meiji Era, the Emperor, the Empress, the Empress Dowager and the Imperial Princes and Princesses have frequently visited charity hospitals, schools for the blind and dumb and other social welfare institutions. Many such organizations have Princes and Princesses of the Blood as presidents. The present Empress Dowager is particularly interested in the relief of lepers and in 1930 granted funds to all bodies engaged in this work.

Court Rituals

GRAND RITUALS. The Grand Rituals are those conducted by the Emperor personally, with Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank in attendance. Brief descriptions follow :

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

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

Shunki-Koreisai, for the worship of preceding Emperors and Empresses

and Princes and Princesses of Imperial lineage, takes place in the Koreiden on the day of the vernal equinox.

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

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

Shuki-Koreisai and Shuki-Shindensai are identical in form and purpose with the vernal equinox rituals but take place on the day of the autumn equinox.

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

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

Taisho-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Taisho, the Emperor's father, and is celebrated in the Koreiden on December 25. In the evening, sacred music and dances are performed in a pavilion in front of the shrine. A court official rep-

resenting the Emperor is sent on the same day to the mausoleum of the Emperor Taisho to make offerings, a rite which the Emperor himself performs at fixed intervals.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Meiji-Tennosai is observed in the Koreiden on July 30 to mark the

anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Meiji, grandfather of the Emperor. Offerings are made and a ritual performed at his mausoleum on the same day.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Yo-ori, the rite for purification of the person of the Emperor, is held in the Phoenix Hall of the Imperial

Palace on June 30 and December 31.

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

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

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

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

CHAPTER I GEOGRAPHY

Position and Extent

The Japanese Empire, wholly within the Asiatic half of the North Pacific, consists of Japan proper and various colonies. At the time of the Meiji Restoration, 1868, there were the four large continental islands of Honshu, or Hondo, usually known as the Mainland, Kyushu, Shikoku and Hokkaido, or Yezo, and 4,068 adjacent islands of smaller size. Russia ceded the long chain of islands called the Chishima,¹ or the Kuriles, in 1875. The Ogasawarajima, or Bonin Islands, were formally annexed in 1877, and the Ryukyu, or Loochoo Islands, in 1879, though both groups had been earlier under Japanese control. All these areas today constitute Japan proper.

The Colonies The first colony, Taiwan, or Formosa, with the adjacent islands called the Bokoto, or Pescadores, was ceded by China in 1895 following the Sino-Japanese War. The Russo-Japanese War brought Karafuto, or the southern half of the island of Saghalien, and, in Manchuria, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone. Chosen, or Korea, was annexed in 1910. The mandated Caroline, Mariana and Marshall islands, former German possessions in the South Seas, were received by Japan at the Versailles Peace Con-

¹ The Japanese word for island or islands—no differentiation is made for number—is shima, sometimes read jima. In some instances, the Chinese reading, to, is used, as in Bokoto. It has been thought best to leave it untranslated, for it forms an integral part of the name.

ference, 1919. With the exception of the Aleutians, the northern half of Saghalien, the Philippines, North Borneo, Hawaii and a few small scattered islands, including Guam, the Empire spreads over all the islands in the Pacific north of the equator.

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

Length and Width If the South Sea Islands, the Kwantung Leased Territory, the South Manchuria Railway Zone and the continental peninsula of Chosen are omitted, the Empire is a semi-circle of islands extending in latitude from 21° 45' N. to 50° 55' N., approximately 3,380 kilometres, and in longitude from 119° 18' E. to 156° 30' E., with a maximum width of about 320 kilometres.

Area

The total area of the Empire is 681,024.70 square kilometres, distributed as shown in the following table:

Divisions	Area in Sq. Kilometres
Grand Total	681,024.70
Japan proper	382,014.33
Honshu	230,301.67
Shikoku	18,772.63
Kyushu	42,078.71
Hokkaido	88,775.04
Ryukyu	2,385.29
Chosen	220,740.72
Taiwan	35,846.63
Bokoto	126.86

Divisions	Area in Sq. Kilometres
Karafuto	36,089.77
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462.45
South Sea Mandated Islands	2,148.80
S. M. R. Zone	295.02

Japan proper occupies 57 per cent. of the total area, while Chosen occupies 33 per cent., and Taiwan and Karafuto 5 per cent. each.

Atmospheric Conditions

The average atmospheric pressure of 1933 was highest in Chosen, Manchuria and China, recording 762-763 mm., the highest being 763.9 mm. of Tientsin. The meteorological stations in the Main Island recorded about 761 mm. as in the previous year, and in Hokkaido, Karafuto and the South Sea Islands the pressure was lower in general, the lowest being 757 mm. at Palau. It was mostly above 760 mm. in Formosa and Loochoo.

In the same year, the mean temperature rose higher than 20° C. in Formosa, Loochoo, the Bonin Islands and the South Sea Islands, the highest being 26° 8' at Palau. In Shikoku, Kyushu and the districts which face the Pacific Ocean, ending with the Tokyo Gulf at the northernmost, it was about 16°; in the districts west of Kyoto in the Main Island 15°; in the eastern mountainous districts 10°-13°, in the north-eastern districts 10°; in Hokkaido mostly 5°, except 8° at the southern end; and in Karafuto 3°, the lowest being 0° at Shisuka. In Chosen, it was 10°-14° in the south and 3° at the most northerly border. In Manchuria it was about 10°. The highest record was 37° 7' at Taihoku in Formosa, 38° 3' at Sasebo in Kyushu, and the lowest 27° 9' below zero at Asahigawa in Hokkaido, 33° 8' below zero at Shisuka in Karafuto.

In 1933, places where the annual quantity of precipitation was more than 3,000 mm. were Takada, O-

washi, Odaigahara and Palau; more than 2,000 mm. Hachijo-jima, Fushiki, Wajima, Kanazawa, Ibuki-yama, Shimizu, Kochi, Shionomisaki, Naha, etc. In the Main Island it was 1,000-2,000 mm.; in Hokkaido 900-1,000 mm.; in Karafuto 600-900 mm.

The average velocity of the wind does not vary much in the plains, being from one metre to three metres per second; but at Ibuki-yama the Boko Islands, Unzen-daké, Hachijo-jima, Naha, and Choshi it was more than 5 metres. Hakoné-yama, Ibuki-yama, Naha, Shana, and Ishigakijima experienced a maximum velocity of more than 30 metres per second.

The Kansai Typhoon in 1934 A record typhoon raged throughout the south-western half of Japan on September 21, 1934, velocity of which was reported to have exceeded 60 metres per second. According to the investigations made by the Home Ministry, it affected 35 prefectures. In Osaka prefecture the dead numbered 1,624, and the wounded together with the missed numbered 5,729. Houses totally damaged numbered 9,937. The total casualties numbered 2,499 dead, 8,399 wounded and 568 missing. Houses damaged totalled 376,350, of which those wholly tumbled down were 34,576. The number of school buildings damaged was 289.

Meantime, the damages wrought on workshops in Osaka prefecture were estimated at ¥30,000,000 covering 1,200 in number. The workshops referred herewith are confined to those which employ more than five operatives. If, therefore, to the above damages are added damages inflicted upon smaller scaled workshops the total damages are undoubtedly far greater than described in the above.

Meteorological observations in 1933 are given in the following table:

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS

(1933)

Meteorological stations	Situation of stations		Altitude of barometer	Average pressure	Average	Temperature		
	North Latitude	East Longitude				Difference between average year	Maximum	Minimum
	degrees	degrees	m.	mm.	degrees	degrees	degrees	degrees
Nemuro	43.20	145.35	26.7	759.7	6.7	+ 0.2	29.3	- 19.6
Sapporo	43.04	141.21	16.9	759.9	7.2	+ 0.3	32.6	- 22.2
Aomori	40.49	140.47	5.3	760.8	8.9	- 0.4	32.9	- 17.0
Tokyo	35.41	139.46	5.3	760.9	14.7	+ 0.8	35.4	- 5.4
Niigata	37.56	139.03	8.2	761.4	13.1	+ 0.5	35.6	- 7.7
Nagano	36.40	138.12	420.4	761.1	11.2	+ 0.3	36.6	- 13.9
Nagoya	35.10	136.53	52.4	761.5	14.4	0.0	36.8	- 6.7
Kyoto	35.01	135.44	42.9	761.9	14.4	+ 0.6	36.0	- 7.0
Osaka	34.39	135.26	3.0	761.6	15.4	+ 0.3	35.2	- 4.9
Sakai	35.33	133.14	2.9	761.7	14.5	+ 0.3	35.9	- 4.5
Hiroshima	34.23	132.27	3.2	762.1	14.9	+ 0.2	35.5	- 5.6
Kochi	33.33	133.32	42.1	761.6	15.8	+ 0.2	34.4	- 5.7
Nagasaki	32.44	129.52	133.0	762.0	15.6	0.0	33.2	- 5.2
Naha	26.12	127.39	29.5	760.5	22.0	- 0.1	31.5	- 9.3
Keijo (Seoul)	37.34	126.59	29.5	762.9	10.6	- 0.4	35.9	- 18.4
Taihoku	25.02	121.31	9.3	760.6	22.0	+ 0.4	37.7	- 6.0
Odomari	46.39	142.46	37.3	759.3	3.2	- 0.3	27.0	- 24.2
Dairen	38.54	121.35	97.3	763.6	10.0	- 0.2	34.2	- 18.1
Palau	7.20	134.29	31.8	757.0	26.8	0.0	31.6	- 22.2

Meteorological stations	Average humidity	Quantity of Precipitation			Wind			Rainy days
		Total	Difference between average year	Maximum	Average velocity	Maximum velocity	Clear days	
	%	mm.	mm.	mm.	m/sec.	m/sec.		
Nemuro	77	1,207.9	+ 238.0	72.9	4.5	23.7	30	176
Sapporo	77	1,045.9	+ 10.3	72.9	3.0	17.0	16	203
Aomori	81	1,199.6	- 178.7	41.2	3.6	23.8	16	224
Tokyo	72	1,011.3	- 559.9	122.2	3.1	15.1	45	128
Niigata	76	1,828.7	+ 46.3	98.8	5.0	27.2	21	207
Nagano	76	886.4	- 127.9	86.0	2.5	15.5	20	173
Nagoya	77	1,318.9	- 354.5	77.4	3.0	17.6	57	135
Kyoto	76	1,332.8	- 242.8	64.6	1.7	11.4	34	163
Osaka	75	1,221.1	- 131.1	93.8	2.6	15.6	44	138
Sakai	76	1,869.1	- 83.6	88.7	2.2	15.5	24	212
Hiroshima	74	1,297.8	- 229.7	68.4	1.5	8.8	38	133
Kochi	76	2,500.2	- 199.3	169.4	1.5	8.8	47	161
Nagasaki	74	1,534.8	- 380.0	71.0	3.4	23.9	39	166
Naha	84	2,259.0	+ 144.3	236.3	5.9	37.4	15	191
Keijo (Seoul)	67	1,400.8	+ 130.4	125.2	2.8	16.7	67	118
Taihoku	83	1,842.7	- 289.1	109.0	2.9	9.8	28	184
Odomari	80	690.6	- 42.9	64.0	4.5	25.8	34	158
Dairen	65	490.3	- 120.0	59.4	4.6	21.3	103	80
Palau	61	3,498.3	- 420.0	102.2	1.8	8.2	3	271

Geological Formation

The Japanese islands lie at the east end of the Eurasia Continent, spreading more than 3,800 kilometres on the Pacific. They are ar-

ranged in the form of a festoon or a breakwater for the Continent against the Pacific waves. The numerous islands may be divided into four groups or bows: the Nippon Bow, the Chishima Bow, the Ryu-

kyu Bow and the Ogasawara or Bonin Bow. The Nippon Bow is composed of the Main Island and the small islands around it. The Main Island itself draws an arc, its convex surface projecting into the Pacific and its concave surface facing the Japan Sea, because the whole Nippon Bow was pushed out to the ocean by a mountain-making process from the side of the Japan Sea. The Nippon Bow again is composed of two mountain systems, with the Fuji volcanic range as the dividing line; they are the Northern range, or the Karafuto mountain system, and the Southern range, or the Kwenlun mountain system.

It is said that recent excavations show it almost impossible to find the oldest rocks in the formation of the Japanese Islands, but it was formerly assumed that gneiss and crystalline schist, which belong to the oldest geological eras, are found in Japan.

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

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

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

Neozoic Stratum The Neozoic stratum is mainly of aqueous rock and

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

	Sq. kilometre	Per cent.
Archaean stratum	14,129	3.50
Palaeozoic "	53,149	12.74
Mesozoic "	29,844	7.15
Neozoic "	196,079	46.87
Tertiary vomitted rocks	44,157	10.58
Quaternary "	79,970	19.16
Total	417,228	100.00

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

In the Palaeozoic Era, the islands were all hidden under shallow waters. Even the Hida and Akaishi mountain peaks, which form the ridge of the Mainland, are composed of the sediment on the sea-bottom in those days. At the end of this era, the highest mountain ranges began to expose their heads above

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

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

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

Relationship with Continent The close connection of the islands with the Continent is supported by considerable evidence. It is asserted by most scholars that they are continental islands, which are usually located near a continent, from which they were severed in the latest geological era. It is clear that the mountain ranges of Japan have a

close connection with the Kwenlun mountain system. The north range of the Chinese mountains, after sinking into the sea, appears again in the northern part of Kyushu and reaches the central part of the Main Island, running through the Chugoku district, and the eastern end of the China mountain system reappears in southern Kyushu, from where it reaches to the Akaishi Range through Shikoku Island and Kii province. It is also known that the sea between the Japanese Islands and the Continent is but 200 metres deep at the maximum from Taiwan to Chosen. That is, if the waters fell by this distance, the East China Sea, the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Chihli would be dried up, and Kyushu, Shikoku, the Mainland, Hokkaido and Karafuto would be connected by land. In a sharp comparison, the sea to the east and south of the islands suddenly becomes as deep as 4,000 metres and even more in some places. These facts prove that the Japanese Islands were once a part of the Continent of Asia.

Japanese animals belong to those species which are included in the old northern division in the animal distribution of the world, and Japanese plants have very close relations with those on the Continent of Asia and are quite different from those of the American Continent. Finally, paleontology gives us proof in fossil teeth of the elephant. In the layers which belong to the tertiary period or the diluvial day of the quaternary period, these fossils are often found, and some are of the same kind as those excavated in the southern districts of China. We may thus conclude that the Islands of Japan were connected with the Continent of Asia in a prehistoric but comparatively new geological era.

Natural Features

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

Japanese mountains have characteristic fine creases, cut by the rainfall, which is specially heavy in this country. The Kyushu, Shikoku and Akaishi ranges were formed by the creasing process; such mountains as Fuji, Nasu, Chokai and Kirishima resulted from volcanic activities, and the Kongo, Kasagi, Suzuka and Mahiru mountain ranges were born in dislocative earthquakes. As for age, the mountains of the Chugoku and Abukuma ranges, with their dull curves, are the oldest; the Shikoku range, the Japan Alps and the Ohu range, or the range in northeastern Mainland, are rugged and young, and the plains of the Kanto district and Mino-Owari provinces are very young. The combination of these mountains and plains of diverse ages is peculiar to Japan.

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

be grouped in 11 chains:

(1) The north Japan inner, or Chokai, volcanic chain, which starts at the southwestern offing of Hokkaido, or O-shima and Ko-jima, and runs through Iwaki-yama, Kampuzan, Moriyoshi-yama, Chokai-san, ending with Gatsuzan.

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

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

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

(5) The Hida volcanic chain, composed of the seven volcanoes of Hera-daké, Taté-yama, Ko-tombi, Washiba-daké, Iwo-daké, Norikura-daké and On-také.

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

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

(8) The Ryukyu volcanic chain, starting with the Aso volcano, tak-

ing in Kirishima, Sakurajima and Kaimon and extending to the Ryukyu Islands, where it connects Iwo-jima, Kuchino-Irabé-jima, Kuchinosé, Nakano-jima, Suwanosé, Waruiwa-jima, Tori-shima and Agunishima.

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

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

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

The Japanese volcanic mountains are composed of four kinds of rocks: pyroxene andesite, amphibolite andesite, bronzite andesite and basalt. Fuji, Iwaki, Chokai, Gatsu-san, Nasu, Hakkoda, Iwaté, Bantai, Akagi and Haruna are of pyroxene andesite. In southern Japan, the Kirishima volcanic range is composed of the same rock, which is, indeed, the most widely distributed in the Japanese volcanoes. Amphibolite andesite is discovered in the mountains

which belong to the inner volcanic chains—Hakusan, Dai-sen and Mitsubé-yama. It shows itself in Taté-yama, Norikura and Ontaké also, but is most evident in the Kyushu volcanoes. Bronzite andesite is limited to the district of Kinki, near Osaka, and the volcanic mountains and islands in and along the Inland Sea. Basalt is distributed in Chugoku and the northern Kyushu districts, exposing itself at the Basalt Cave, of Tajima province, Ooné-shima, Hamada, Hagi, the Aburatani Gulf and Fukuyé, of the Goto Islands.

Seas and Coast-line

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

The Depths The greatest depth yet discovered in these surrounding seas is 9,439 metres, sounded by the warship *Manshu* in 1926 between Honshu and Ogasawarajima, 30° 49' N. Lat. and 142° 18' E. Long. Previously the record was the 8,517 metres of the *Tuscarora Deep*, named for the American warship which made a survey in 1874, sometimes called the Kurile-Japanese Trench, which lies along the Chishima for about 644

kilometres. The other seas are shallower than the Pacific. The Sea of Okhotsk, which is estimated to have an area of 1,527,007.73 square kilometres, has a mean depth of 838 metres. The Sea of Japan, estimated to extend over 1,007,307.41 square kilometres, has a maximum depth of 3,440 metres and a mean depth of 1,350 metres. The Eastern China Sea, except near the Ryukyu and Taiwan, is less deep. With a length of about 354 kilometres and a maximum width of 77 kilometres, the Inland Sea covers 3,430.43 square kilometres and reaches its greatest depth at 124 metres.

The Currents Two ocean currents with important climatic effects are the Kuroshio, meaning black current, which sailors know as the Japan Stream, and the Oyashio, meaning main current, which foreigners often call the Kurile Stream. The first is warm and the second cold. Arising from the North Equatorial Current north of the Philippines, the Kuroshio flows along the eastern side of Taiwan and the southern islands of the Ryukyu to about 26° N. Lat., where it splits, the main part moving to the eastern coasts of Kyushu, Shikoku and Honshu and then bearing eastward past the Aleutian Islands to the North American coast, and the offshoot flowing to the west of Kyushu and into the Sea of Japan. Varying in width from 160 to 805 kilometres, depending on the position and the season of the year, it is usually from 5° to 15° C. warmer than the rest of the ocean. The Oyashio originates in the Arctic, washes the eastern shores of the Chishima, Hokkaido and Honshu, meeting the Kuroshio. From the Sea of Okhotsk, another cold current enters the Sea of Japan through the Gulf of Tartary and flows along the Chosen coast.

Tides Tides in the Japanese Em-

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

Coast-line The coast-line is exceptionally long, being 52,228.787 kilometres for the whole Empire. For Japan proper, it is 30,602.458 kilometres, which means a kilometre to every 12.43 square kilometres of area, and for Chosen 18,203.726 kilometres, a kilometre to every 12.12 square kilometres. The shores of the Sea of Japan are comparatively regular, but those on the Pacific are indented with a large number of gulfs, bays and inlets, many of which afford excellent anchorages. Japan proper has more than 1,400 harbours, about half of which are utilized for trading. The best harbours of Chosen are on the Yellow Sea and the Chosen Channel. Hokkaido, Karafuto and Taiwan are less fortunate in capacious shelters for ships.

Mountains

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

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

MOUNTAINS

(Above 2,500 metres)

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Japan Proper		
Fuji	Shizuoka	3,773
Kita	Yamanashi	3,192
Manodaké	Shizuoka	3,189
Yarigadaké	Nagano	3,180
Akaishi	Nagano	3,120
Okuhotaka	Nagano	3,103
Higashimata	Nagano	3,095
Shirané	Nagano	3,093
Ontaké	Nagano	3,093
Hotaka	Nagano	3,090
Arakawa	Shizuoka	3,083
Shiomi	Shizuoka	3,047
Senjo	Yamanashi	3,033
Minamidaké	Nagano	3,032
Kitahotaka	Gifu	3,032
Nootori	Shizuoka	3,026
Norikura	Gifu	3,026
Hijiri	Shizuoka	3,011
Tsurugi	Toyama	2,998
Tateyama	Toyama	2,992
Suicho	Toyama	2,977
Komagadaké	Yamanashi	2,966
Marishiten	Gifu	2,959
Shiroma	Toyama	2,933
Yakushi	Toyama	2,926
Goro	Toyama	2,924
Maé-Hotaka	Gifu	2,908
Yari	Toyama	2,903
Akadaké	Nagano	2,900
Kasa	Gifu	2,897
Kashima-Yari	Toyama	2,890
Wakareyama	Toyama	2,885
Mitsudaké	Nagano	2,873
Jodo	Toyama	2,872
Mamaoya	Gifu	2,868
Komori	Shizuoka	2,865
Akaushi	Toyama	2,864
Karaki	Nagano	2,864
Rengé	Nagano	2,860
Sugoroku	Nagano	2,860
Mamako	Gifu	2,858
Misawa	Nagano	2,846
Minami	Nagano	2,842
H5-6	Yamanashi	2,841
Washiwa	Toyama	2,841
Nakanomata	Toyama	2,840
Nakadaké	Toyama	2,839

Name	Location	Height (m.)	Name	Location	Height (m.)
Subari	Nagano	2,838	Shirané	Tochigi	2,577
Mitsumata	Nagano	2,835	Nagabei	Nagano	2,565
Yoko	Nagano	2,830	Okaramatsu	Yamanashi	2,555
Misumi	Nagano	2,830	Itotaké	Nagano	2,554
Masago	Nagano	2,826	Nanakura	Nagano	2,550
Ebisu	Gifu	2,823	Asama	Gunma	2,542
Osawa	Shizuoka	2,819	Kurohi	Nagano	2,540
Nukido	Gifu	2,812	Tateshina	Nagano	2,530
Kogochi	Nagano	2,805	Ushikubi	Toyama	2,527
Kamikochi	Nagano	2,803	Amikasa	Yamanashi	2,524
Rengé	Toyama	2,799	Nittatake	Shizuoka	2,524
Chökô	Yamanashi	2,799	Maekake	Nagano	2,520
Onidaké	Nagano	2,799	Kohikage	Nagano	2,505
Asahi	Nagano	2,786	Minoto	Nagano	2,500
Gongen	Nagano	2,786	Chosen		
Takaminé	Yamanashi	2,779	Hakuto	Kankyonando	2,744
Rengé	Niigata	2,769	Kanbo-san	Kankyohokudo	2,541
Akaiwa	Nagano	2,769	Hokusuihaku	Kankyonando	2,522
Tsubakuro	Nagano	2,763	Shonichi	Kankyonando	2,506
Yakushi	Yamanashi	2,762	Taiwan		
Jonen	Nagano	2,757	Niitaka	Taichushu	3,950
Tatesawa	Nagano	2,754	Tsugétaka	Taichushu	3,931
Yotsutaké	Gifu	2,744	Shukoban	Karenkocho	3,833
Iwo	Nagano	2,742	Maboras	Taichushu	3,806
Shogigashira	Nagano	2,727	Nankotaizan	Karenkocho	3,797
Kotaro	Yamanashi	2,725	Chuosen	Karenkocho	3,715
Kiso	Nagano	2,721	Sekiyama	Kantocho	3,657
Minamimasago	Nagano	2,710	Taisuikutsu	Taichushu	3,645
Akazawa	Nagano	2,706	Kiraishu	Karenkocho	3,605
Hoeisan	Shizuoka	2,702	Toguntaisan	Taichushu	3,605
Shiasan	Nagano	2,700	Taisetsu	Taichushu	3,600
Kitarakawa	Shizuoka	2,698	Taihasen	Shinchikushu	3,573
Jijii	Nagano	2,697	Setsu	Takaoshu	3,569
Karamatsu	Nagano	2,696	Takushatai	Taichushu	3,488
Narusawa	Nagano	2,667	Tobantai	Taichushu	3,465
Chogataké	Nagano	2,664	Nemu	Taichushu	3,394
Kitanomata	Toyama	2,661	Nangyoku	Takaoshu	3,391
Kamigataké	Toyama	2,661	To-zan	Shinchikushu	3,390
Kitani	Nagano	2,658	Shinkan	Karenkocho	3,381
Iwagoyazawa	Nagano	2,657	Hitsuroku	Karenkocho	3,379
Neishi	Nagano	2,646	Tantai	Karenkocho	3,371
Karasawa	Nagano	2,632	Hakkotai	Taichushu	3,349
Hakusan	Ishikawa	2,631	Nansoto	Karenkocho	3,333
Zarugatake	Shizuoka	2,629	Notakayama	Karenkocho	3,333
Gakidake	Nagano	2,627	Hinanshu	Takaoshu	3,305
Minamizawa	Nagano	2,625	Sentakuman	Taichushu	3,304
Washitake	Toyama	2,625	Kashipanan	Karenkocho	3,294
Eboshitaké	Nagano	2,621	Guntai	Taichushu	3,292
Fudosan	Nagano	2,621	Tarokotai	Karenkocho	3,292
Shenninyama	Toyama	2,617	Koseki	Takaoshu	3,255
Tobiyama	Toyama	2,614	Notaka	Karenkocho	3,252
Otakiyama	Nagano	2,614	Byobu	Karenkocho	3,234
Koehyaku	Nagano	2,613	Taibu	Taitocho	3,232
Yukikura	Toyama	2,611	Senzan	Karenkocho	3,222
Nokogiri	Nagano	2,605	Batotsunofu	Taihokushu	3,221
Dainichi	Toyama	2,605	Painotonan	Taitocho	3,175
Chausu	Nagano	2,600	Mabiisan	Taihokushu	3,167
Kimpo	Yamanashi	2,599	Hakuseki	Karenkocho	3,138
Fudo	Toyama	2,595	Wanoshin	Takaoshu	3,132
Kokushi	Yamanashi	2,592	Antogun	Karenkocho	3,089
Hikari	Nagano	2,591	Seibantai	Taichushu	3,076
Tsuji	Yamanashi	2,585	Kanmon	Karenkocho	3,052

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Taisekiko	Karenkocho	3,048
Kosetsu	Taichushu	3,043
Bokyo	Taichushu	3,028
Unsui	Kantuchu	3,010
Burakusan	Kantocho	2,992
Ronbutan	Karenkocho	2,948
Sekisui	Tainanshu	2,895
Kokolbo	Karenkocho	2,883
Heigan	Taichushu	2,879
Sekisan	Takaoshu	2,877
Sentogan	Takaoshu	2,862
Rokurin	Taichushu	2,859
Hattuseki	Taichushu	2,841
Manmen	Takaoshu	2,840
Nantaibu	Kantocho	2,831
Muto	Takaoshu	2,822
Tobo	Taichushu	2,809
Surabatan	Takaoshu	2,747
Kinajii	Shinchikushu	2,713
Sekisan	Taichushu	2,694
Sansui	Karenkocho	2,692
Rokujotai	Shinchikushu	2,684
Taito	Taichushu	2,683
Takai	Taihokushu	2,657
Keinan	Takaoshu	2,642
Sui	Tainanshu	2,627
Futako	Karenkocho	2,577
Kodama	Tainanshu	2,568
Rinparapara	Takaoshu	2,555
Matsuyama	Taichushu	2,551
Gunko	Taichushu	2,532
Tozan	Tainanshu	2,520
Mubeyama	Karenkocho	2,514
Shukusan	Taichushu	2,504

OTHER FAMOUS MOUNTAINS

(Below 2,500 m.)

Ohu district

Osoré-yama ¹	700
Iwaki-yama	1,625
Hakkoda-yama	1,585
Moriyoshi-yama	1,454
Iwaté-yama	2,041
Komaga-také	1,637
Chokai-san	2,280
Gassan	1,924
Zao-san	1,841
Funagata-yama	1,500
Azuma-san	2,024
Adachitaro-yama	1,700
Bandai-san	1,819
Otake-yama	1,193

Kanto district

Nasu-san	1,917
Tajshaku-san	2,060
Nantai-san	2,484
Akagi-san	1,828

¹ Yama, také, san, zan, miné, and sen all mean "mountain."

Haruna-san	1,448
Myogi-san	1,104
Mikuni-yama	1,828
Kobushi-také	2,483
Tanzawa-yama	1,567
Hakone-yama	1,439
Nokogiri-yama	829
Tsukuba-yama	876

Kinki district (Kyoto, Osaka)

Oe-yama	833
Ibuki-yama	1,877
Hira-také	1,174
Kurama-yama	670
Hiei-san	848
Atago-yama	924
Rokko-san	932
Ikoma-yama	642
Kongo-san	1,112
Sanjo-také	1,720
Odaigahara-san	1,695
Shaka-také	1,800
Koya-san	985

Chugoku district

Kori-yama	1,510
Dai-sen	1,713
Kanmuri-yama	1,339
Aono-yama	908

Shikoku Island

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

Kyushu district

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

Rivers

The Empire is abundantly watered by numerous rivers, usually wide where they empty into the sea, but comparatively short in course and not navigable for many miles inland except by flat-bottomed craft. During the summer rainy season and when the mountain snows melt in the spring, torrents rush down them, often overflowing and causing damage; during the rest of the year, they dwindle to narrow and shallow

streams. If of little use for transportation, they serve as reservoirs from which water is drawn for irrigation and increasingly as sources of electric power.

Total available hydro-electric power of rivers in Japan proper is estimated at 14,090,000 h.p., the power actually developed by the end of 1932 was about 3,105,930 h.p.

The major rivers, with navigable length, follow:

	Length in Km.	Navigable Length in Km.
Honshu		
Shinano	369	283
Toné	322	275
Kitakami	243	222
Kiso	232	86
Mogami	216	196
Tenryu	216	216
Gonokawa	200	153
Abukuma	196	149
Ara	177	89
Aka	169	149
Kumano	161	127
Hidaka	161	184
Fuji	161	70
Oi	154	86
Omono	149	137
Sbo	149	55
Ibi	142	35
Yura	141	110
Sagami	141	75
Shikoku		
Yoshino	236	110
Shimanto	177	75
Kyushu		
Chikugo	141	86
Hokkaido		
Ishikari	365	—
Teshio	306	—
Tokachi	196	—
Tokoro	145	—
Karafuto		
Horonai	137	—
Taiwan		
Dakusuikei	165	—
Shimotansuikéi	156	—
Sobunkei	132	—
Tansuiga	130	—
Chosen		
Oryokko	790	698
Rakutoko	525	344
Tomanko	521	85
Kanko	514	330
Daidoko	489	260
Kinko	401	130
Ringhinko	254	124

Seisenko	199	182
Reiseiko	174	65

Lakes

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

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

	Above Sea Level (metre)	Area (Sq. kilometre)	Depth (metre)
Honshu			
Biwako	86.3	674.80	95.0
Hachirogata	0	221.20	4.7
Kasumigaura	2.0	177.50	7.6
Inawashiroko	514.0	103.64	102.0
Nakanoumi	0	101.60	14.0
Shinjiko	1.0	83.13	6.4
Hamanako	0	80.26	15.8
Towadako	401.0	78.02	378.0
Ogaranuma	1.5	63.00	27.0
Kitaura	1.0	42.20	10.0
Imbanuma	2.5	27.00	1.0
Tazawako	250.0	24.70	425.0
Kahokugata	0.8	23.00	2.0
Jusangata	0	20.87	3.0
Ibauchiko	86.8	15.40	3.1
Suwako	759.0	14.53	7.0
Karenuma	—	12.75	3.3
Teganuma	2.5	12.20	2.9
Chuzenjiko	1,271.0	11.91	170.0
Oguraiké	10.0	7.90	1.7
Hirofuchiko	3.0	7.12	2.3
Ashinoko	723.2	7.09	43.5
Kumihamako	0	7.08	20.0
Kyushu			
Ikedako	66.0	11.10	233.0
Hokkaido			
Saromako	0	151.17	19.0
Shikotsuko	248.0	77.60	363.0
Kutcharoko	120.0	76.22	125.0
Toyako	83.0	62.05	133.0
Notoriko	0	56.00	22.0
Furenko	0	52.87	11.0
Abashiriko	0	32.76	17.6
Akeshikanko	0	30.50	6.9
Mashuko	345.0	20.00	211.5
Tonbetsuko	0	15.00	3.2
Akanko	399.0	11.86	36.6
Karafuto			
Taraikako	0	180.06	1.8
Tominaiko	0	168.18	34.0

	Above Sea Level (metre)	Area (Sq. kilometre)	Depth (metre)
Tofuchiko	0	40.43	6.4
Kuchishiko	0	34.77	8.7
Waiko	0	34.18	5.4
Chihesanko	0	11.20	7.7
Ontoko	0	7.61	4.6
Taiwan			
Takaokanko	1.2	22.05	1.2
Jitsugetsutan	5.2	4.44	5.2
Chosen			
Hiroko	—	13.28	—
Koshihashiko	—	8.27	—
Amaké	—	7.74	—
Choenko	—	7.42	—

Flora

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

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

- Tropical forest zone, or the banian (*Ficus Retusa*) zone.
- Subtropical forest zone, or kashi (*Quercus Acuta*) zone.
- Temperate forest zone, or the beech-tree (*Fagus Sieboldi*) zone.
- Arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir (*Pinus Pumila*) zone.

I The Tropical Forest Zone The tropical forest zone, or the banian zone, covers those portions of the plain of Formosa lower than 450 m. above sea level, as well as the Loochoo, Bonin, Sulphur and the South Sea islands. The aerial roots of the *Ficus Retusa* are not so large as those of the banian in India, but the species grows in abundance and to a great height, sending down its

aerial roots into the ground like the tentacles of an octopus. In some parts of Sulphur Island, the Loochoo Islands and Formosa it forms impenetrable forests. The coconut tree is rare but grows well. In Formosa the pineapple thrives naturally, while the *Agave Americana* grows quite tall. The cycad (*Cycas Revoluta*), the tree fern (*Cyathea Spinulosa*), the coffee plant (*Coffea Arabia*), the gum tree, the orange tree, the sugarcane, the mangifera (*Mangifera Indica*) and the papaw-tree (*Carica Papaya*) grow luxuriantly.

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

Plants peculiar to this zone are those which belong to such species as the camphor-tree, the oak, the camellia, and the *Ternstroemia Japonica*, ever-green and latifoliate. On sandy shores, where the sea wind is strong, the black pine (*Pinus thunbergii*) grows, with spreading, contorted branches, an indispensable element of the Japanese landscape, made familiar to the world through the paintings of Hokusai and Hiroshigé. In the southern part of this zone the camphor-tree (*Cinnamomum camphora*) is abundant. The hemp-palm (*Trachycarpus excelsa*),

the Nagi (*Podocarpus nagi*) the banana plant (*Musa basjoo*) and the cycad are planted as ornamental trees, and grow to a good size. Agricultural plants in this zone are rice, barley, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the field cabbage (*Brassica campestris*), colza, cotton (*Gossypium herbaceum*), indigo-plant, tea-plant, mulberry-tree, mandarin orange, as well as the sugar-cane and the potato. In this zone there is only one rice crop a year while in the first zone it is harvested twice a year.

III The Temperate Forest Zone The temperate forest zone, or beech-tree zone, lies north of the 2nd zone in the Main Island, the south-western part of Hokkaido, more than half of its whole area, and in the mountainous portions of Korea; it begins at 37.5 degrees north latitude at the coast and 35° in the Main Island, and ends at 43.5° in the central part of Hokkaido. The temperature of these areas is from 6° to 13° C. (42°-56° F.). In Formosa, the mountain valleys which are between 1,800 and 4,550 m. above sea level belong to this zone, and there grow the cryptomeria, the *Picea jezoensis*, the hemlock and the Formosan five-leaf pine (*Pinus parviflora*). The representative species of this zone in the Main Island is the beech, but it is almost extinct because of commercial exploitation. In Echigo province grow many species of deciduous latifoliate trees, such as the oak (*Quercus glandulifera*), the *Quercus crispula* and the horse-chestnut (*Aesculus turbinata*), while among these, in some places are found varieties of acerose trees such as the Japanese cypress, the *Chamaecyparis obfusa*, the hatchet leaved arborvitae (*Thuja dolabrata*), the fir (*Abies firma*), the *Tsuga sieboldii*, the *Abies homolepis*, the Korean pine (*Pinus koraiensis*),

the *Larix kaempferi*, and the like. The timber line of this zone is 4,550 m. in Formosa,—Kyushu, Chugoku, Kinki or the Kyoto-Osaka districts have no mountain which rises above this line; 2,060 m. in Shikoku; 1,700-1,760 m. in Suruga and Totomi provinces; 1,500 m. in Shinano and Kai provinces; 1,400-1,060 m. in the northern districts of the Main Island; 450 m. in the southern part of Hokkaido, and down to sea level in the centre of Hokkaido.

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

IV The Arctic Forest Zone The arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir zone, occupies the mountain elevations above 4,500 m. in Formosa, and does not exist in Kyushu, except in small patches above 900 m. on the mountains. In the central part of Japan, Fuji, Ontaké, the Nikko and many other mountains are in this zone, while in Shikoku the belt lies between 1,800 m. to 2,580 m. The *Abies veitchii*, the fir-tree (*Abies sachaliensis*), the hemlock, the *Larix kaempferi*, the *Abies firma*, the yew-tree, the *Alnus firma*, the *Sorbaria randaiensis* and the Alpine-rose (*Rhododendron hymenanthos*) grow in this zone, but the principal trees differ according to districts. In Formosa, the *Abies sachaliensis* is the principal tree, the *Abies veitchii* on Kiso, Fuji, the Nikko and other

high mountains located within 40 degrees north latitude in the Main Island; the *Abies firma* and the *Larix kaempferi* in the districts further north, and the *Abies sachalinensis* again in Aomori prefecture. In Hokkaido and Karafuto the *Abies sachalinensis* and the spruce (*Picea ajanensis*) grow plentifully, but are not found in the Main Island. In addition, in Karafuto, the larch flourishes, as also does the *Juniperus chinensis* along the seashore.

Marine Flora According to Dr. Okamura, the marine flora of Japan in the Pacific Ocean is divided into two by Oshima Island, to the south of which, including the Bonin Islands, is the Tropical division, while from north of Oshima to Kinkazan lies the Temperate division. The ocean district north of Kinkazan belongs to the Arctic division, although at the southern end of this division can be found, to a certain extent, Temperate-zone seaweeds. On the western side of Japan, that is, along the coast of the Japan Sea, the Tropical and Temperate seaweed zones are divided at Makurasaki or Noma Peninsula at the west end of Kyushu Island, while the arctic zone begins at the Tsugaru Straits.

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

Dense forests of conifers are frequently seen in the northern districts. *Pinus koraiensis* is a species commonly found there. The flora of the northern half has many northern

elements and bears a close relation to the flora of Manchuria and Siberia.

Elements characteristic of northern China are also to be found in the flora of the western part of Korea. Endemic genera are comparatively few,—a characteristic of continental floras. Among the endemic genera, *Hanabusaya Nakai* and *Chosenia Nakai* may be mentioned as the most interesting. Both genera are monotypic, the former belonging to the family *Campanulaceae*, and the latter to the family *Salicaceae*.

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

Classification There are in Japan, nearly 20,000 species of flora known to botanists. The "Illustrated Book of Botany" published by a Tokyo botanical association contains 2,070 representative species classified as follows:

I Phanerogams		
A Angiosperms		
(a) Dicotyledones		
1	Sympetalae	519 species
2	Archichlamydeae	1,046 "
(b) Monocotyledones		242 "
B Gymnosperms		
(a) Gnetaceae		1 "
(b) Coniferae		
1	Araucariaceae	23 "
2	Taxaceae	7 "
(c) Cycadaceae		1 "
(d) Ginkgoaceae		1 "
II Archegohiata		
A Pteridophyta		
(a) Lycopodiinae		
1	Isoetaceae	1 "

2	Selaginellaceae	6 species
3	Pallotaceae	1 "
4	Lycopodiaceae	12 "
(b) Equisetinae		
	Equisetaceae	4 "
(c) Filicinae		
1	Marsilliaceae	1 "
2	Salviniaceae	2 "
3	Ophiolobaceae	5 "
4	Osmundaceae	1 "
5	Schizaeaceae	1 "
6	Gleicheniaceae	2 "
7	Polypodiaceae	97 "
8	Hymenophyllaceae	4 "
B Bryophyta		
(a) Hepaticae		2 "
(b) Musci		9 "
III Thallophyta		
A Fungi		21 "
B Algae		
1	Rhodophyceae	23 "
2	Phaeophyceae	25 "
3	Characeae	1 "
4	Chlorophyceae	6 "
	Total	2,070 "

Fuji, Sakura, Sumiré, Sugé, Susuki, and Kiku

According to Dr. Makino species of the phanerogamae alone number from 8,000 to 10,000 in Japan proper. Among this great number of plants, there are very many which are specially Japanese and unique in the botanical world. Several of the most prominent of these plants are selected here and a brief explanation on each of them is given below:

Fuji (*Kraunhia floribunda*) Fuji or wistaria is a plant peculiar to Japan, and is not found in any other country. Chinese wistaria differs from that of Japan. Strangely enough no Chinese wistaria is transplanted in Japan, while it is found in Europe and America. The Chinese wistaria is the so-called *murasaki fuji*, or purple wistaria. It is a mistake to put it in the same species with the Japanese fuji as some scholars have done in the past.

The Japanese wistaria is divided

into two species, viz. fuji and yama fuji (*Kraunhia brachybotrya*), or wild wistaria. Both grow in mountains, but are often cultivated in gardens. Yama fuji grows wild in Shikoku, Kyushu, and Chugoku and their vines are sinistral. Its flower is larger in size, but the raceme is short. Some yama fuji found in nurseries have white flowers and are called shira fuji, or white wistaria. Botanists in the West consider it as of an independent species, but it is only a variety of yama fuji. The other one, fuji, grows wild all over Japan and its vines are dextral. Wistaria found in Nara Park and that in Kasukabé in Musashi province belong to this species. Its flower-clusters are very long and they sometimes measure as much as several feet.

Sakura Sakura, or cherry-blossom, is celebrated in Japan from olden times. Yama-zakura (zakura is the euphonical form of sakura in the compound), (*Prunus serrulata* var. *spontanea*), or wild cherry blossom, is the most important of all species of cherry blossoms. The famous poem of Norinaga Moto-ori,

Shikishima no

Yamato gokoro-wo hito towa ba
Asahi ni niwo yamazakura bana.

(Isles of blest Japan!

Should your Yamato Spirit

Strangers seek to scan,

Say—the cherry wild and fair!

Lightened up in morn's sun-lit
air!)

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

Recently some scientists made an

attempt to call it shiro yamazakura, or white wild cherry.

The reason that these people consider it more convenient to call it shiro yamazakura is that they gave the name of beni yamazakura, or red wild cherry to the other species. But to this red wild cherry the name of oyamazakura (*Prunus serrulata* var *sachalinensis*) has already been given.

Oyamazakura grows in the mountain districts of the Central provinces, Tohoku, Hokkaido and Karafuto and was not probably known to our ancestors in the western half of the Main Island who loved yamazakura.

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

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

The sakura which is called Yoshino-zakura by florists and is widespread to-day all over the country with Tokyo as the centre, is known as somei-yoshino (*Prunus yedoensis*), in the botanical world. It appeared in Tokyo at the beginning of the Meiji Era. But where florists at Somei got its seedlings is not known. It was about the fifth year of Meiji that they were planted in Ueno Park. The reason that this blossom is called somei-yoshino by scientists is to avoid confusion with the sakura at Yoshino mentioned above. Somei-yoshino appears not to have existed in Yedo, the present Tokyo, during the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

This somei-yoshino, strange as it is, existed exclusively in Tokyo, and was rarely transplanted out of the city for long. It is found everywhere in Japan to-day, but it is only since 1902 that it began to spread out from Tokyo.

It has become known that this species of sakura is growing wild in Saishu Island, Korea. However, since it cannot be surmised that its seedlings were brought to Tokyo from this island, the origin of this sakura in Japan proper can still be said to be unknown. Some botanists in the West consider that this somei-yoshino is a species which is akin to higan-zakura (*Prunus subhirtella*), which blossoms at the time of the equinoctial week, and oshimazakura (*Prunus serrulata* var *albida*, a kind of yamazakura which grows on Oshima Island in Izu province). But it is not confirmed yet.

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

The small higanzakura, however, is found everywhere in Kansai (western) district and blossoms much more prettier than the other kind. It is also found in Shinano province, although it grows into a comparatively large-sized tree.

The large higan-zakura is not found in such great numbers as the other one. Jindai-zakura of Shinano, and Ishiwari-zakura of Iwaté belong to this species. Shidarezakura (the willowy sakura) also comes from this species and is called azuma-higan.

Sumiré (*Viola mandsurica*) The species of sumiré or violets is called viola in botany and violet is a popular English name, while sumiré is the popular Japanese name for it. This name is said to have originated in the carpenter's "sumi-subo or sumiiré", or Indian inkstand made of wood to which the flower resembles in shape. This "sumiiré" changed into "sumiré," so the story goes.

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

Japan is a kingdom of violets where there are found more than hundred species. In the number of species no country in the world compares with Japan. While the United States of America is so vast in area, kinds of violets which are found there number only about fifty.

Sugé (*Carex*) of sugé, carex or sedges, the most prominent is kasa sugé (*Carex disparata*), or umbrella sedges, and mino sugé, or raincoat sedges. More than 300 species of carex are found in Japan.

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

The graceful form of susuki with obana on them touches the Oriental heart and has been the subject of many celebrated poems. There are many species such as masuhonosusuki, masuno-susuki, suguronosusuki, etc.

Susuki grows abundantly in mountains and on the fields, and the tufts of obana nod before the autumnal wind.

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

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

The scientific name of this flower

is *Chrysanthemum sinense*. The word chrysanthemum is that given to the genus of this family in Europe apart from kiku, before this flower was known in that continent. Sinense is the name of the species and means China. Therefore *Chrysanthemum sinense* means the Chinese chrysanthemum. When it is called *Chrysanthemum japonicum*, it becomes the scientific name of Japanese chrysanthemum or ryuno-giku. *Chrysanthemum arcticum* means arctic chrysanthemum and is the scientific name for kohama-giku.

The origin of chrysanthemum is the wild chrysanthemum grown in China. The Chinese began to cultivate it. The chrysanthemums which were cultivated by Chinese horticulturists were brought into Japan and grew into countless varieties of chrysanthemum of to-day. In 1884 it was found by Dr. T. Makino, that the original *Chrysanthemum sinense*, which were thought to have existed only in the old China, grows in Loochoo Islands, Kyushu, Shikoku and the part of the Main Island west of Kobe.

He gave it the name of nojigiku (*Chrysanthemum sinense* var *japonense*).

The stems, leaves, flowers, colour and fragrance which nojigiku possesses are the same as those which the original species of cultivated chrysanthemum in China has.

Fauna

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

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

(*Lepus brachyurus brachyurus*) and the ptarmigan (*Lagopus mutus japonicus*) both of which become white in winter. In Korea, the hedgehog (*Erinaceus Koreanus*), tiger (*Felis tigris coreensis*), Korean pheasant (*Phasianus colchicus Karpowi*), crane (*Megalornis japonensis*) and the like are seen.

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

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

Coming to the urodele, there are various species of it, the majority of them being considered as peculiar and finding their homes in the southern district. Such species are represented by *Hynobius nebulosus*, *H. stejnegeri*, *H. vandenburgi*, etc. One of the most noteworthy is the giant salamander (*Megalobatrachus japonicus*), which inhabits the cool mountain streams of provinces in Honshu, south of Mino, and also in Kyushu. Although not common, it is not very rare. It is known to occur also in China, and may be said to represent a good example which marks off the East Asian sub-region from the others. As the representative of the northern district may be recorded *H. peropus*, which is found at high

altitudes. Extensively distributed in Japan proper are *Diemictylus pyrrhogaster* and *Onychodactylus japonicus*, the former being the commonest of all.

The freshwater fishes are known from an immense number of species, many of which appear to be rather limited in distribution. Some are confined to particular river valleys, others inhabit the lakes of a limited district only, while some are restricted to a comparatively narrow area. Generally speaking, the southern district presents us with the following species: *Acheilognathus limbatus*, *Sarcocheilichthys variegatus*, *Opsariichthys uncirostris*, *Zacco temminckii*, *Brittosus kawamebari*, *Sicyopterus japonicus*, *Rhinogobius hadropterus*, etc. Ranging over the northern area are found such forms as *Oncorhynchus*, *Pseudoperilampus typus*, *Chloea senbae*, etc. Widely spread over Japan proper occurs *Plecoglossus altivelis*. The river Nagara, in the province of Mino, is famous for its fishing with the cormorant.

Marine Fauna

On the Pacific side Japan has two principal streams of different temperatures. The warm current is known as the Japan stream, or Kuro-shiwo, which is peculiar for its high salinity. This stream has its origin in the north Pacific current from the east, and passes into the East China Sea, moving northwards by way of Luzon and Formosa.

The cold current is the well-known Kamchatka stream, or Oya-shiwo, which rises from the Behring Sea, and passes down south along the eastern coast of the Kurile group and Hokkaido, extending farther southwards off Kinkwazan, or beyond, where it meets the aforesaid Kuro-shiwo.

Receiving a paramount influence of the currents just sketched out, Japanese waters command a very rich and varied marine fauna, there being found two types of animal life, the northern and the southern. Neglecting here some southern and northern elements, which have their limits north in the Behring Sea and south off the Loochoo group, respectively, the following three faunal areas may be more or less clearly recognized, though contiguous zones blend one into the other:

(1) Northern zone, extending from the shore of the Kurile group to that of the northern part of Honshu which lies to the north of Kinkwazan.

(2) Middle zone, extending from off Kinkwazan to near the Shiwo-no-misaki, on the Pacific side, and representing the zone of mingling of the arctic or subarctic and tropical or subtropical forms. The Japan Sea may be dealt with as corresponding as a whole to this zone.

(3) Southern zone, comprising the shores of the parts of Japan proper lying to the south of the Shiwo-no-misaki, the Loochoo group, the Bonin group, and Formosa.

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

small island near Saghalien and also on some islands of the Kuriles.

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

Around the Kuriles, Hokkaido, and Saghalien are found in immense quantities many fishes like the cod, salmon, and herring, which are of the same greatest economic importance as in Norway, Scotland, Newfoundland, and other countries.

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

Ranging from the Behring Sea to the Japan Sea occurs *Paralithodes camtschatica*, which attains a large size and is one of great economic importance. Its famous fishing grounds are the coasts of Kunashir and Saghalien. With this is associated the most edible crab, *Chionectes opilio*.

A large number of molluscs are known from this district, of which the most valuable species are *Ostrea gigas*, *Mactra sachalinensis*, *Pecten yessoensis*, *Ommastrephes sloani pacificus*, etc.

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

Middle Zone In this district the arctic or subarctic overlaps the tropical or subtropical fauna, there being distinguished a great variety of animals. Most of the types characteristically Japanese belong here, abounding in rock pools and about the rocky islands. Setting aside some mammals, northern and southern, some whalebone whales may be

recorded here, which are of great economic importance. The blue whale (*Balaenoptera sibbaldii*) which is of wide distribution and of migratory habits, appears off Kinkwazan and Hokkaido in summer, and about Shikoku and Kyushu in winter. Swimming in schools in the seas around Japan proper and Hokkaido is found the common finwhale (*Bal. physalus*) which appears in the north in summer, and in the south in winter. The Sei whale (*Bal. borealis*) has a range almost similar to the preceding, extending from the southern Kuriles in the north to as far south as the Goto group. Their famous hunting grounds are off the southern Kuriles, Nemuro in Hokkaido, Kinkwazan, the Shiwo-no-misaki, the Goto group, and Korea.

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

The chief species of fishes, the occurrence of which marks this zone off from the others, may be said to be *Cynias manazo*, *Hyporhamphus sajori*, *Apogon semilineatus*, *Halichoeres poecilopterus*, etc. Some valuable fishes, as the Japanese porgy, bonitos and tunnies are caught here in immense quantities. Of scombroid fishes, *Scomber japonicus* and *Thunnus orientalis* are found on both sides, the Pacific and the Japan Sea, extending from Saghalien and Hokkaido in the north to the East China Sea in the south. Besides, this district abounds in sardine (*Sardinea melanosticta*), which is replaced in the north by the herring and in the south by *Etrumeus micropus*. *Engraulis japonicus* also occurs in much abundance, having a range somewhat wider than the sardine. Here it may be noticed that, assuming the Boso peninsula near Tokyo

to be a boundary, the species of the northern area gradually drop off, and the species of the southern area become more and more conspicuous. The reverse is true of the southern elements.

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

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

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

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

Southern Zone The fauna about Kyushu and Shikoku is less characteristically Japanese, having much in common with the neighbouring shores of the islands of Bonin, Loochoo, and Formosa, where there are forms which are almost or quite identical with those met with about the South Sea islands of Java, Celebes, Borneo, etc.

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

Extensively spread over this zone are some species of reptiles, such as *Laticauda laticaudata*, *L. colubrina*, *Emydocephalus ijimae*, *Disteira melanocephala*, etc., most of them being found not to range over to the middle zone.

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

ranges from the southern seas to Idzu, and Safole toeniura to Misaki.

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

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

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

Classification Of more than 20,000 species of animals in Japan, 3,725 representative species are contained in the "Illustrated Book of Japanese Animals," by Mr. S. Uchida and others. In addition there are illustrations of 113 species which have been imported into Japan for various purposes. They are classified as follows:

I Vertebrata	
A Mammalia	91 species
B Aves	280 "
C Reptilia	83 "
D Amphibia	34 "
E Pisces	448 "
F Cyclostomata	2 "
II Prochordata	
A Cephalochorda	1 "
B Ascidiacea	26 "
C Thaliacea	4 "
D Larvacea	2 "
E Enteropneusta	2 "
III Arthropoda	
A Insecta	568 "
B Myriapoda	15 "
C Arachnoidea	70 "
D Crustacea	493 "

IV Mollusca	
A Cephalopoda	40 species
B Pelecypoda	128 "
C Scaphopoda	3 "
D Gastropoda	320 "
E Amphineura	5 "
V Prosopygia	
A Sipunculoida	8 "
B Bryozoa	42 "
C Entoprocta	1 "
D Brachiopoda	4 "
E Phoronida	2 "
VI Annelida	
A Chaetopoda	88 "
B Archannelida	1 "
C Myzostomida	4 "
D Hirudinea	30 "
E Echiuroidea	6 "
VII Trochelminthes	
A Rotifera	28 "
B Gastrotricha	1 "
C Kinorhyncha	1 "
VIII Chætognatha	5 "
IX Nematelminthes	
A Nematoda	65 species
B Scanthocephali	5 "
X Nemetritini	10 species
XI Plathelminthes	
A Turbellaria	25 "
B Trematoda	50 "
C Cestoda	40 "
XII Echinodermata	
A Crinoidea	30 "
B Asteroidea	52 "
C Ophiuroidea	56 "
D Echinoidea	56 "
E Holothuroidea	56 "
XIII Coelenterata	
A Ctenophora	8 "
B Actinozoa	67 "
C Scyphomedusae	23 "
D Hydrozoa	115 "
XIV Porifera	
A Calcarea	19 "
B Hexactinellida	31 "
XV Mesozoa	1 "
XVI Protozoa	
A Ciliphora	22 "
B Sporozoa	20 "
C Rhizopoda	30 "
D Mastigophora	26 "
XVII Larva	72 "
Total	3,725 "
XVIII Foreign animals	113 "

Earthquakes

Italy and Japan are the two countries in the world which are famed for earthquakes. In the frequency

of earthquakes in recent years Japan beats Italy. In 1923, when the Great Kanto Earthquake occurred, there were 2,786 sensible earthquakes and 3,915 insensible ones. The number of sensible earthquakes in the five years, 1927-1931, was 12,476 in the whole Empire. About 45% of them occurred in the Kanto district, Kyoto

and Osaka districts coming next with 22%. But such earthquakes as were accompanied with casualties were very few, numbering only three during the five-year period. The seismic history of the country since 1596 records 20 big earthquakes in which the loss of lives amounted to over 1,000 each.

GREAT EARTHQUAKES IN JAPAN IN THE PAST THREE CENTURIES

Date	A.D. Japanese year	Districts	Number of persons killed
Sept. 3	1596 (Keicho 1)	Oita (Kyushu)	708
Sept. 4	1596 (Keicho 1)	Kobé, Osaka district	1,173
Jan. 31	1605 (Keicho 9)	Pacific coasts from Kyushu to Tokyo Bay	8,800
Sept. 27	1611 (Keicho 16)	Aizu (North-east district)	3,700
Dec. 2	1611 (Keicho 16)	North-east and Hokkaido coasts	4,783
June 16	1663 (Kanbun 2)	Central district	800
Feb. 2	1666 (Kanbun 6)	Takata (Echigo province)	1,500
Dec. 31	1703 (Genroku 16)	Tokyo and Tokaido	5,233
Oct. 28	1707 (Kanyei 4)	Pacific coasts of Central district	4,900
May 20	1751 (Horeki 1)	Takata (Echigo province)	2,000
March 8	1766 (Meiwa 3)	Tsugaru straits	1,335
May 21	1792 (Kansei 4)	Unzen Mt. (Kyushu)	15,200
Dec. 18	1823 (Bunsei 11)	Echigo province	1,443
May 8	1847 (Koku 4)	Shinano and Echigo provinces	12,000
July 9	1854 (Ansei 1)	Yamato to Tokaido	1,057
Dec. 23	1854 (Ansei 1)	Pacific coasts	600
Dec. 24	1854 (Ansei 1)	Kyushu, Shikoku, Isé	3,000
Nov. 11	1855 (Ansei 2)	Tokyo and vicinity	7,000
Nov. 6	1872 (Meiji 5)	Hamada (Iwami province)	600
Oct. 28	1891 (Meiji 24)	Mino and Owari provinces	7,275
Oct. 22	1894 (Meiji 27)	Uzen and Ugo provinces	720
June 15	1896 (Meiji 29)	Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori prefectures	27,122
Sept. 1	1923 (Taisho 12)	Kanto district	44,279
May 23	1925 (Taisho 14)	Tajima province	394
March 7	1927 (Showa 2)	Tango province	3,017
Nov. 26	1930 (Showa 5)	Izu, Suruga and Sagami provinces	248
March 8	1933 (Showa 8)	Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori prefectures	2,935

The Kanto Earthquake and Fire which occurred on September 1, 1923, was the severest of all the recorded earthquakes in the country in the number of casualties and amount of damages.

The quake started at 11:58'31" A.M. on that day, the epicentre being at the bottom of the sea 28 kilo-

metres below the sea level near the mouth of the Sagami river, 139° 17' E. Long., 35° 22' N. Lat. It was a seismic activity caused by a block movement of the earth, and the shock was felt all over the Empire and recorded by all the seismographs of the world. The largest width of the vibration reached to about 8 inches,

and the duration of the quake, as recorded by the seismograph in the laboratory of the Tokyo Imperial University, was over three and a half hours.

As to the casualties and damages caused by the earthquake and fire a variety of reports is published. The statistics here given are made out of those published by the Extraordinary Earthquake Rescue Bureau of the Department of Home Affairs, and those given in the Empire Statistic Year Book published by the Government.

DAMAGES TO BUILDINGS (Earthquake Rescue Bureau Figures)		
Damage	Number	Percentage
Totally burnt	381,090	54.9
Half burnt	517	0.1
Completely damaged	83,819	12.1
Half damaged	91,233	13.1
Carried off by tidal waves	1,390	0.2
Partly broken	136,572	19.6
Total	694,621	100.0

Of the above Tokyo had 354,453 houses damaged (51%), or 73.4% of the total number of houses in the city, while Yokohama had 94,882 houses destroyed (13.7%) or 95.9% of the total number of houses in the city.

CASUALTIES

(Figures from Empire Statistic Year Book and other statistical publications)

	Total	Men	Women	Proportion per 100 population in the district
Killed	44,279	20,953	23,326	0.28
Severely wounded	16,514	9,406	7,108	0.14
Wounded	35,560	20,865	14,695	0.34
Total	96,353	51,224	45,129	0.86

The number of persons killed is usually said to have reached over 100,000, and the Earthquake Rescue Bureau figures give 91,344. But the later statistics given by the Government in the Empire Statistic Year Book seems to be more correct. Of the total number there given as killed, 28,708 were crushed, 15,450 burnt in the ensuing fire, and 121 were drowned by the tidal waves.

No authoritative survey was made in regard to the loss of property and a variety of amounts is given as estimates. Most of them, however, are necessarily exaggerated. But taking the number of destroyed households, the average individual wealth and other factors as guides, the total amount of the loss may be safely said to have reached approximately ¥2,550,000,000.

Earthquakes of 1933 The biggest quake of the year occurred in the Sanriku district at 3:31 A. M. March

3. The district, which covers the Pacific coast line of three north-eastern prefectures, Miyagi, Iwate and Aomori, had often been washed by tidal waves due to seismic activities at the sea bottom, the severest loss of life being experienced in 1896. The people were, therefore, fully aware of possible tidal waves when they felt the first shock and immediately hurried to the hills, but the waves overtook them within half an hour or so, drowning 2,935 people and carrying away 13,172 houses, together with over 15,000 fishing boats. (These figures are subject to future correction). The number of casualties was but 10% of those of the 1896 quake, but the area covered and the destruction caused by it was greater. Ninety per cent. of the reconstruction work had been completed by the first anniversary.

Formosa Earthquake in 1935 On April 21, 1935 an earthquake struck Shin-

chiku and Taichu prefectures, Taiwan (Formosa). The shock suddenly began at 6:2' 17" A.M. (Taiwan time or 7:2' 17" A. M. in Japan proper) and lasted nearly one hour. The epicentre was at a point about 10 kilometres below the surface at the mouth of the Daiankei near the town of Taikō, Taichū. The width of the vibration reached from 8 mm. to 16 mm. and the shock was especially strong in a limited district because it occurred at a comparatively shallow spot. Records tell that Formosa experienced big quakes in 1655, 1720, 1722, 1861 and 1867, and this was 46th quake after 1868 and is said to have been the largest so far as the damages are concerned, the statistics of which follow:

DAMAGES AND CASUALTIES IN THE FORMOSA EARTHQUAKE IN 1935

(April 24, Ministry of Overseas Affairs Report)

Casualties:	
Killed	3,185
Severely wounded	9,215
Wounded	1,415
Missing	6
Total	13,821
Damages:	
Dwellings completely damaged	15,292
.. half damaged	15,457
.. greatly damaged	4,436
.. partly damaged	3,880
Total	38,065
Other buildings completely damaged	674
.. .. half damaged	128
.. .. greatly damaged	104
.. .. partly damaged	184
Total	990

National Parks

On October 8, 1932, a committee of 11 headed by Baron Yoshiro Fujimura, which had been conducting investigations for a year under instructions from the Home Office, submitted a report recommending 12 places in Japan as worthy of preservation and development as national parks. They were (1) Mount Fuji and Hakoné, (2) Nikko, (3) Akan, (4) Daisetsusan, (5) Lake To-

wada, (6) the Japan Alps, (7) Yoshino and Kumano, (8) the Inland Sea, (9) Daisen, (10) Mount Aso, (11) Unzen and (12) Mount Kirishima.

There of them, i.e. the Inland Sea, Unzen and Mount Kirishima were formally announced as national parks by the authorities in March, 1934, and the five parks, Akan, Daisetsusan, Nikko, the Japan Alps and Aso in November, 1934.

Descriptions of the national parks, decided and projected, follow:

Mount Fuji and Hakoné In the three prefectures of Yamanashi, Kanagawa and Shizuoka in the centre of the Mainland of Japan, the combination of the world-famous Mount Fuji, the five beautiful lakes at its foot and the hot spring resort of Hakoné is to be known as Fuji Park. Mount Fuji, superb, peerless and highest mountain of Japan proper, is known the world over for its beauty. Its perfect cone rises 3,778 metres above sea level. In July and August, crowds of pilgrims and others climb its sacred slopes to the summit.

Below Mount Fuji are the famous five Fuji lakes, all of which are visited by nature lovers because of their scenic beauty.

Few visitors to Japan fail to visit the Hakoné district, noted for its mountain scenery, invigorating climate, hot springs and places of general interest. The district, popularly known as Mount Hakoné, is the crater of an extinct volcano. Lake Ashinoko is famous for its reflection of Mount Fuji when that elusive peak is visible.

Nikko In the prefectures of Gunma, Fukushima, Tochigi and Niigata in the centre of the Mainland of Japan, 90 miles north of Tokyo, Nikko is famous the world over for its combination of art and nature. The gorgeous shrines and temples are as striking as its cryptomeria

avenue, the mountains, lakes and waterfalls. Lake Chuzenji, the largest lake in the proposed park, is extremely beautiful, and the Kegon waterfall, which serves as an outlet of the lake, is a most striking sight. Beside the lake stands Mount Nantai, which resembles in shape Mount Fuji. In inner Nikko are smaller lakes and also the hot spring district of Yumoto.

Akan Situated in Kushiro province on the Island of Hokkaido, this park contains a wide area of active volcanic mountains, imposing forests and lakes. Lake Mashu, one of the beautiful lakes below the range of volcanic mountains, lies within 10 kilometres of the Deshikutsu Hot Springs. The lake is nearly 20 square kilometres in area, and in its centre lies a small island.

Lake Kutsusharo, the largest of the group in Akan Park, measures 76.22 square kilometres in area, with the beautiful island of Tomoshiri in its centre, 12 kilometres in circumference. At the southern extremity of the lake is a small protruding strip of highland called Wakoto Peninsula, at the foot of which is Wakoto Hot Springs.

Lake Akan, probably the most beautiful of the Akan group, 11.86 square kilometres, has a zigzag shore and, being rich in changes, presents a very pleasing appearance. On the southwest of the lake rises Mount Oakan, an active volcano.

Akan Park is suitable for sight-seeing trips of two or four days from the city of Kushiro.

Daisetsuzan The Great Snow Mountains district, in the centre of the Island of Hokkaido, presents a range of active volcanoes known as the Daisetsuzan Range. Because of the great height of the mountains, this is often called the Roof of Hokkaido. Surrounding the mountains are virgin woods over an area

of 490,000 acres. The mountains form the source of the Ishikari River, the largest river on the island.

The Daisetsu volcanic range rises in more than 10 mountains, including Mount Tokachi and Mount Sangoku. Many lakes are found on the summits of the volcanoes. Mount Asahi, the highest mountain in the group and the highest in Hokkaido, is 2,290 metres above sea level. Its shape, resembling that of Mount Fuji and trailing far to the foot, is very beautiful to look at from a distance. From its summit can be seen on a fine day all Hokkaido, a magnificent view seldom equalled anywhere else.

Lake Towada In the Ohi district in Northern Japan, extending over the two prefectures of Akita and Aomori, the proposed Towada Park is distinguished by Lake Towada on the south and Mount Hakkoda on the north. Lake Towada, the third deepest in Japan, is 378 metres deep at the greatest depth. So clear is the water that one can see into it for 18 metres.

The lake, which is 401 metres above sea level is 78.02 square kilometres in area and 46.2 kilometres in circumference. In origin and scale, the lake resembles Crater Lake in America, but the beauty and variety of scenery here is said to be far superior to that of the American lake.

The Japan Alps (Chubu Sangaku or central mountains) Extending over the prefectures of Nagano, Gifu, Toyama and Niigata in Central Japan, the Hida range of mountains is called the Japan Alps after the European Alps because of its similarity in shape and scenery. Mounts Tsubakuro, Shirouma, Yari, Hodaka and Norikura are some of the high peaks, in the upper val-

leys of which snow may be found even in mid-summer. The region is an excellent place for summer mountain climbing and camping.

Kamikochi, probably the most popular spot in the region, is a flat valley in the shape of an S, 1,500 metres above sea level and surrounded by peaks towering an additional 2,000 metres. Through this valley runs the clear-watered Azusa River. The Kurobé Valley on the north is equally known for its majesty. Steep cliffs of great height stand on both sides, running for almost 80 kilometres from south to north. The region is the source of many beautiful streams and cascades which adorn and add colour to the mountain scenery.

Yoshino and Kumano On the Pacific coast of central Japan and extending over the prefectures of Wakayama, Nara and Miyé, the proposed Yoshino and Kumano Park has the dual beauties of mountains and the sea. The park area includes Mount Ominé, Mount Sanjo, Mount Odaigahara, the Hokusan Valley, Onigashiro and the beach.

Yoshino, noted for its cherry blossoms, and the other mountains in the Yoshino Range are from 1,000 to 2,000 metres above sea level. One of the highest of the 70 mountains is Mount Ominé, which is visited by 200,000 pilgrims annually. Mount Bukkyo, 1,915 metres above sea level, the highest peak in the region, commands on a fine day a striking view over the surrounding country. The sea coast within the area extends 80 kilometres. At the southern extremity of the Ushio Promontory stands a 63-foot lighthouse. Within the proposed park are the 800-foot Nachi waterfalls, the greatest in Japan, and 48 other waterfalls of varying sizes.

The Inland Sea This sea park lies

between the Island of Shikoku and the Chugoku district on the Mainland of Japan, extending to the three prefectures of Hiroshima, Okayama and Kagawa and consisting of numerous islands of all shapes and sizes between Shodo-shima in the east and Abuto in the west. The seascape is ever changing as one voyages on its historic waters. Most of the trans-Pacific liners traverse it and occasional glimpses of its beauty can be had from the trains between Kobé and Shimonoseki. The sea is famous for its great variety of fish and their superior flavour.

The area between Kitaki Island and Shimotsui, dotted here and there by numerous islands of varying sizes, presents the best scenic view in the region.

The Island of Shodo, the largest of the group, is renowned for its scenic beauty, especially its crimson autumnal leaves. Yashima is known in history as the spot where the military clans of Genji and Heiké staged a decisive battle centuries ago, ending in the victory of the former.

Daisen In the prefectures of Tottori and Okayama, in Western Japan, the proposed Daisen Park is to be the only national park facing the Japan Sea. It includes, besides Mount Daisen, 1,713 metres above sea level, several peaks of similar height. Mount Daisen is called the Fuji of Hoki, because it resembles Mount Fuji in shape when seen from Shimané prefecture. While its western side is graceful, the northern is very imposing and majestic. Numerous rocks of huge size protrude from the ground. Wide plains around the mountain offer the best skiing ground in the Chugoku district.

Mount Aso In the centre of Kyushu, Aso Park consists in Mount Aso, which forms five peaks. Aso is an active volcano, with the larg-

est and most celebrated crater in the world. Being double-cratered, it has a huge depression measuring 16 kilometres from east to west and 20 kilometres from south to north, in the centre of which lies the central crater. Within the large crater are 11 villages where 50,000 people live. Their peaceful life is interesting when contrasted with the imposing figure of the mountain.

The five Aso peaks have characteristics all their own. Naka Peak has a crater which is very active and emits smoke which ascends furiously. Half way up Eboshi Peak are three hot-spring districts, Yutani, Suitama and Jigoku, 800 metres above sea level.

Unzen In Nagasaki prefecture, Kyushu, the renowned sulphide hot springs of Unzen, discovered in 1661, annually attracts many foreigners and Japanese. Unzen is famous for the medicinal properties of its waters. It is regarded as the best summer resort in Kyushu and is also visited for its wild cherry blossoms in spring, its splendid azaleas in May, its maple foliage in autumn and its celebrated "Silver Thaw" in winter, when trees and shrubbery are coated with ice.

Unzen, consisting of the lower

peaks of Unzen, Nodaké, Takaiwa, Kusenbu, Torikabuto, Azuma, Hachimaki, and Bizan, has a feminine beauty of mountain scenery in contrast with the masculine grandeur of Mount Aso.

Mount Kirishima In the prefectures of Miyazaki and Kagoshima, Kyushu, the proposed Kirishima Park consists of 22 gracefully shaped volcanic mountains with characteristic craters, lakes, plains, woods and forests. The view from the mountains extends as far as Sakura Island in Kinko Bay, and that toward Mount Aso and Unzen in the distance is extremely beautiful. Kirishima is also rich in folklore, which gives it a touch of romance.

To have the best view, one must go up Mount Karakuni, the highest peak in the group, 1,700 metres above sea level. The woods turn into slopes and farther on comes a huge plain. The crater lake is soon reached, and hence a steep road leads to the summit. Three hours of walking are needed to reach Mount Takachiho. In the neighbourhood of Shinnen and Nakadaké, wild azaleas bloom in May, turning the locality into a veritable flower garden.

CHAPTER II

POPULATION

General Survey

The outstanding aspects of the population of Japan are that it has virtually doubled in Japan proper in the past 60 years, that the excess of its birth rate over the death rate is one of the highest in the world, and that its density is such that the land within the Empire leaves scant room for expansion.

The third quinquennial national census, taken on October 1, 1930, showed a total population for the Empire of 90,396,043, exceeded in only the British Empire, China, the Soviet Union and the United States. Though lack of statistics makes it impossible to trace the growth with any accuracy from early days, it has been variously estimated that in the 7th and 8th centuries the population ranged between 5,000,000 and 8,000,000 or 9,000,000. Figures compiled at regular intervals between 1721 and 1846, despite their understatement of the actual population because of certain known omissions, indicate comparative stability at about 26,000,000 for more than a century preceding the Meiji Restoration.

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

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

This increase, it is to be noted, started with the opening of the country to world commerce and paralleled Japanese economic expansion. As means of subsistence gained, so did the size of the population. The death rate did not drop appreciably until recent years, but the birth rate, in contrast with that in other leading nations, became higher, jumping from 17 per 1,000 of population in 1872 to 32.35 per 1,000 in 1930, with a peak of 36.2 in 1920. In no other important nation, unless it be the Soviet Union, is the rate so high.

With a total area of 382,314 square kilometres, Japan proper has a population density of 169 persons to the square kilometre.

In 1930 the average number of the members of a household in Japan proper was 5.1. It differs according to districts. In the eastern districts, from Toyama, Nagano to Hokkaido, it was from 5 to 6, the north-eastern prefectures heading the list with their average of 6. In the western districts, that is to say, Ishikawa, Aichi, Kyoto, Osaka, Chugoku (western prefectures of the Main Island), Shikoku, Kagoshima prefecture and the Loochoos, it was below 5, the lowest being Kyoto, Osaka and Chugoku districts. Classified in accordance with prefectures, those prefectures which have big cities show a much smaller average, Tokyo being 4.8, Osaka 4.6, Kyoto and Hyogo (Kobé) 4.7. This phenomenon is evidently occasioned by the social and economic conditions in city life which necessitate a small-family system.

POPULATION OF THE EMPIRE

According to the census of October 1, 1925

	Total population	Male	Female	Population per square kilometre	Males to 100 Females
Empire	83,456,929	42,209,100	41,247,829	124	102.3
Japan proper	59,736,822	30,013,100	29,723,713	156	101.0
Korea	19,522,945	10,020,943	9,502,002	88	105.5
Formosa	3,993,408	2,052,669	1,940,739	111	195.8
Karafuto	203,754	122,379	81,375	6	150.4
Kwantung Province and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,054,074	644,491	409,583	283	157.4
South Sea Mandated Islands	56,294	30,100	26,194	26	114.9

According to the census of October 1, 1930

	Total population	Male	Female	Population per square kilometre	Males to 100 Females
Empire	90,396,043	45,675,654	44,720,389	134	102.1
Japan proper	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850	169	101.0
Korea	21,058,305	10,763,679	10,294,626	95	104.6
Formosa	4,592,537	2,353,288	2,239,249	128	105.1
Karafuto	295,196	168,532	126,664	8	133.1
Kwantung Province and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,328,011	809,044	518,967	355	155.9
South Sea Mandated Islands	69,626	37,929	31,697	32	119.7

The average rate of annual increase of population during the five years from 1925 to 1930 in Japan proper was 15.304 per 1,000; 15.361 in male and 15.247 in female. In Chosen it was 15.256, in Taiwan 28.352, in Karafuto 76.963.

The quinquennial increase of the population, 1925-1930

Empire	6,939,114	Kwantung Province and South Manchuria Railway Zone	273,987
Japan proper	4,713,183		
Korea	1,535,360		
Formosa	599,129		
Karafuto	91,442		

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

Year	Population of the Empire		Births	Deaths	Natural increase
	Japan proper	Others			
1920	55,963,053	21,025,326	2,025,564	1,422,096	603,468
1925	59,736,822	23,720,107	2,086,001	1,210,706	875,295
1929	62,938,200	24,131,124	2,077,026	1,261,228	815,798
1930	64,450,005	25,946,038	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234
1931	65,366,500	25,354,311	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893
1932	66,296,000	27,230,234	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398
1933	67,238,600	—	2,121,253	1,193,987	927,266
1934	68,194,900	—	—	—	—

Note:—National census was taken three times quinquennially since 1920. For intercensal years figures on population are estimations.

PREFECTURAL POPULATIONS

According to the census of October 1, 1930

Prefecture	Area (Square kilometre)	Households	Population	Population per sq. kilometre	Estimate Oct. 1, 1934
Total	382,314,390	12,705,896	64,450,005	169	68,194,900
Hokkaido	88,775,036	509,758	2,812,335	32	3,061,600
Aomori	9,630,924	148,291	879,914	91	933,100
Iwaté	15,235,306	182,965	975,771	64	1,035,200
Miyagi	7,273,754	187,661	1,142,784	157	1,221,200
Akita	11,963,861	167,095	987,706	85	1,028,500
Yamagata	9,825,757	176,984	1,080,034	116	1,121,900
Fukushima	13,781,613	263,939	1,508,150	109	1,564,200
Ibaraki	6,090,990	281,110	1,487,097	244	1,549,200
Tochigi	6,436,585	205,360	1,141,737	177	1,182,500
Gumma	6,335,823	217,025	1,186,080	187	1,239,500
Saitama	3,802,700	265,353	1,469,172	384	1,510,800
Chiba	5,078,810	281,316	1,470,121	289	1,526,400
Tokyo	2,144,787	1,125,773	5,408,678	2,522	6,142,100
Kanagawa	2,353,484	323,301	1,519,606	688	1,780,800
Niigata	12,578,050	346,687	1,933,326	154	1,999,700
Toyama	4,257,419	150,661	778,953	183	802,600
Ishikawa	4,197,513	155,084	756,835	180	761,600
Fukui	4,017,969	128,308	618,144	154	634,200
Yamanashi	4,465,866	122,012	631,042	141	655,200
Nagano	13,626,130	327,871	1,717,118	126	1,787,000
Gifu	10,404,701	235,071	1,178,405	112	1,214,800
Shizuoka	7,769,912	327,871	1,797,805	231	1,898,400
Aichi	5,081,142	521,146	2,567,413	505	2,764,400
Miyé	5,765,280	235,706	1,157,407	201	1,196,900
Shiga	4,050,929	147,963	691,631	171	714,800
Kyoto	462,196	328,202	1,552,832	336	1,669,200
Osaka	1,813,631	770,868	3,540,017	1,952	3,921,800
Hyogo	8,322,875	562,599	2,646,301	318	2,798,600
Nara	3,688,600	120,302	596,225	162	606,100
Wakayama	4,723,423	177,455	830,748	176	865,100
Tottori	3,489,481	94,729	489,266	140	502,800
Shimané	6,618,042	157,568	739,507	112	753,100
Okayama	7,046,475	274,915	1,283,962	182	1,320,100
Hiroshima	8,436,517	360,897	1,692,136	201	1,751,300
Yamaguchi	6,082,108	249,183	1,135,637	187	1,168,300
Tokushima	4,143,221	144,540	716,544	173	737,800
Kagawa	1,858,730	150,153	732,816	394	758,600
Ehime	5,667,108	239,509	1,142,122	202	1,178,500
Kochi	7,103,620	153,957	718,152	101	742,500
Fukuoka	4,939,646	496,447	2,527,119	512	2,706,300
Saga	2,443,897	128,738	691,565	283	696,900
Nagasaki	4,075,777	241,547	1,233,362	303	1,288,500
Kumamoto	7,437,723	256,285	1,353,993	182	1,400,000
Oita	6,333,830	190,318	945,771	149	970,100
Miyazaki	7,738,846	148,006	760,467	98	815,600
Kagoshima	9,103,810	322,088	1,556,690	171	1,623,800
Okinawa	2,386,288	123,274	577,509	242	593,300

Races of the Japanese Empire

The Japanese What constitutes the main part of the population of the Empire is the Japanese. Their number, according to the latest national census of 1930, reaches to

about 64,400,000 (32,300,000 males and 32,050,000 females), most of whom occupy the main group of the Japanese archipelago, although they are also found scattered in almost any part of the Empire.

Of late, constant emigration and

immigration are taking place between Korea and Japan, but the main population of Korea is Korean and numbers about 20,000,000.

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

Most of them are found in Hokkaido, especially in the province of Hitaka, their number being 16,000. In Karafuto there are about 1,500 according to the national census of 1925; formerly they lived scattered along the sea coasts of Karafuto, but the government policy made a point of collecting them in a few prescribed Ainu villages for the purpose of better protection. Those in Chishima are very few in number and do not exceed one hundred. In Hokkaido, as a result of daily contact with the Japanese, they are greatly mixed and are fast changing their customs and manners to accord with the fashion of the Japanese neighbours.

As to the position of the Ainu in the ethnic system, there is no consensus of opinion. It was, and still is, a conundrum in anthropology. Years ago the view that the Ainu formed a "Race Island" was put forward by Y. Koganei.

Gilyaks whose home is in the Amur region of Siberia, are also found along the Poronai River in the southern part of the Japanese possession in Saghalien. They call themselves "Nickbun" and were reported in 1925 to be 77 in all, 40 being males and 37 females. Their affinity with other races is not clear, and they are simply classed as one of the palae-Asiatics.

The Orokes who inhabit the same region in Saghalien as the Gilyaks, are also immigrants from the mainland of Asia. They are a branch of the Tungusic group, but are said to show a considerable influence of the

Ainu, Gilyaks and also of the Russians.

The inhabitants of Formosa may be roughly divided into two groups, one is chiefly made up of the Chinese immigrants from Kwantung and Fukien provinces, and occupies the lowland districts and the western half of the island; and the other is made up of the wild hill-tribes inhabiting the mountainous eastern half, and is the more aboriginal of the two. These, on the basis of physical anthropology, ethnology and linguistics, are usually subdivided into eight tribes, namely: Taiyal, Seddaka, Saiset, Tsou, Bunun, Paiwan, Ami and Yami. They are estimated to be about 130,000 in number and to belong either to Malay, or to the Indonesian family.

The Natives of Micronesia Micronesia which is under our mandatory administration, consists of innumerable small islands, some of which are uninhabited; hence, the native population is only about 49,000. The natives of Saipan, Palau, Yap, Truk, Ponape, Kusaie, Jaluit, etc., constitute the main part of the population. They are usually divided into two ethnic groups. One is known as the Chamorros and is chiefly found in Saipan, although some have emigrated to the island of Palau and Yap, and comprises about 2,800 in all according to the census of 1923. The other, commonly known as Kanakas, and found scattered in almost every island, is estimated at 46,000 in number.

In addition, it may be said that in the Ogasawara group of islands known as the "Bonin" (corruption of "Mujin" or "Bunin"—uninhabited) there are the naturalized descendants of European and American fishermen, Italian, English, Portuguese, etc., numbering about 120 and these form a sort of foreign settlement of their own.

Age Distribution

Figures for 64,067,050* persons residing in Japan proper show that those less than 14 years of age, termed juveniles, constitute 36.7% of the population; those from 15 to 59 inclusive, termed productives, 55.9%, and those of 60 or more, termed the aged, 7.4%. Of the males, 36.5% are juvenile, 57% productive and 6.5% aged; of the females, 36.9% are juvenile, 54.8% productive and 8.3% aged. Though

*Note: The figures do not cover the full population because they are made out tentatively by the sampling method for the benefit of the public on the basis of a certain number among all the reports sent into the Statistics Bureau. The complete figures are not yet available.

males exceed females at birth, mortality among them is higher up to the age of 5. Between the ages of 5 and 34, female mortality is the greater, but with the latter age male mortality again takes the lead.

In the decade between 1920 and 1930, the number of juveniles per 1,000 of population increased by two, productives gained by six and the aged decreased by eight. Despite this tendency of the productive group to become larger, it still carries in Japan a much heavier burden than the productive groups in other countries, as is indicated in the following compilation of the general age groups per 1,000 of population:

DISTRIBUTION OF JUVENILES, PRODUCTIVES AND THE AGED

Age ¹	Total	Males	Females	Males to 100 Females	Per 1,000 of		
					Total	Males	Females
Juveniles 0-14	23,502,060	11,722,160	11,780,000	101.65	—	—	—
Productives 15-59	35,827,260	18,418,100	17,414,160	105.74	567	365	369
Aged 60-	4,737,730	2,101,730	2,636,000	79.73	74	65	83

¹ Those below one year were calculated as 0, those not yet fully 2 years of age as 1 year old, etc.

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE GROUPS

Age	Total	Males	Females	Males to 100 Females	Per 1,000 of		
					Total	Males	Females
Total	64,067,050	32,294,890	31,772,160	101.65	—	—	—
0-4	9,044,000	4,468,000	4,576,000	97.64	141	138	144
5-9	7,741,000	3,897,000	3,844,000	101.58	121	121	121
10-14	6,717,060	3,415,060	3,302,000	103.42	105	106	104
15-19	6,272,660	3,281,660	2,991,000	109.72	98	102	94
20-24	5,452,180	2,810,160	2,642,020	106.36	85	87	83
25-29	4,822,370	2,509,330	2,313,040	108.49	75	78	73
30-34	4,091,990	2,148,960	1,943,030	110.60	64	67	61
35-39	3,541,890	1,812,870	1,729,020	104.85	55	56	54
40-44	3,382,230	1,738,300	1,644,030	105.73	53	54	52
45-49	3,103,490	1,558,470	1,545,020	100.87	48	48	49
50-54	2,867,080	1,438,080	1,429,000	100.64	45	45	45
55-59	2,298,370	1,115,870	1,178,000	94.68	36	35	37
60-64	1,602,530	804,820	888,000	90.60	26	25	28
65-69	1,265,170	596,170	679,000	86.33	20	18	21
70-74	888,040	371,040	517,000	71.77	14	11	16
75-79	541,000	223,000	318,000	70.13	8	7	10
80—	351,000	117,000	234,000	50.00	5	4	7

Vocational Distribution

According to the census of 1920, the percentage of persons engaged in agriculture was 48% of the entire population, industry 19%, com-

merce 13%, and other occupations below 10% each.

The complete figures of the 1930 census are not yet available; but the Statistics Bureau issued the following tentative table:

OCCUPIED AND UNOCCUPIED

	Total	Male	Female	In Every 1,000		
				Total	Male	Female
Total	64,067,050	32,294,890	31,772,160	1,000	1,000	1,000
Occupied	29,220,550	19,089,520	10,131,030	456	591	819
Unoccupied	34,846,500	13,205,370	21,641,130	544	409	681

OCCUPIED, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS OF OCCUPATION

	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	29,220,550	19,089,520	10,131,030	1,000	1,000	1,000
Agriculture	14,156,030	7,791,030	6,365,000	484	406	628
Fisheries	568,040	521,040	47,000	19	27	5
Mining	236,180	198,180	38,000	8	10	4
Industry	5,290,560	4,286,560	1,004,000	181	225	99
Commerce	4,463,110	3,026,110	1,437,000	153	159	142
Transport	1,108,560	1,027,560	81,000	38	54	8
Public service	2,031,070	1,685,060	346,010	70	88	34
Domestic service	806,000	87,000	719,000	28	5	71
Miscellaneous	561,000	466,980	94,020	19	24	9

UNOCCUPIED

	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	34,846,500	13,205,370	21,641,130	1,000	1,000	1,000
Living on proceeds from property, investment, etc.	193,010	129,010	54,000	6	10	3
Children, the aged and unemployed	34,653,490	13,076,360	21,577,130	994	990	997

Sex Distribution

As a whole, males slightly outnumber females in Japan proper but by a considerable margin in the colonies, as the following table indicates. Between rural and urban areas, there is a difference in this respect. Females exceed males in the rural districts of Japan proper, and in the cities the proportion of males to females is much higher than in the country as a whole. The following table gives the ratio of males to 100 females in Japan proper as recorded in the quinquennial censuses :

	Total		Japanese		Natives	
	Whole area	Cities	Whole area	Cities	Whole area	Cities
Chosen ¹	103.9	107.7	107.8	106.2	103.2	104.6
Taiwan	105.1	108.9	117.0	115.4	103.6	102.5
Kwantung	155.9	190.8	107.2	105.6	163.1 ²	253.6 ²
Karafuto	133.1	119.8	—	—	—	—

1. For Chosen and Taiwan, the figures are for the end of 1930; for Kwantung and Karafuto, October 1, 1930.

2. A few foreigners are included.

	Whole area	Rural areas	Cities	Cities above 100,000
1920	100.4	98.7	108.7	111.6
1925	100.0	98.2	107.6	111.3
1930	101.0	99.2	107.9	110.6

In Chosen, Taiwan and the Kwantung Leased Territory, the same fact is observed, the ratio of males to females being higher in the cities than in the whole areas, but it is not so among the Japanese elements in these colonies. Though Japanese males outnumber females in both rural and urban districts, the excess is less in the cities. Karafuto is an exception to the general rule. The ratio of males to 100 females in the colonies is as follows :

The following tables show the rate of marriages, divorces and births, in Japan proper, in the latest decade.

Marriages and Divorces

In 1933 the number of marriages in Japan proper was 486,058, a decrease of 29,212 compared with the previous year. The number of marriages per 1,000 population was 7.23, or 0.54 lower compared with the previous year, regaining the gen-

eral trend of recent years, which is decidedly on the decline. The number of divorces in the same year was 49,282, or 2,155 less than in 1932. The number of divorces per 1,000 population was 0.73 or 0.05 lower than the previous year. Before 1920 the number of divorces surpassed the 100,000 mark in a year and the proportion per 1,000 population was from 2.0 at the lowest to 3.0 at the highest, but it has kept a rate lower than 1.0 since 1920.

MARRIAGES AND DIVORCES

Year	Marriages	Divorces	Proportion per 1,000 population		Year	Marriages	Divorces	Proportion per 1,000 population	
			Marriages	Divorces				Marriages	Divorces
1924	513,130	51,770	8.68	0.88	1929	497,410	51,222	7.90	0.81
1925	521,438	51,687	8.73	0.87	1930	506,674	51,259	7.86	0.80
1926	502,847	50,472	8.31	0.83	1931	496,574	50,609	7.60	0.77
1927	487,850	50,626	7.96	0.83	1932	515,270	51,437	7.77	0.78
1928	499,555	49,119	8.01	0.79	1933	486,058	49,282	7.23	0.73

MARRIAGES BY AGE GROUPS

Year	Husbands									
	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total	513,130	521,438	502,847	487,850	499,555	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058
Under 15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
15-19	14,436	13,818	13,825	12,378	11,654	10,617	9,896	8,467	7,734	6,635
20-24	166,737	167,658	157,404	147,413	146,627	142,225	145,421	144,234	145,917	130,569
25-29	186,584	192,689	190,710	191,937	202,217	204,513	209,552	205,747	214,886	205,402
30-34	67,430	68,850	67,590	65,236	68,419	69,012	70,638	70,903	77,421	73,934
35-39	31,949	32,290	30,231	28,754	28,629	28,290	28,713	27,893	29,299	29,129
40-49	31,215	30,873	28,790	27,464	27,431	27,664	27,665	24,948	25,303	25,454
50-59	10,807	11,097	10,731	10,622	10,535	10,942	10,755	10,397	10,720	10,740
Above 60	3,972	4,163	4,066	4,046	4,043	4,138	4,129	3,985	3,990	4,195
Year	Wives									
	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total	513,130	521,438	502,847	487,850	499,555	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058
Under 15	132	135	116	62	27	27	34	26	37	19
15-19	123,741	123,537	123,677	120,584	117,694	109,115	105,467	96,039	92,064	80,592
20-24	247,920	254,092	239,763	231,869	243,966	250,233	263,962	267,714	279,728	263,644
25-29	78,238	80,108	77,831	75,979	78,086	77,795	77,755	76,528	83,836	83,152
30-34	27,749	27,607	27,712	26,673	27,480	27,656	27,432	26,155	28,567	27,181
35-39	14,731	14,821	13,930	13,114	13,297	12,963	12,797	12,395	13,044	13,320
40-49	15,045	15,158	14,086	13,633	13,223	13,557	13,049	11,759	12,017	11,987
50-59	4,587	4,905	4,666	4,860	4,735	4,926	5,087	4,868	4,886	4,999
Above 60	987	1,076	1,066	1,076	1,047	1,138	1,091	1,090	1,091	1,161

PROPORTION PER 1,000 MARRIAGES

Year	Husbands									
	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0
Under 15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
15-19	28.1	26.5	26.5	25.4	23.5	21.3	19.5	17.1	15.0	13.7

Cause of Death	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Smallpox	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Measles	12.7	5.1	11.0	5.3	7.2
Scarlet fever	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Whooping cough	7.8	6.4	6.7	12.5	5.3
Diphtheria	3.7	3.5	3.7	3.8	4.6
Influenza	6.7	4.4	12.6	4.6	4.0
Cholera	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cholera morbus	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Dysentery	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.4	3.0
Pest	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cerebrospinal meningitis	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Other epidemics	15.4	15.5	14.9	16.6	16.5
Tuberculosis, lungs	70.1	73.5	71.9	74.4	77.9
Cerebral tuberculosis	4.0	5.0	4.9	5.0	5.5
Tuberculosis, other organs	22.8	23.7	21.4	22.0	22.2
Cancer	33.7	37.2	34.8	37.3	37.6
Mortal swellings	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3
Meningitis	42.9	40.6	37.3	37.1	35.8
Cerebral hæmorrhage, apoplexy	85.8	89.5	86.4	91.2	91.7
Diseases of the heart	30.6	32.0	30.7	29.9	30.3
Acute bronchitis	13.2	12.3	12.3	12.1	11.5
Chronic bronchitis	12.1	11.6	12.2	11.4	11.2
Pneumonia and bronchopneumonia	96.1	86.3	104.3	95.9	88.3
Pleurisy	13.6	14.2	14.2	14.9	14.8
Other diseases of the respiratory organs	11.4	11.5	12.1	11.5	11.8
Diseases of the stomach	18.2	19.6	18.2	18.5	18.5
Diarrhœa and enteritis	124.3	121.8	112.9	116.9	119.4
Appendicitis and cœcitis	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.2
Hernia, intestinal obstruction	3.8	4.1	3.8	4.1	4.3
Hepatitis	3.6	4.0	3.5	3.8	3.9
Nephritis	51.8	54.2	51.8	52.2	51.2
Diseases of the female genitals	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3
Puerperal fever	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.2
Accidents of childbirth.	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.3
Diseases peculiar to early infancy	65.5	64.1	62.6	64.1	62.5
Senility (old age)	62.8	65.4	69.0	66.0	69.5
Violent deaths	21.4	22.7	20.7	23.1	26.2
Suicides	10.1	11.9	11.6	12.5	12.4
Syphilis	5.1	5.1	4.9	5.0	4.9
Beriberi	12.3	13.2	14.3	10.0	11.6
Diabetes mellitus	1.8	1.9	1.8	2.0	2.1
Peritonitis	16.4	17.3	15.7	16.4	16.7
Other diseases	64.3	67.3	63.2	66.4	67.5
Ill-defined diseases and causes	36.1	35.2	36.0	34.9	33.4

DEATHS CLASSIFIED BY AGE AND CAUSES 1933

Age	Total	Typhoid fever	Measles	Whooping cough	Diphtheria	Influenza	Dysentery
Total	1,193,987	7,652	8,442	6,157	5,437	4,765	14,880
Total	405,781	94	7,979	6,002	3,860	2,067	10,660
0	257,251	7	3,083	3,442	339	1,386	175
1	72,428	17	3,185	1,595	1,062	336	1,083
2	36,652	19	1,010	567	998	166	3,530
3	23,508	28	426	267	812	106	3,474
4	15,942	23	275	131	649	73	2,398
5-9	33,119	237	405	150	1,350	193	2,649
10-14	22,585	601	27	4	157	96	200
15-19	50,824	1,195	9	1	27	132	119

Age	Total	Typhoid fever	Measles	Whooping cough	Diphtheria	Influenza	Dysentery
20-24	57,123	1,122	6	0	13	132	124
25-29	41,806	957	4	0	4	118	73
30-34	35,542	793	2	0	8	132	87
35-39	32,720	618	2	0	2	133	54
40-44	32,657	485	2	0	2	108	70
45-49	36,716	411	1	0	3	120	68
50-54	47,654	379	1	0	7	133	81
55-59	58,166	276	2	0	1	173	117
60-69	129,047	325	1	0	3	467	261
70-79	135,632	96	1	0	3	507	242
80-89	64,628	13	0	0	1	234	73
90 and above	5,244	0	0	0	0	11	2
Ill-defined	62	0	0	0	0	0	0

Age	Tuberculosis, lungs	Tuberculosis, other organs	Syphilis	Purulent infectious spticaemia	Cancer and other inglig-nant tumours	Menin-gitis	Cerebral hæmorrhage, embolism and throm-bosis	Chro-nic endo-carditis, valvular disease	Ar-terio-scle-rosis and gan-grene	Bron-chitis
Total	93,640	33,063	5,835	8,993	46,879	42,546	110,719	23,123	4,842	25,397
Total	1,698	3,057	3,482	3,224	158	27,892	208	511	171	11,215
0	461	527	3,297	2,054	46	12,622	64	132	64	8,561
1	576	742	128	532	35	5,868	53	142	30	1,618
2	301	626	25	244	28	4,292	44	92	36	579
3	183	571	16	204	33	2,994	22	77	27	303
4	177	591	16	190	16	2,116	25	68	14	154
5-9	1,104	2,452	28	751	44	3,979	82	503	36	316
10-14	3,897	2,935	81	593	54	1,928	84	759	12	250
15-19	17,732	6,582	40	413	112	1,967	143	1,042	6	712
20-24	20,699	6,344	89	434	197	1,567	262	965	18	786
25-29	14,157	3,576	124	407	427	958	368	858	11	543
30-34	9,141	2,276	252	433	919	737	787	966	17	405
35-39	6,140	1,449	333	428	1,749	618	1,603	1,076	26	327
40-44	4,620	1,049	312	393	2,743	500	2,941	1,297	52	343
45-49	3,905	866	304	344	4,113	472	5,188	1,442	105	533
40-54	3,515	793	245	371	6,128	474	8,914	2,007	203	309
55-59	2,948	669	250	351	7,711	469	12,897	2,407	349	1,177
60-69	3,230	724	255	542	14,493	647	35,397	4,739	1,316	3,337
70-79	780	252	84	255	6,890	297	31,900	3,637	1,618	3,332
80-89	67	38	6	50	1,111	47	9,544	902	848	1,230
90 and above	3	1	0	4	18	2	387	29	54	73
Ill-defined	4	0	0	0	2	1	5	1	0	0

Age	Pneumonia (all forms)	Pleurisy	Ulcer of the stomach or duodenum	Diarrhœa and enteritis	Hernia, Intestinal obstruction	Neph-ritis	Puerperal sepsis and toxœmias of preg-nancy
Total	106,247	17,577	10,524	130,751	5,392	59,986	3,160
Total	69,154	2,661	172	95,439	1,440	6,605	0
0	42,925	1,012	35	50,704	960	2,257	0
1	15,844	1,051	38	29,210	198	1,139	0
2	5,871	304	36	7,924	126	1,213	0
3	2,801	174	38	4,829	85	1,137	0
4	1,715	120	25	2,772	71	859	0

POPULATION

Age	Pneumonia (all forms)	Pleurisy	Ulcer of the stomach or duodenum	Diarrhœa and enteritis	Hernia, Intestinal obstruction	Neph- ritis	Puerperal sepsis and toxæmias of preg- nancy
5-9	3 260	524	63	3,272	193	2,247	0
10-14	1,458	873	49	954	142	1,186	0
15-19	2,253	2,741	180	1,333	187	1,328	209
20-24	2,528	2,857	261	1,460	228	1,564	767
25-29	2,195	1,609	282	1,182	242	1,501	662
30-34	2,194	1,048	398	1,066	231	1,675	633
35-39	1,814	749	534	1,036	246	1,920	578
40-44	1,756	640	728	986	241	2,093	284
45-49	1,767	616	985	1,338	302	2,435	26
50-54	2,210	717	1,343	1,930	314	3,400	3
55-59	2,809	687	1,457	2,905	367	4,525	2
60-69	6,296	1,133	2,489	6,551	786	12,055	0
70-79	4,925	587	1,329	7,676	425	12,481	0
80-89	1,542	181	246	3,400	97	4,697	0
90 and above	83	4	7	220	1	273	0
Ill-defined	1	0	1	3	0	1	0

Age	Congenital debility (under 1 year)	Senility	Accidental deaths	Suicides	Beriberi	Others
Total	67,498	83,197	29,871	14,805	13,828	208,781
Total	67,498	0	7,645	0	8,074	64,813
0	67,498	0	1,436	0	7,733	46,431
1	0	0	2,146	0	284	5,516
2	0	0	1,984	0	34	6,603
3	0	0	1,146	0	11	3,744
4	0	0	933	0	12	2,519
5-9	0	0	2,771	1	41	6,418
10-14	0	0	1,212	88	265	4,721
15-19	0	0	2,003	1,821	1,262	7,283
20-24	0	0	2,441	2,714	1,106	8,489
25-29	0	0	1,863	1,586	715	7,434
30-34	0	0	1,793	1,022	512	8,015
35-39	0	0	1,547	830	397	8,511
40-44	0	0	1,333	765	292	8,635
45-49	0	0	1,212	831	240	9,075
50-54	0	0	1,243	961	235	11,233
55-59	0	0	1,100	986	232	13,299
60-69	0	9,128	1,777	1,689	300	25,780
70-79	0	26,761	1,884	1,162	152	18,876
80-89	0	33,632	496	360	25	5,838
90 and above	0	3,675	33	22	0	342
Ill-defined	0	1	13	17	0	19

Birth and death rates in Japan proper are shown below :

PROPORTION PER 1,000 POPULATION

Year	Birth	Still-Birth	Death	Excess of Birth
1924	33.79	2.13	21.22	12.57
1925	34.92	2.08	20.27	14.65
1926	34.77	2.05	19.18	15.59
1927	33.61	1.91	19.81	13.81
1928	34.38	1.93	19.91	14.47
1929	33.00	1.86	20.04	12.96
1930	32.35	1.83	18.17	14.19
1931	32.17	1.78	18.98	13.19
1932	32.92	1.80	17.73	15.19
1933	31.55	1.70	17.76	13.79

Expectation of Life

The following table gives average expectation of life of Japanese people for both sexes calculated at the Bureau of Statistics in the Cabinet based on the vital statistics for a period from 1921 to 1925. The average expectation of life may also be called the average span of life. It means the average length of years during which persons of various age

EXPECTATION OF LIFE

is expected to survive. Of course, the length of life of any individual person, or state of his health in the future may not be predicted by the

following table alone, but it may serve to give the general idea for the study of the problem :

Age	Males	Females	Age	Males	Females	Age	Males	Females
Under 1 year	42.06	43.20	1 year	49.14	49.42	2 years	50.62	50.86
3 years	50.96	51.22	4 years	50.81	51.12	5 ..	50.35	50.71
6 ..	49.70	50.10	7 ..	48.96	49.39	8 ..	48.19	48.63
9 ..	47.37	47.83	10 ..	46.53	47.00	11 ..	45.68	46.18
12 ..	44.82	45.36	13 ..	43.96	44.55	14 ..	43.12	43.80
15 ..	42.31	43.12	16 ..	41.56	42.51	17 ..	40.88	41.94
18 ..	40.25	41.41	19 ..	39.67	40.89	20 ..	39.10	40.33
21 ..	38.52	39.87	22 ..	37.92	39.35	23 ..	37.32	38.83
24 ..	36.70	38.28	25 ..	36.06	37.72	26 ..	35.40	37.14
27 ..	34.72	36.55	28 ..	34.03	35.94	29 ..	33.31	35.32
30 ..	32.59	34.69	31 ..	31.85	34.06	32 ..	31.12	33.41
33 ..	30.37	32.76	34 ..	29.62	32.10	35 ..	28.87	31.44
36 ..	28.12	30.77	37 ..	27.37	30.11	38 ..	26.62	29.44
39 ..	25.87	28.77	40 ..	25.13	28.09	41 ..	24.39	27.41
42 ..	23.66	26.71	43 ..	22.93	26.01	44 ..	22.21	25.30
45 ..	21.49	24.58	46 ..	20.78	23.85	47 ..	20.08	23.13
48 ..	19.38	22.40	49 ..	18.70	21.67	50 ..	18.02	20.95
51 ..	17.35	20.24	52 ..	16.69	19.53	53 ..	16.04	18.82
54 ..	15.40	18.12	55 ..	14.77	17.43	56 ..	14.16	16.74
57 ..	13.56	16.07	58 ..	12.98	15.41	59 ..	12.41	14.76
60 ..	11.87	14.12	61 ..	11.33	13.49	62 ..	10.80	12.87
63 ..	10.29	12.26	64 ..	9.79	11.67	65 ..	9.31	11.10
66 ..	8.84	10.54	67 ..	8.38	9.99	68 ..	7.94	9.46
69 ..	7.52	8.94	70 ..	7.11	8.44	71 ..	6.72	7.96
72 ..	6.35	7.50	73 ..	5.99	7.05	74 ..	5.64	6.62
75 ..	5.31	6.21	76 ..	4.99	5.82	77 ..	4.69	5.44
78 ..	4.40	5.08	79 ..	4.18	4.74	80 ..	3.87	4.41
81 ..	3.62	4.11	82 ..	3.39	3.82	83 ..	3.17	3.54
84 ..	2.96	3.28	85 ..	2.77	3.04	86 ..	2.58	2.81
87 ..	2.41	2.60	88 ..	2.24	2.40	89 ..	2.09	2.21
90 ..	1.95	2.04	91 ..	1.81	1.88	92 ..	1.69	1.73
93 ..	1.57	1.59	94 ..	1.46	1.47	95 ..	1.37	1.36
96 ..	1.27	1.25	97 ..	1.18	1.15	98 ..	1.09	1.09
99 ..	0.99	0.98	100 ..	0.83	0.89	101 ..	—	0.77

In the following table is given the comparison of figures in the above table; (-) indicates the decrease over the corresponding figures for the period from 1908 to 1913.

Average Age of Death In the following table are given the average age of males and females who have died since 1886 :

Age	Males	Females	Year	Males	Females
Under one year	(-) 2.19	(-) 1.53	1886	33.13	38.91
Five years	(-) 2.22	(-) 1.45	1902	32.65	33.70
Ten years	(-) 2.29	(-) 1.51	1912	31.60	32.17
Twenty years	(-) 1.96	(-) 1.29	1922	31.71	32.10
Thirty years	(-) 1.72	(-) 1.03	1923	31.43	31.68
Forty years	(-) 1.69	(-) 0.94	1924	32.22	32.65
Fifty years	(-) 1.59	(-) 0.89	1925	32.15	32.29
Sixty years	(-) 1.41	(-) 0.87	1926	32.24	32.55
Seventy years	(-) 1.15	(-) 0.84	1927	32.30	32.91
			1928	32.83	33.06
			1929	32.57	33.27
			1930	33.80	34.46
			1931	33.74	34.50
			1932	33.56	34.34

The expectation of life has, on the whole, declined.

Urbanization

As in other countries where industry is of importance, Japan has experienced a shift of population from the countryside to the towns and cities. Concurrently, communities have amalgamated to form larger units. The following tables show the trend toward larger urban cen-

tres; the first, the increase in the number of communities of large population, and the second, the increase in the proportion of the population residing in these larger communities. For 1920, 1925 and 1930, the figures are based on the national censuses of these years, but the earlier figures depend on less comprehensive statistics compiled by local authorities.

NUMBER OF CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES CLASSIFIED

	According to Population						
	1930	1925	1920	1913	1908	1903	1898
Total Number	11,865	12,019	12,244	12,356	12,457	13,223	14,027
Population up to 499	70	82	126	163	228	461	645
500—999	258	264	304	306	350	512	738
1,000—1,999	2,092	2,275	2,354	1,982	2,190	2,667	3,311
2,000—4,999	6,886	7,054	7,264	7,584	7,652	8,055	8,018
5,000—9,999	1,878	1,735	1,639	1,852	1,654	1,348	1,081
10,000—19,999	426	392	374	335	268	185	152
20,000—29,999	93	78	76	55	35	25	23
30,000—39,999	38	36	40	25	26	33	25
40,000—49,999	27	31	20	17	15	7	3
50,000—99,999	65	51	31	25	19	16	12
Above 100,000	32	21	16	11	10	9	8

DISTRIBUTION PER 1,000 OF POPULATION IN CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES¹

Size of Communities	Oct. 1, 1930	Oct. 1, 1925	Oct. 1, 1920	End of 1913	End of 1908	End of 1903	End of 1898
up to 499	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.1	2.3	3.5
500—999	3.2	3.6	4.3	4.3	5.3	8.1	12.4
1,000—1,999	51.8	60.8	67.3	57.6	67.6	87.3	115.2
2,000—4,999	343.2	377.2	412.2	441.6	469.2	518.1	540.5
5,000—9,999	103.5	192.2	193.4	219.5	207.5	177.2	151.3
10,000—19,999	88.7	87.5	90.7	81.6	69.3	51.7	44.1
20,000—29,999	34.2	30.3	32.3	23.6	16.3	12.4	17.5
30,000—39,999	20.1	20.9	25.1	16.1	17.8	23.3	18.7
40,000—49,999	18.5	23.1	15.9	13.5	12.8	6.3	2.8
50,001—99,999	68.3	57.7	37.6	33.6	26.1	22.2	17.0
Above 100,000	178.2	146.3	120.7	107.7	107.0	92.1	77.0

1. For administrative purposes, all of Japan proper is divided into cities, towns and villages, persons residing in what would be known as rural districts in other countries belonging, as the case may be, to the nearest cities, towns and villages.

In September, 1934, there were 125 cities in Japan proper, which meaning an increase of 4 every year since the 1930 census. According to the estimate on October 1, 1933, the number of major cities which have more than 100,000 population was 34, including 4 cities which have more than 1,000,000, Tokyo leading others

with 5,663,350. The total urban population comprises 21,568,000 or 31.6 per cent. of the population of Japan proper. The rapid growth of cities may be proved from the fact that the rate of increase of population in cities is much higher than that of Japan proper, as is shown below:

	Population		Increase		Quinquennial Rate of Increase	
	Japan proper	Cities	Japan proper	Cities	Japan proper	Cities
1920	55,063,053	13,909,305	—	—	—	—
1925	59,739,822	16,006,809	3,773,769	2,697,504	6.7	19.39
1930	64,450,005	19,439,405	4,713,183	3,332,596	7.9	17.06
1933	67,238,600	21,568,000	2,788,595	2,128,600	—	—

If the rate of increase for 3 years between 1930 and 1933 keeps up for coming two years, the quinquennial increase of population in 1935 will be 4,647,658 for Japan proper and 3,546,666 for cities, the rate of increase 7.6 per cent. and 18.2 per cent. respectively.

NUMBER OF CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES IN JAPAN PROPER (1889—1933)

	Cities	Towns	Villages
1889	39	715	12,632
1908	52	1,169	13,557
1908	65	1,164	11,233
1918	69	1,246	11,033
1920	83	1,366	10,782
1925	100	1,510	10,451
1930	109	1,625	10,180
1933	125	1,670	9,734

A village is an administrative unit consisted of several villages.

CITIES IN JAPAN PROPER (October, 1934)

	Population in 1930 (Census)	Population in 1934 (Estimate)
1. Tōkyō	2,070,913	5,663,350
2. Ōsaka	2,453,573	2,722,700
3. Kyōto	765,142	1,052,500
4. Nagoya	907,404	1,017,700
5. Kōbe	787,616	853,800
6. Yokohama	620,306	703,900
7. Hiroshima	270,411	295,700
8. Fukuoka	223,289	232,800
9. Hakodatē	197,252	223,700
10. Nagasaki	204,626	217,000
11. Sendai	190,180	216,900
12. Kurē	190,282	207,100
13. Yawata	153,217	200,500
14. Sapporo	168,576	193,600
15. Kumamoto	164,460	186,000
16. Wakayama	117,444	171,400
17. Kanazawa	157,311	165,200
18. Okayama	139,222	160,600
19. Yokosuka	110,301	160,100
20. Shizuoka	136,481	155,800
21. Toyohashi	98,555	154,300

	Population in 1930 (Census)	Population in 1934 (Estimate)
22. Otaru	144,837	153,200
23. Sasebo	133,174	147,900
24. Kagoshima	137,236	147,200
25. Kawasaki	104,351	139,200
26. Niigata	125,108	138,000
27. Sakai	120,348	129,200
28. Shimonoseki	98,543	126,400
29. Hamamatsu	109,478	123,200
30. Gifu	90,112	116,700
31. Moji	103,130	115,300
32. Takamatsu	79,906	107,100
33. Ōmuta	97,298	105,000
34. Kokura	88,049	101,000
35. Tokushima	90,634	95,500
36. Maebashi	84,925	93,900
37. Kurumē	83,009	91,600
38. Aomori	77,103	90,700
39. Asahigawa	43,898	90,600
40. Matsuyama	82,477	88,500
41. Kōfu	79,447	88,300
42. Takamatsu	79,906	86,300
43. Utsunomiya	81,833	85,600
44. Nishinomiya	39,360	82,700
45. Nagano	73,912	79,800
46. Matsumoto	72,141	79,100
47. Toyama	51,760	78,100
48. Himeji	62,171	77,000
49. Ubé	61,172	76,000
50. Yamagata	63,423	72,200
51. Wakamatsu (Fukuoka prefecture)	57,320	71,700
52. Fukuī	64,199	71,400
53. Okazaki	65,507	70,700
54. Morioka	62,249	69,200
55. Miyazaki	54,600	68,600
56. Kiryu	52,906	67,000
57. Ōtsu	34,379	66,600
58. Mito	50,648	66,100
59. Tsu	56,089	65,600
60. Naha	60,535	65,200
61. Takasaki	59,923	63,700
62. Shimizu	55,665	63,100
63. Tobata	51,674	62,700
64. Nagasaki	57,866	61,600
65. Murogan	55,855	60,500
66. Ōita	57,294	60,400
67. Akita	51,070	60,400
68. Kushiro	51,536	58,900
69. Fukuyama	38,214	58,300
70. Hachinohe	52,907	58,000
71. Kōriyama	51,367	58,000

	Population in 1930 (Census)	Population in 1934 (Estimate)
72. Hachijōji	51,888	57,100
73. Takaoka	51,760	57,000
74. Ujiyamada	51,080	56,100
75. Nara	52,784	55,900
76. Yokkaichi	51,519	55,400
77. Chiba	49,088	54,900
78. Amagasaki	50,064	54,700
79. Imabari	43,735	52,700
80. Saga	46,183	49,400
81. Fukushima	45,692	49,100
82. Uwajima	44,276	48,800
83. Numazu	44,027	48,800
84. Ichinomiya	42,229	48,200
85. Ashikaga	43,898	47,500
86. Beppu	43,074	47,500
87. Kawaguchi	41,324	47,200
88. Matsué	44,502	47,000
89. Choshi	42,698	45,900
90. Iizuka	40,009	45,800
91. Hirosaki	43,337	45,600
92. Wakamatsu (Fuku- shima prefecture)	43,731	45,100
93. Yonezawa	44,731	44,800
94. Urawa	36,832	44,700
95. Tottori	37,189	43,800
96. Seto	37,309	42,100
97. Ōgaki	38,508	40,800
98. Akashi	38,958	40,300
99. Miyakonojō	35,512	39,600
100. Kumagaya	35,913	38,400
101. Kishiwada	35,102	37,500
102. Ueda	35,138	37,200
103. Nōgata	40,072	35,800
104. Yonago	33,632	36,500
105. Tsuruoka	34,316	36,300
106. Tsuyama	34,159	36,200
107. Kawagoé	34,205	36,000
108. Nobeoka	30,897	35,900
109. Hiratsuka	33,498	34,900
110. Matsuzaka	33,351	34,900
111. Ishinomaki	30,743	34,800
112. Obihiro	28,135	34,400
113. Yamaguchi	32,385	33,500
114. Sanjō	31,256	33,400
115. Sakata	30,280	32,200
116. Kurashiki	30,112	31,900
117. Kainan	28,686	31,800

Foreign Residents

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

Year and consular corps	Total	Males	Females
1929	38,829	27,972	10,857
1930	40,290	28,612	11,678

	Population in 1930 (Census)	Population in 1934 (Estimate)
118. Hagi	32,106	31,200
119. Takada	30,934	31,000
120. Onomichi	29,084	30,200
121. Karatsu	29,149	30,100
122. Nakatsu	28,563	29,800
123. Shingū	28,967	29,600
124. Marugamé	28,837	29,500
125. Shuri	29,119	19,800

CITIES IN TERRITORIES
CHOSEN

125. Keijō (Seoul)	394,240	438,700
127. Fusan	146,098	180,100
128. Heijō	140,703	—
129. Taikyū	93,319	107,800
130. Jinsen (Chemulpo)	68,137	78,300
131. Kaijō	49,520	—
132. Shingishū	48,047	—
133. Kankyō	43,851	—
134. Genzan	42,760	48,200
135. Chinnampo	38,296	47,800
136. Seishin	35,925	49,600
137. Moppo	34,689	41,500
138. Masan	27,885	32,200
139. Kunsan	26,321	30,400

TAIWAN

140. Taihoku	230,490	256,300
141. Tainan	94,546	101,700
142. Keelung	75,070	84,600
143. Takao	62,722	76,600
144. Kagi	57,880	67,500
145. Taichū	54,188	63,800
146. Shinchiku	45,014	50,600
147. Heitō	34,909	40,900
148. Shoka	43,530	48,200

KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY

149. Dairen	292,552	307,871 (Dec., 1933)
150. Port Arthur	33,933	29,737

KARAFUTO

151. Odomari	33,312	46,200
152. Toyohara	31,648	47,800

Year and consular corps	Total	Males	Females
1931	390	19,655	8,662
1932	371	18,615	8,270
1933	374	19,764	9,504

Information given with the 1933 figures shows 10,136 foreigners engaged in commerce; 2,453 in professional work; 1,514 studying; 1,557

in mining and manufacturing; 149 in transportation; 3 in agriculture and forestry; 1 in fisheries; 566 in various other occupations, and 12,889

without occupations.

The following table classifies the foreign residents according to countries of origin:

FOREIGN RESIDENTS (December 31, 1933)

Countries of Origin	Diplomatic and consular corps	Total	Men	Women
Total	374	29,268	19,764	9,504
China	46	19,932	14,793	5,139
Manchoukuo	9	128	103	25
Siam	5	28	22	6
Straits Settlements	0	8	6	2
Philippines	0	86	70	16
Iraq	0	11	8	3
Georgia	0	1	0	1
India	0	317	227	90
Afghanistan	0	0	0	0
Armenia	0	27	14	13
Persia	2	9	7	2
Turkey	4	23	14	9
Syria	0	4	3	1
Russia	17	1,479	776	703
Poland	6	46	32	14
Latvia	2	9	6	3
Lithuania	0	9	6	3
Estonia	0	11	7	4
Finland	4	16	8	8
Sweden	8	79	46	33
Norway	6	15	9	6
Denmark	7	82	45	37
Great Britain	44	1,944	971	993
Holland	15	130	86	53
Belgium	8	39	22	17
Luxemburg	1	21	10	11
France	21	491	262	229
Spain	4	101	42	59
Portugal	8	158	81	77
Italy	10	132	72	60
Switzerland	1	203	116	87
Germany	16	1,118	637	481
Austria	2	41	25	16
Hungary	0	19	12	7
Serbia	0	2	1	1
Czechoslovakia	5	33	18	15
Rumania	3	5	3	2
Yugoslavia	2	9	6	3
Malta	0	2	1	1
Greece	3	4	3	1
Egypt	1	12	7	5
Abyssinia	1	0	0	0
Bolivia	3	0	0	0
Canada	7	304	130	165
U. S. A.	51	2,039	974	1,065

Countries of Origin	Diplomatic and consular corps	Total	Men	Women
Mexico	4	19	10	9
Honduras	3	1	1	0
Haiti	1	0	0	0
Panama	1	2	1	1
Dominica	1	0	0	0
Venezuela	4	2	1	1
Salvador	1	0	0	0
Guatemala	3	4	1	3
Cuba	2	3	2	1
Brazil	7	11	8	3
Colombia	1	1	1	0
Argentina	5	6	3	3
Peru	5	18	11	7
Chile	3	6	3	3
Uruguay	4	4	3	1
Paraguay	3	0	0	0
Australia	0	45	20	25
Hawaii	0	6	5	1
New Zealand	0	2	2	0

Emigration

History Though there are records of Japanese having gone abroad for trade and residence in the latter years of the 15th century and the first half of the 16th century, the rigid laws against leaving the country during the period of seclusion, from 1636 to 1858, reserved the problem of emigration for modern times. As a result of negotiations between the Japanese Government and the Hawaiian Consul in Yokohama, 153 emigrants went to Hawaii in 1868 to work on sugar plantations. The venture was a failure, however, and not until 1885, after the visit of King Kalakaua of Hawaii to Japan in 1881 and the conclusion of treaties regarding travel, emigration of labourers and navigation, was there further emigration to the islands. In this year, 951 went. Their success encouraged an increase in the ensuing period, and by 1894 approximately 30,000 Japanese had gone.

Because of the rapid development of the emigration business, the

Government now turned it over to private companies, which soon became numerous. Regulations to safeguard the interests of the emigrants were enacted in 1896. The companies sent 10,000 to Hawaii and about 1,000 each to Australia and Canada in 1897 and 23,000 to Hawaii, 3,000 to the United States, 1,700 to Canada, 790 to Peru and about 2,500 to other countries in the following year. But the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands by the United States in 1898 and establishment of the Territorial Government in 1900, brought application of the American law against the entry of contract labourers, which dealt a great blow to the companies.

By 1904, the movement of Japanese from Hawaii to the mainland of the United States had assumed sizable proportions, as had emigration to that country directly from Japan. In the so-called Gentlemen's Agreement, signed in 1908, Japan agreed to restrict the issue of passports to nationals wishing to enter the United States. The United States Supreme Court decided in

1922 that Japanese are ineligible for citizenship, and two years later the Quota Immigration Act was passed, containing a clause denying the right of entry into the United States for permanent residence of any person not eligible for citizenship. Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Canada also provided, by various methods, for exclusion of Japanese.

These obstacles to entry into the Anglo-Saxon countries had two results, first, an abrupt decrease for a few years in the number of emigrants and, second, the discovery of new outlets. Several South American lands, notably Brazil, offered inducements. The Government adopted a positive policy of sending emigrants to quarters where they were not unwelcome, and in 1921 a subsidy was given to the Overseas Enterprise Company (Kaigai Kogyo Kaisha) to arouse interest in emigration. Encouraged by this change in policy, emigration associations sprang up one after another in the prefectures, and plans were made to purchase tracts of land in Brazil for colonization. To such land, the Shinano Emigration Association (Nagano prefecture) sent 450 emigrants in 1925.

Enactment of the Emigration Association Law in 1927 resulted in an increase of "independent" emigrants, quite different from the labour-contract emigrants which had constituted the bulk in earlier years. Prefectural emigration associations set up under the provisions of this law organized a federation which

co-ordinated the buying of Brazilian land. A home for emigrants was opened in Kobé, the main port of embarkation. Companies specializing in South American colonization came into being. Part of the reason for establishing the Ministry of Overseas Affairs in the Government in 1929 was to provide an agency for administration and control of matters pertaining to emigration and colonization.

Movement The following table shows the movement of Japanese travellers and emigrants during the past 10 years:

NUMBER OF PASSPORTS ISSUED

Year	Total	To men	To women
1924	27,032	17,837	9,195
1925	22,176	15,628	6,548
1926	28,619	20,017	8,602
1927	31,177	21,364	9,813
1928	34,008	23,191	10,817
1929	37,990	25,689	12,301
1930	38,323	26,589	11,734
1931	27,144	19,803	7,341
1932	30,757	19,941	10,816
1933	42,451	27,163	15,288

EMIGRANTS

Year	Leaving Japan	Returning to Japan
1924	13,098	12,579
1925	10,696	13,918
1926	16,184	14,549
1927	18,041	14,735
1928	19,850	15,004
1929	25,704	14,073
1930	31,829	14,546
1931	10,384	12,965
1932	19,033	13,170
1933	27,317	14,141

The destinations of those leaving Japan in recent years have been:

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Brazil	2,077	4,485	2,635	5,565	15,092	23,299
Philippines	12,002	15,597	13,741	1,109	747	941
Peru	1,410	1,585	831	299	369	481
Canada	1,050	480	137	106	98	91
U. S. S. R.	870	888	1,518	1,238	1,096	1,095
U. S. A.	304	236	0	0	0	0
Hawaii	265	119	0	0	0	0
Straits Settlements	420	513	635	549	356	322
Mexico	353	249	434	283	149	85

POPULATION

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Argentina	357	430	489	362	230	135
Dutch E. Indies	191	507	558	447	533	468
Australia	270	277	75	34	92	59
Others	249	338	531	892	262	341
Total	19,850	25,704	21,829	10,384	19,033	27,317

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRATED JAPANESE

Country	1904-1931		1914		1920	
	1904		1914		1920	
	Number	Per-centage of total	Number	Per-centage of total	Number	Per-centage of total
Continental U. S.	48,354	34.9	80,723	22.5	125,476	23.2
Hawaii	65,008	46.9	90,808	25.3	108,109	20.0
Philippines (including Guam)	2,652	1.9	5,298	1.5	9,337	1.7
Canada	3,838	2.8	11,959	3.3	17,663	3.3
Brazil	5	0	15,462	4.3	33,456	6.2
Peru	1,486	1.1	5,381	1.5	5,910	1.1
Manchuria (including Kwantung Leased Territory)	1,151	0.8	100,294	28.0	150,465	27.8
China (including Hong-Kong)	7,399	5.3	21,662	6.0	54,544	10.0
South Sea Mandated Islands	0	0	0	0	2,303	0.4
Others	8,698	6.3	27,124	7.6	34,516	6.3
Total	138,591	100.0	358,711	100.0	541,784	100.0

Country	1926		1929		1931	
	Number	Per-centage of total	Number	Per-centage of total	Number	Per-centage of total
	Continental U. S.	133,605	20.8	140,945	17.7	108,996
Hawaii	127,951	20.0	134,042	16.9	144,295	19.8
Philippines (including Guam)	10,124	1.6	51,772	6.5	19,695	2.5
Canada	19,885	3.1	22,664	2.9	20,156	2.6
Brazil	55,481	8.8	103,166	13.0	119,740	15.3
Peru	11,787	1.8	18,041	2.3	20,650	2.6
Manchuria (including Kwantung Leased Territory)	191,656	29.9	215,009	27.0	232,753	29.7
China (including Hong-Kong)	48,961	7.6	55,708	7.0	55,433	7.1
South Sea Mandated Islands	7,718	1.2	16,021	2.0	22,663	2.9
Others	32,931	5.2	37,650	4.7	38,517	4.9
Total	640,099	100.0	795,018	100.0	777,908	100.0

JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	
1925	640,099	367,589	272,510	1930	755,209	431,538	323,671
1927	674,522	387,250	287,272	1931	635,227	361,430	273,777
1928	717,529	409,933	307,596	1932	672,266	385,315	286,951
1929	759,439	429,818	329,621	1933	749,158	—	—

Note: Before 1930 the Kwantung Provinces and the Railway Zone of the S.M.R. Co. are included.

According to the census taken on Oct. 1, 1932

	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	
Asia	228,308	129,065	99,143	Far Eastern Russia	2,201	2,000	201
China	53,374	29,037	29,337	Hong-Kong	1,471	824	648
Philippines and Guam	20,316	14,740	5,576	British India and Ceylon	1,443	828	615
Manchuria	135,507	72,891	62,616	Borneo and Sarawak	582	402	180
Straits Settlements	—	—	—	Siam	290	191	99
Malay	5,864	4,561	2,415	French Indo-China	265	127	138
Dutch East Indies	6,874	3,449	2,313	Persia	20	15	5

EMIGRATION

	Total	Males	Females
Europe	5,778	2,811	967
England	1,565	1,040	525
France	818	600	158
Germany	819	736	83
Netherlands	36	23	13
Switzerland	139	104	35
Belgium	64	37	27
U. S. S. R.	61	42	19
Italy	82	50	32
Austria	34	24	10
Turkey	29	22	7
Spain	31	15	16
Sweden	14	10	4
Greece	10	5	5
Czechoslovakia	22	13	9
Poland	20	9	11
Hungary	2	2	—
Rumania	10	5	5
Finland	3	1	2
Portugal	6	4	2
Latvia	14	10	4
North America	129,429	77,510	51,919
United States	102,895	61,481	41,414
Canada	19,626	11,514	8,112
Mexico	5,824	3,700	2,124
Cuba	754	562	192
Panama	330	253	77
South America	160,387	95,039	65,348
Brazil	132,009	76,801	55,898
Peru	21,141	13,381	7,760
Argentina	5,124	3,884	1,240
Chile	625	411	214
Bolivia	599	421	178
Uruguay	36	27	9
Paraguay	10	7	3
Colombia	141	95	46
Venezuela	12	12	0
Africa	152	101	51
Egypt	56	36	20
South Africa	26	17	9
East Africa	63	42	21
Algeria	7	6	1
Oceania	150,312	80,789	69,523
Hawaii	146,764	77,734	69,030
Australia and New Zealand	3,548	3,055	493
Others	38,959	20,211	18,384

The Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone, the South Sea Mandated Islands, Manchoutikuo, and China are in a special category as regards Japanese colonization, and details of the Japanese residing in these regions will be found in other chapters. The following paragraphs, however, summarize the status of the settlers

in the principal lands open to Japanese, other than those above mentioned:

Brazil The Japanese first went to Brazil in 1908, but only in the past decade has the number leaving annually for this destination been of any volume. Of the 157,476 settlers registered at the end of October, 1933, over 150,000 were in the State of Sao Paulo, the majority working on coffee plantations. They are expected eventually to establish themselves as independent farmers. Those who left Japan with adequate capital and superior agricultural skill already own extensive tracts of land. The growing of potatoes around Sao Paulo City by Japanese is particularly notable.

Argentina Though the Japanese first went to Argentina in 1907, only a few have followed. Of the 5,334 residing there in 1933, over 2,000 were in Buenos Aires, the capital, where they are engaged mainly in industry and business. Those on farms cultivate cotton, tea, cocoa and cinchona bark, from which quinine is prepared.

Peru Japanese emigration to Peru dates from 1899. In October, 1933, there were 21,281 residents, of whom more than 17,000 were in Lima and most of the others in or near Callao and other cities. Majority of them are engaged in commerce while about 2,000 farmers, some of whom own their own land, have mostly specialized in the cultivation of cotton, in which several Japanese corporations are interested. Argentina offers opportunities for development of sugar cane cultivation, forestry and stock raising by Japanese.

Other South American Countries Chile, Colombia, Bolivia, Paraguay and Venezuela have no restrictions on the entrance of the Japanese. As the soil in these countries is suited

for various agricultural enterprises, the Japanese Government is encouraging emigrants. The last statistics show 635 Japanese in Chile, 627 in Bolivia and 5 in Paraguay.

Mexico After the arrival of the first emigrants in 1897, Mexico gave promise of becoming an important outlet. About 1906, increasing numbers went. Endemic fever and repeated revolutionary outbreaks, however, spelled ruin for most of the Japanese enterprises, and of recent years the emigration to this destination has been slight. In 1933, 5,297 Japanese resided there, most of them engaged in agriculture, horticulture and cattle raising.

Philippines More Japanese emigrants now go to the Philippine Islands than to any other country except Brazil. Settlement there began in 1900, and on October 1, 1933, the Japanese residents numbered 20,400 of whom 4,179 were in Manila, 1,378 elsewhere in Luzon and 12,592 in Cotabato and Davao. In Mindanao island, the large number of Japanese is accounted for by the large-scale cultivation of hemp, an enterprise originated by them. Many other Japanese in the Philippines are engaged in the fishing and building trades.

Other South Sea Countries Most of the Japanese residing in the Straits Settlements, the Malay States, British Borneo, the Dutch East Indies, India, Siam and French Indo-China are representatives of companies and

clerks in banks, though many are small merchants and domestic servants. In the Dutch East Indies and the Malay States, Japanese have extensive rubber and cocoa plantations, and in Java they cultivate hemp, sugar cane and tea. As native and Chinese labour is so cheap, the number of Japanese contract labourers in this region is negligible.

On October 1, 1933 there were 5,729 Japanese residents in the Malay States and the Straits Settlements; and 6,949 in the Dutch East Indies,

1933 Emigrants

In 1933 the number of emigrants to foreign countries except China and Manchoukuo reached 27,317, an increase of 8,289 over that of the previous year. Of the total, 23,299, or 85%, went to Brazil, 1,095 to the eastern U.S.S.R., 468 to the Dutch East Indies, 941 to Philippine Islands, 481 to Peru, 322 to the Straits Settlements and Malay.

The age classification of the emigrants is as follows:

Age	Total	Men	Women
1-4	3,112	1,575	1,537
5-19	9,901	5,693	4,208
20-29	7,517	4,417	3,100
30-49	5,533	3,455	2,078
50 & above	1,254	770	475
Total	27,317	15,919	11,398

A majority of the emigrants were farmers and farm labourers, these comprising 24,176 or 89%, of the total and 95% of those who had occupations as shown in the following table:

EMIGRANTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION IN 1933

Occupation	Total	Men	Women
Farmers and farm labourers	24,176	13,444	10,732
Industrials and workers	118	91	27
Engaged in Mining	884	875	9
.. Fisheries	317	292	25
.. Communication and transportation	10	10	0
.. Commerce	823	663	160
House workers and cooks	75	26	49
Day labourers	269	239	30
Officials, etc.	270	101	169
Unoccupied (mostly children)	375	178	197
Total	27,317	15,919	11,398

CHAPTER III

OUTLINE OF HISTORY

Ethnologic Beginnings

According to modern scientific research it seems almost certain that Japanese tribes lived on these Islands at least as early as 2,000 B.C., in the latter part of the New Stone Age. It seems probable that yellow folk from the mainland of Asia, the natives of some southern islands, and possibly some kind of white-skinned race from the north-west, drifted to the Japanese islands, where they found a milder climate and more fertile soil than in their homelands, and formed a mixed race which we may call the Yamato Tribe and their blood became so well blended in the course of time that many think the Japanese people, their descendants, to be homogeneous.

They lived mostly on seashores or riversides. Their shell-mounds are rich in relics of those early days. They dug caves in the hillsides and pits in the flat ground for their dwellings, used stone tools and lived on natural food such as game, fish and shell-fish.

In the 3rd century B.C. the Indo-Chinese brought rice to the islands and the natives learned to cultivate and eat it. By this time a primitive agricultural life must have begun, and according to one of the oldest Chinese records on Japan the islanders already had a knowledge of silk-making even in such a remote period. Four different styles of clothing seem to have been prevalent, that of the Ainu, Tunguse, Indo-Chinese and Huns respectively, although there were some tribes who went naked.

Judging by the clay images or idols they left behind them, the Ainu clothes consisted of an upper and a lower garment, the upper garment of the women being open in front, while that of the men was not. The dress of the Tunguse much resembled the Korean in style and they were fond of using jewels or stone ornaments.

They lived in groups, forming villages which consisted in some cases of several hundred households. They seem to have had a primitive communal life, each tribe or group being firmly united by ties of blood and belief. But there had appeared as yet no political organization or system and there was a continual stream of immigrants from the continent. Clan and tribal fighting and alliances gave opportunity for mixing blood. By the beginning of the Christian Era the Ainu and the ancestors of the Japanese, mainly Tunguse by descent, gradually settled down on the islands, the former living in the north-eastern half and the latter spreading over the south-western half.

Age of Traditions (660 B.C.-531 A.D.)

The period of 1,000 years from the Emperor Jimmu to the Emperor Keitai (who reigned from 507 to 531) may be called the Age of Traditions of Japan. The first book of history "Nihonshoki" (Japanese Annals) which was first compiled in the 28th year of the Empress Suiko, and the second oldest record "Kojiki" (Antiquities) which appeared about one hundred years later, tell of some

still older manuscripts which furnished them with materials. But of these no trace remains. These two books which are commonly called "Ki-Ki" collectively contain traditions long cherished by the islanders, although there are many fictions mixed or intermingled in them. Careful study of these records exposes the ancient life of the Japanese after the New Stone Age and at the beginning of the agricultural period, if we use a little imagination to help out our store of ascertained facts.

Beginning of Shintoism People in this age formed large families and the clan system prevailed. In many families the succession followed the maternal side, clan councils were called and patriarchs were elected. Shintoism, though in the most undeveloped state, was already a creed; people revered their forefathers and worshipped their own family gods, and the members of each clan were united in the worship of their own particular god, gaining thereby a more vivid feeling of belonging to one and the same blood. In the Imperial House, the Emperor Jimmu instituted religious ceremonies for his Divine Ancestors, who became the objects of worship of the National Shintoism in later ages, and his successors followed his example and prayed to the gods for the welfare of their beloved nation. Before Chinese models were adopted the ancient government of Japan was very simple, and ritual observances and public affairs were one, as the Japanese "Matsuri-goto" may mean either the administration of state affairs or religious ceremony.

Political Affairs In 87 B. C., the Emperor Sujin sent armies to the remoter central and western districts and subdued all the opposing tribes. In the first century A. D., the Emperor Keiko sent Yamato-Takeru or

some generals to the farthest west and east, and succeeded in bringing the whole land under his sway, sending his sons to be the rulers over those subdued districts, and the Emperor Seimu divided the whole land into territories and prefectures for the convenience of governing them. Sushin and Suinin carried out plans for stimulating industry and commerce, and the nation became rich and the national power was much augmented, so that the small kingdoms in the Korean peninsula came one by one to be its tributaries. It was through these small Korean kingdoms that a knowledge of the religion and culture of the greater Oriental nations first reached Japan. In 285 A. D. Confucianism was officially introduced into the country, with its important moral precepts concerning righteousness, loyalty, filial piety, and love. In 552, during the reign of the Emperor Kimmel, the public introduction of Buddhism with its teachings on cause and effect opened up new vistas in religious and philosophic thought.

Civilization Introduced From the remains of this period we can infer that the Japanese people whose settlements extended from Kyushu to districts near the present-day Kyoto had risen above barbarous life long before the first century of the Christian Era. Their shell-mounds contain many bronze utensils which correspond to the Chinese productions of the Han Dynasty (206 B.C.-221 A.D.). The Do-Taku which seem to have been used as musical instruments or kept as a kind of treasure were found in the districts extending from the western end of the Main Island to Totomi and Kaga provinces near Nagoya and in Shikoku Island. They were found with the remains of the so-called Yayoi style which characterizes the works of the original Japanese as distinguished from the

Ainu, and tell of early Japanese intercourse with the continental countries. The Do-ken or bronze swords of different shapes were found in the provinces of Kyushu, districts around the Inland Sea, the provinces of Aki, Izumo, Owari and Shinano and in Shikoku Island.

Japan had tributaries in Korea at this period, but, at the same time, heads of large families in Kyushu and Loochoo had some relations with the Han Dynasty as local tributary lords. We have good reason to believe that considerable numbers of continental people came to the islands either individually or in large bodies, and the civilizations of China, India and Korea had been constantly introduced to the islanders or brought in by the immigrants themselves so that there had really been several centuries of preparation before the formal or official reception of Chinese books and culture in the 3rd century at the Central Court in Yamato province.

Japanese Traits In those days Japanese characteristics and tribal traits were already established. The mild climate and beautiful natural features of the islands and the surrounding seas exerted ineradicable influences on the nature of the inhabitants. From such an early period the islanders, economically self-supplying and self-sufficient, enjoyed comparatively peaceful lives without much danger of being invaded by outside political powers. Consequently they became admirers of the realistic world, highly optimistic with pragmatic ideals; they had deep appreciation of natural life and a religious belief full of light. Their mode of action was sprightly, innocent and active. Loyalty to one's lord and filial piety were their two main principles of morality fostered from the remotest past; next in importance came valour in the highest

sense of the term. There was no distinction in the position of the sexes and able women assumed high places in public affairs.

Primitive Literature There were written numerous local histories and genealogies of the Imperial Court and clans, and stories of heroes of victorious battles were earnestly listened to in their gatherings. They had ballads and a crude form of poetry which later came to be called waka, the metrical arrangement being 5-7 or 5-7-7, instead of the later 5-7-5-7-7. The ideas expressed were simple and pure, mostly concrete, lacking in the abstract thoughts of later days, putting immediate feelings into metre. The subjects poeticized were women, wars, and saké, as is common with primitive people in other parts of the world, and poems which sung the beauty of natural sceneries were rare.

No Pastoral Life The islands, severed as they were from the continent, were unsuited for raising cattle, and the ancient Japanese people had no experience of a pastoral life. Excavation of mounds gives no indication of it, while the undeveloped legs of the Japanese seem to suggest something of their ancestral habits.

With the progress of agricultural life the oldest clan system which had no class differences began to undergo changes because of the increase of population and consequent need of new land. Clans began to separate into branches, the latter leaving the parent stock and going out to get new lands. In many cases land was obtained by violence and there arose the relation of master and subject. Blood relation among the people widened to local relation and there appeared ruling clan heads to control and represent the districts or provinces. Soon these ruling families began to keep hereditary power in their hands. The primitive

or natural system of common property was transformed to that of private property. Powerful clans had serfs as property and subordinate clans or subjects paid tribute.

Age of Foundation (532-709)

As mentioned above, by the 6th century A. D. Japanese social and economical conditions were well prepared for the reception and appreciation of the Chinese civilization of the brilliant age of the Sui and Tang Dynasties.

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

In the meantime, there arose troubles among the clans which had power in the Government and their conflict became greater with the advancement of civilization. Two of the most important of these clans, Soga and Mononobé, came into violent collision over the question of adopting Buddhism as the national religion, until finally the former got the upper hand. But the Soga family abused their power so greatly that they stirred up the opposition of Kamatari Fujiwara, a loyal subject, and Prince Naka-Ohyé, who later became the Emperor Tenchi. The Soga power was suppressed in the year 645; this was the first step to the Taika Reformation which followed.

Emperor's Power Reduced As a natural development land became divided among the Imperial house, the clans and the temples. The Imperial estates were obtained in various

ways, and consisted of, firstly, land owned ever since the first rule of Jimmu; secondly, land newly cultivated by the farmers who served the august family; thirdly, estates presented by local nobles; and fourthly, memorial lands for the dead Imperial members. Clans owned their estates, either by natural right, conquest or as prizes for merit. A clan's estate might increase yearly to the extent that it took the form of a territory, and consequently the national unity under the Emperor was endangered.

Shinto shrines and Buddhist temples also possessed their own glebes which had been given them by nobles as offerings.

As regards cultivating or farming the land, it is said that it developed from communal to tenant-farming. The patriarchs in the country districts began to possess a great number of people and large estates and enrich themselves by the labour of their serfs. Their wealth gave them influence and power and they became really local lords. This state of affairs continued without much change till the Taika Reformation in the 7th century.

The old clan system allowed high officials of the Court and the powerful families in the provinces to exercise almost absolute power over their own territories. The emperors ruled the people indirectly, all the official positions being hereditary. This system gave birth to several political vices or abuses, and the Imperial authority became much reduced. The excesses of the Soga clan showed clearly the injurious effect of this system, and the necessity of ending it.

The Taika (Talkwa) Reformation When the Soga family were destroyed, the Emperor Kotoku started a plan for a reformation, appointing the Crown Prince Naka-Ohyé to the

head of the council which was composed of Kamatari Fujiwara, Kurahashimaro Abé and other great scholars of the time. The Crown Prince, with Kamatari at his right hand, studied the Chinese system of government and made plans for a revolutionary change of politics for the welfare of the people. Introducing from China the system of "nen-go" or year-names, he called this period Taika or "Great Reformation" in the summer of 1305 from Jimmu or 645 A. D. This was indeed only seven days after the death of Soga. Japan has experienced three great changes in politics since the founding of the nation. The first was the Taika Reformation, the second the establishment of the Shogunate at Kamakura, 1192, and the third was the Meiji Restoration, 1868. In the second year of Taika the Imperial Edict of the Reformation was proclaimed. Some of its provisions were as follows:

(1) To bring all the private lands into public possession; (2) to divide the confiscated lands among the people, taking a census and fixing reasonable taxes; (3) to fix divisions of Kuni, Gun and Ri for the convenience of administration, putting officials in each division. These changes were practically carried out, and the clan system was entirely broken down, thus bringing about a centralization of political powers according to the Chinese pattern. The following is but a summary of the vast Reformation:

(A) Public land and people (citizens). (1) The people had, hitherto, belonged to the powerful gens and families and had been kept in the poorest condition not far removed from serfdom, while the land had been the private estates of the gens, and wealth had been almost entirely accumulated by them alone. In this reformation the land was

all confiscated by the Central Government, and the people became direct subjects or citizens of the Emperor; so was the clan system destroyed. (2) The public land was distributed to citizens evenly. The census was taken first and all the names of the people were registered and every male over the age of five was given two "tans", or a little less than half an acre, of land, while a woman was given two-thirds of this. This land was returned to the Government when the holder died. The registration was renewed every sixth year. (3) Three taxes were newly imposed: one was on the land, being two bundles of rice on each "tan", the second was a requisition of labour, or else twelve feet of cloth or about two-and-a-half bushels of rice instead, from each house, and the third was a certain proportion of the special products of the locality.

(B) Centralization of government. The reformation of Taika was specially concerned also with the centralization of government and putting down the local divisions of the clan system. To accomplish this aim, a central government had to be established on a very strong basis. In 649, the Emperor ordered the establishment of the Central Government which consisted of eight departments modelled on the Tang government. In the country district the old officials were replaced by new state and country governors, horse stations were established for the convenience of travel and traffic, barrier-gates were set up in important places, and defensive preparations were made in the remotest districts.

(C) Appointment of men of ability. The third merit of the Reformation was in the appointment of able men among the people at large to important positions. Under the

old clan system even the officials were hereditary and this gave birth to various political abuses. This hereditary officialdom was entirely done away with by the Taika Reformation, and any one who had real talent might become a high official, no matter to which or to what kind of clan or house he belonged.

Prince Naka-Ohyé, who headed the council of this great revolutionary improvement, declared "As there are not two suns in the sky so there cannot be two kings over a nation, and the Emperor must be the only one who governs over and controls his people under heaven," and he set the first example to the people by handing over his own estates and subjects to the Mikado, thereby speeding the Reformation.

A Premature Trial Public and official intercourse with continental governments greatly enlightened the Japanese mind, and the Taika Reformation was the result of idealistic longings of the time for a complete structure of government. As a matter of fact the Imperial Government had never been solidly established before the Reformation.

The study of the Sui and Tang Dynasties and political and diplomatic relations with the continental countries stimulated from outside the need of forming a government worth while in the eyes of neighbouring states, while at home political and social affairs urged the high officials and princes of the Court to take drastic means to consolidate the Central Government, taking advantage of the general trend of the cultured class of people for an imitation of all things Chinese.

It was not, therefore, a natural reformation of a government already well organized, but rather the commencement of a real central government, influenced by the international spirit of the Chinese Government at

that time. Unity and centralization of administration was completely exemplified by their big neighbour, and the young minds of the Japanese officials and nobles, entirely caught by its brilliancy, were too impatient to make fuller investigations on the adaptability of Chinese institutions to Japan and the Japanese of the day. The Taika Reformation, therefore, was hardly a success so far as its economic system was concerned and the formal institutions mentioned in (A) soon began to collapse.

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

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

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

The Daijo Daijin was the tutor and personal councillor to the Emperor, and had no fixed office. In view of

the importance of the position it was not filled when there was found no suitable man. The Sa Daijin was the prime minister and controlled all the administrative offices and might over-rule the decisions of the Danjodai (a kind of court of administrative litigation).

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

Learning and Religion A century around the Taika Reformation was the period when the Government was busy also in the study of Chinese literature, importation of the continental culture, and compilation and promulgation of new laws. It was an age of laying foundations for the future progress of the Japanese civilization. This study of continental cultures did not stop with that of China, but ancient nations west of China became tutors of the Japanese. Among the treasures which

were accumulated by the Emperor Shomu (724-749 A.D.) and kept in the Sho-so-in Museum at Nara, there are many art products of Rome and Persia. The area represented by the treasures practically covers all the civilized countries of the Orient and a large portion of the Western world.

Systematic education of the young began with the building of Horyuji temple (see Chapter XXVIII). With the compilation of the Nihonshoki and Kojiki, Shintoism was formulated as the national religion. As to the nature of Shintoism and its philosophical analysis as a dogma opinions are divided, it nevertheless developed in this age from mere nature-worship to ancestor-worship, cosmogony and anthropomorphism, including a germ of the idea of a central deity of the cosmos in the belief in Amé-no-minaka-nushi-nokami. On the other hand Buddhism was eagerly taken into the lives of the upper class people who had power to assimilate it.

Nara Age (710-793)

Golden Age of Buddhism After the Taika Reformation in 646, the Government rather avoided the trouble of intercourse with the Korean Peninsula and concentrated their power on the better administration of home affairs, encouraging intercourse with China in order to bring the Chinese civilization more into Japanese life, and 60 years later founded the City of Nara as the capital, in Chinese style. For 70 years following its founding, it was an age of imitating Chinese things. Buddhism won the faith of all classes of the people and developed and expanded among them by leaps and bounds. This was the golden age for Buddhist fine arts, existing specimens of which make today the international

treasures of old Buddhism. The nation was prosperous and the people enjoyed a happy life such as they had not known before.

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

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

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

The even distribution of land under the Taika Reformation proved in practice insufficient and many farmers were compelled to obtain more land by cultivation of waste areas or to fall into heavy debt. On the other hand the nobles or former patriarchs of larger clans, the Court officials and priests began to accumulate special prize lands, gift lands and subject tenants. Many of the common people were reduced to the position of serfs, although in Japan there has never been such an inhuman system of slavery as existed formerly in Western countries, and people of the upper class became landed proprietors with wide estates which were called "Soen".

For the cultivation of new arable

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

Korea, China and Japan. (660 B.C.-1019 A.D.)

From the time when these islands were first populated the Korean Peninsula had intimate relations with the islanders. Especially was this the case with the south-eastern part and the Izumo district, according to traditions. At the time of Sujin the southern part of Korea became a Japanese protectorate, but its eastern neighbour, Silla, scorned Japan and was subdued by Empress Jingo in 200 A.D. The western half and lands in the north also came under the influence of Japan and the whole peninsula became tributary to her. These small kingdoms mostly acknowledged the Japanese authority, but sometimes they rose in rebellion and Japan frequently had to send armies to the peninsula, till finally the Governor's office was destroyed by Silla in 562. Silla soon became the master of the whole peninsula, conquering the other small states, and entered into good terms with the Chinese Government. The ruling power of Silla was usurped by another dynasty in the 9th century. Japan did not forget to interfere in their affairs when suitable chance offered, but all her attempts

were in vain and she had lost her last trace of influence by the year 936.

The northern part of Korea had once been a territory of China in the second century B.C. Intercourse between the Japanese and Chinese people had already started in those days, and during the years in which the Korean peninsula was tributary to Japan the trade and travel between the two nations became greater and more frequent; many Chinese scholars and artists became naturalized in Japan and worked for the Government in the fields of literature, art and general technique. Some Emperors sent delegates to south-eastern China to get teachers of weaving and sewing.

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

In Manchuria a strong nation appeared in 713 and invaded northern

Korea, and started some trade with Japan. Another arose later which came down even to the central part of the peninsula. Still another dynasty then gained control over much of eastern Asia and tried to invade the islands, but was defeated by the Japanese army in 1019.

Heian Age (794-1192)

Fujiwara Despotism The Emperor Kammu changed the capital from Nara to the new city of Heian, i. e. the present Kyoto, in 794, and instituted a new era. For several decades after that the Imperial sceptre retained its power. But from the middle of the 9th century, the house of Fujiwara became closely related to the Imperial House, and began to assume regentship of the country. Taking all political power from the Imperial House, they gradually concentrated it in their own hands and planned only for the benefit of their family and relatives. Their despotism reached its climax with Michinaga Fujiwara in the 10th century.

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

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

In the middle of the 11th century, the Emperors wished to restore the Imperial power and suppress the Fujiwara despotism. Finally in 1156 the Fujiwara power was completely broken and overthrown by the Genji and Heishi warriors, who were much

honoured in consequence by the Imperial House. Before long, however, these two samurai houses became rivals and in 1159 Kiyomori Taira (Heishi) won the day against Yoshitomo Minamoto (Genji). Kiyomori had rare ability and great ambition, and forgetting that he was but a samurai followed the examples of Fujiwara and became himself another despot. For his wilful behaviour he was hated by all classes of the people, and Yoritomo Minamoto, son of the defeated Yoshitomo, rose on the tide of general bad feeling against the Tairas, and the whole Taira family were defeated and drowned at the battle of Dan-no-ura in the Inland Sea in 1185. It was Yoritomo Minamoto who first established the Government by the Samurai class.

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

The culture of this age had not yet reached the rural districts and common people, but existed only in the larger cities and a number of towns and among the aristocratic class. The 'kulturträger', the bearers of civilization and culture of the age, were court nobles, government

officials, priests and monks, and their families. It may be going too far to say that Heian was the only city of the Empire in those days, for there are evidences of the existence of some local market towns and trade ports. It is nevertheless true that there was a great difference in grade of civilization between the capital and the rural districts. The intelligentsia in the capital kept political power and literary heritage to themselves and their successors, their living being supported by the contributions and tenant fees from their estates at country places. They lived a luxurious and easy monotonous life as is shown in the *Genji-monogatari* by Murasaki-shikibu, a woman novelist. But at the same time Japanese literature made wonderful progress in this age.

Education School education was undertaken by the Government along definite lines in the city and local districts. In the city of Heian there was a *Dai-gaku*, (school of higher learning), which took in 400 boys of higher officials. There were 143 higher officials and 850 lower officials in the city. In the districts there were established *Koku-gaku*, provincial schools, open mainly for the boys of local officials. At *Dazai-fu* in Kyushu the *Gakugyo-in*, or institute of learning, was established for the provinces of the northern half of the Island. The main course of study in these schools was related to national politics based on the teachings of Confucius. But literature, music, physical science, pharmacology, astronomy, mathematics and penmanship were not neglected. Some of the local schools were superior and sent out able scholars. Children of the princes and court nobles were taught by private tutors. School education especially flourished in the *Enryaku*, *Konin* and *Showa* eras, under the Emperors *Kammu*,

Saga and *Nimmyo* respectively. The building of the new capital of Heian gave rise to a new spirit of enterprise among the people and broader humanistic ideals began to show themselves, with sincere aspirations for the advancement of national civilization. Many young students went abroad. Prince *Shinnyo*, a young monk of the *Shochoji* temple in *Izumi* province, went to the Tang capital, and started from *Rusha* to *Raetsu*, near *Singapore*, for the study of Buddhism, but died on the way. The needs of the time gave rise to many private schools. Some representative ones were the *Busho-in* of *Seiko Sugawara*, the *Kangaku-in* of *Fuyutsugu Fujiwara*, the *Gakkan-in* of *Tachibana*, the *Shogaku-in* of *Yukihira Arihara*, and the *Kobun-in* of *Kiyomaro Waké*. The *Sugawara* family especially produced a succession of first class scholars, and many able young men came in to the *Bunsho-in*. This study of foreign learning continued from the previous ages to the middle of the era when the Emperor *Uda* stopped the sending of delegates to China.

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

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

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

In the Heian Age public markets were opened in the East and the West of Heian city. The East Market consisted of 51 shops and the West Market of 33, and they continued till the time of the Gen-pei (Genji and Heishi) wars in the 12th century. The largest among the local markets were at Tsubaki, Tatsu, Asuka and Ausa in Yamato province, Shikama in Harima (near Himeji),

Naniwa in Settsu and Kowaki in Omi. There were many trading ports, and of these Hakata, Muko and Naniwa (Osaka) were the most thriving in foreign trade, Hakata coming first, located as it was at the northern end of Kyushu, nearest to Korea and China. Foreign commerce at this era was mostly governmental, private trading not being allowed.

Kamakura Age (1192-1337)

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

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

The Kamakura Shogunate Yoritomo

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

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

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

practical examples. He encouraged the propagation of the Zen teachings which emphasized an ascetic life, and those of the Jodo Sect which taught man to realize his sinfulness. The principles of Bushido, however, had mainly to do with the lord-and-subject relation among the samurai, and had defects as a common morality for the masses. But it is noticeable easier.

Foundation of Bushido Yoritomo was a pious man, revered both Shintoism and Buddhism, and was loyal to the Emperor. Bushido was indeed established by his teachings and here that the polygamy among the nobles of former days was gradually discarded and monogamy began to gain ground in this age, probably in consequence of the recognition of personality and the unusual emphasis on the fidelity of a lady to her lord in the Bushido code. Ideas of honour became strong; loyalty to the Emperor, patriotism, and belief in Japan as being the country specially favoured of the Gods became established national ideals; Buddhism was completely Japanized; and the general moral standard was considerably raised.

Education Education progressed also in the sense that it spread to local districts and especially among the samurai class. The Terakoya (see Chapter XXVIII) schools were started in the Buddhist temples of this age. Text books suitable for the education of samurai boys were compiled. At the time of the Ashikagas famous centres of learning were established at Ashikaga and Kanazawa (see Chapter XXVIII) near the present Tokyo. The Ashikaga Gakko (Ashikaga School) was first established by Yoshikane Ashikaga, a cousin of Yoritomo Minamoto, and has been continued for seven hundred years up to the present day. The Kanazawa Bunko (Kanazawa Libra-

ry) was first established in 1275 by Sanetoki Hojo, great-grandson of Tokimasa Hojo the Shogun. Women's education was not neglected and sewing, housekeeping, penmanship and reading and composition of prose and poetry were taught to the daughters of well-to-do people.

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

Commerce and Industry Before the Kamakura Age, agriculture was almost the sole industry of the people, although some things were produced in government factories. The spread of culture among the local population in this age, however, quickened the progress of commerce and industry in country places and local centres. Hand-work and carpentry were emancipated from the protection of the nobles and temples, primitive guilds were created and classes of artisans of armaments, porcelain, and lacquer-work, etc. came into existence. Seven guilds were established, of silk workers, charcoal burners, rice merchants, furniture makers, miscellaneous industrials, paper manufacturers and makers of ornamental things and cattle dealers.

Joyei Judicial Code In the first year of Joyei, 1232, a judicial code was issued. It was called Joyei Shiki-moku (Joyei Judicial Code) compiled

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

Muromachi Age (1338-1602)

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

Korea, China and Japan

The public exchange of delegates with foreign countries was, as we have said, abolished, but private trade continued nevertheless. The Sung Dynasty united China in 979, and called forth a thriving inter-

national commerce. Merchants and Buddhist monks made visits to China much oftener than before. Kiyomori Taira opened a port at Hyogo and interviewed Chinese merchants at his palace. In the Kamakura Age, the Buddhist Zen sect was introduced from China, and the Hojo built huge temples for its monks.

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

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

Trade with the Ming From the beginning of the Kamakura Age, Japanese pirates had plundered the coasts of China and Korea. In the Muromachi Age, the Shogun Yoshimitsu Ashikaga concluded a friendly treaty with the Emperor of Ming in 1401. At the time of Yoshinori delegates of the Shogunate went to Ningpo with passports given by Ming au-

thorities and traded there with the Chinese merchants. Not only Government delegates, but also the governors of local districts, monks and priests of temples or shrines, and some merchants of Hyogo and other ports sailed in and out with a similar purpose. The trade with Ming brought a great profit to Japan, and the Shogunate was relieved of its economic hardships, the western ports thrived and the people became wealthy. The Shogunate did its best to prohibit the ravages of pirates, to prove their friendliness to the Ming Dynasty, but at the end of the Muromachi Age when the Shogunate lost its power and the local lords did as they liked, Japanese pirates again pillaged Chinese coasts, which were for a long time troubled with them.

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

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

and Chapter VI of this volume.)

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

The warrior-lords began to disregard the orders of the Shogunate, becoming selfish and money-loving. Yoshimitsu Ashikaga, the third of the line, reorganized the Shogunate and restored its power for a while, but after his death it began to decay and the local lords usurped its authority. Both in the capital of Heian and in the districts civil wars raged year after year. The luxurious living initiated by Yoshimitsu and Yoshimasa (the 8th Shogun), spread like an epidemic among the local lords and warriors, and the ones who suffered most from the poison were the common people, the farmers and merchants, because the expenses of the luxury of the upper classes came always from their pockets.

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

Military and General Education Progress in military arts and the use of weapons was a feature of the age. Various styles of Kendo (fencing) were founded and schools to teach the art flourished in the four corners

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

Woman's Position Here it must be mentioned that the status of women was greatly lowered in this age of war-lords and samurai. Men vaunted their physical prowess in battle, while women were compelled to live secluded lives, sheltering at home from the dangers of the times. Chinese dicta concerning the "three obediences and seven reasons for divorce" making of woman little better than a slave or chattel, suited the selfish convenience of man, and the Buddhist idea of woman as an impure being detrimental to man's ascent to Buddhahood, all worked together to pull woman's social position down to a ridiculously low level, contrasting with the high status she

had enjoyed in more ancient days.

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

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

continent for the first time in the history of Japan.

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

Economical Conditions There were economic reasons underlying the civil wars among the feudal lords in the latter half of the Muromachi Age. Enlarged volume of production, progress of communication and transportation, advancement of commerce and industry and changes in military strategy following the introduction of guns led to the wars of territorial invasion and expansion among the lords who had to provide for an increasing number of soldiers and officials. Both commerce and industry had progressed slowly but steadily with the spread of civilization to local centres since

the time of Yoritomo Minamoto. Natural economy evolved to that of commodity. Merchants and artisans were gaining standing as a class. Up to the middle of the Muromachi Age the guilds called "Za" monopolized the supply of goods to the lords; this system, however, came to an end with the progress of free trading, and public markets were permanently established. The appearance of large towns and cities necessitated the accumulation of commodities and provisions from adjacent country places and other parts of the land and hastened the growth of wholesale dealers. The wholesale dealers of the age were called "Mommaru" and combined the businesses of innkeeping, wholesale trading, transportation and money exchange at the same time. Banking business also made considerable progress. There were no banks in the modern sense, but the pawnshops were the banks of the day when as yet there was no regular credit system. Buddhist temples and the brewers of saké acted also as money lenders and they together with the pawnshops were usurers and capitalists. Tanomoshi-ko (small associations for mutual financial aid) were already in vogue. Accumulation of wealth became a dire necessity for the lords, but they had to rely wholly upon the farmers and merchants for financial support while the Central Government was too weak to aid them or protect their interests in accordance with the change of social and economic conditions. Some fell so heavily into debt that finally they had to surrender their territory to their creditors. The Shogunate prohibited the purchase or mortgage of land owned by the samurai to merchants and land proprietors, but this regulation was not observed. By the end of the Kamakura Shogunate it had

become too late to attempt the financial rescue of the samurai. The lords levied heavy taxes on their people and farmed out their collection to appointed merchants. The final outcome of this system, however, was to let the land fall into the hands of those agents, so that the lords were driven in desperation to get new land by force. At times the farmers and smaller merchants resorted to violence to protect their rights and demand more merciful governance from their respective lords or the Shogunate. They often attacked the wealthy merchants, temples and pawnshops to get back goods they had pawned.

The latter half of the Muromachi Age witnessed the phenomenon of Buddhist mob rioting and fighting. The Shin Sect (or Ikko Shu) founded by Shinran gained great numbers of followers among the common people, and some uprisings of these religionists were in reality directed against the ruling class. For instance, the Ikko mob which started rioting in the districts of Kaga, Noto and Echigo provinces, fought against Masachika Togashi the lord of Kaga and killed him, while another in the district near the present-day Kobé and Osaka defeated the armies of Hosokawa their lord, the fight extending over several provinces from Sakai to Ishiyama in Omi province. Iyéyasu Tokugawa, then lord of Mikawa, fought with them in 1563, and to Nobunaga Oda also they were a constant source of trouble.

The social changes caused by the progress of trade and commerce during the Kamakura and Muromachi Ages and the consequent disorder among the ruling classes were not allowed to take their own course very long, for foreign relations, especially with Western countries, presented many international problems and the necessity of national unity

became keenly felt. As already mentioned, the introduction of firearms brought about a fundamental change in methods of fighting. Arrows were no match for bullets. Preparations for war had to be made on a much larger scale and the warriors or soldiers reorganized in a more systematic way, and consequently the smaller lords were forced to unite under the leadership of greater ones who possessed real power and means to organize new armies. And thus the unity of all Japan was realized through three stages under three great war-lords, Nobunaga Oda, Hideyoshi Toyotomi and Iyéyasu Tokugawa.

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

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

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

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

Yedo Age (1602-1867)

In 1600 Iyéyasu Tokugawa gained a decisive victory at Sekigahara, near Nagoya, over his opponents and became the practical ruler of Japan.

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

Iyéyasu located the seat of the Central Government at Yedo (Tokyo) and governed from there his 200 lords and generals. The financial basis of the Shogunate was superior. About 7,000,000 koku ("koku" in this case means the area of land which can produce one koku of rice) or nearly one-fourth of the national area of 30,560,000 koku, was owned by the Shogunate directly or indirectly. Besides, all the ports and places important for political and military purposes, the largest cities and the centres of industrial and commercial activities, and all the mines of any value were under the Shogunate's direct control. It also retained the right of casting coins.

Buké Hatto (Samurai Law) After giving the final blow to the Toyotomis in May, 1615, Iyéyasu Tokugawa ordered the drafting of the law concerning the daimyo (feudal lords) and samurai. In July of the same year the Samurai Law was pronounced before the gathering of the daimyo called for the purpose by

the Second Tokugawa Shogun Hidetada. It consisted of 13 articles the gist of them being as follows: (1) Samurai must be well educated in general learning and versed in the arts of war; (2) Unbridled drinking and luxuriousness are strictly prohibited; (3) Criminals must not be aided or concealed; (4) All treasonous bodies and murderers should be banished; (5) No person other than the subjects of the daimyo should be allowed to live in his territory; (6) All repairs to castles must be done only by permission of the Shogunate and the building of a new castle is strictly prohibited; (7) If anyone detects a new castle building or a secret political organization in a neighbouring province he must report it to the Shogunate; (8) Marriages must not be celebrated privately; (9) All the lords are required to observe "sankin-kotai". (According to this article the lords were divided into two groups, and each group was to come up to Yedo, the seat of the Shogunate, in April every other year, to stay there for one year and the Shogunate prepared their Yedo residences where their families were kept as hostages. These rules were somewhat loosened in later years.) (10) Styles of costume should be regulated according to rank and social position; (11) Servants ought not freely to use the palanquin (the only vehicle in those days) in travel; (12) Samurai should be instructed to live frugally; and (13) the lords should use discretion in appointment of officials. The purpose of this law was to restrict the armament of the lords, to suppress political organization and treason, to effectively inspect the local government of the lords, and to force them to keep order by strict rules on their behaviour. The number of the daimyo was 157 according to the Shogunate statistics of 1614.

Kugé Hatto (Court Nobles Law) This law for the court nobles was promulgated in July, 1615, in the assembly of 150 court nobles at the Nijo Castle, Kyoto. It consisted of 17 articles, and included regulations regarding the positions of the Emperor, Imperial Princes and Princes, the appointment of a Regency and chief councillor, adoption, court ranks, institution of the year name, costumes, the order of promotion, orders issued by magistrates, sentences of the court, and the position, ranks, costumes and honorary titles of the head priests of Buddhist temples. The main points of it follow: (1) It is humbly recommended to the Emperor that he should be a good scholar and well versed in all the arts; (2) Unless he is equipped with knowledge and ability no one ought to be appointed to be Regent, Chief Councillor, Daijo Daijin, Sa Daijin or U Daijin even from among the Sekké (Five highest nobles from whom the Regent was to be chosen); (3) As to the appointment of a monk to the head of the Monzeki (temples the head priests of which are princes or court nobles) or the Ingé (temples next in rank to Monzeki). Customary order should be strictly kept, and when a common man is appointed his rank should not come up to the first Sojo (highest position of the priest, the order being Sojo, Sozu and Risshi, each subdivided into first and second) even though he be endowed with rare ability; except for those who are, at the same time, tutors of the Emperor or daijin. (4) To be head priest of the Monzeki, a Hoin (the highest rank, with surname of Sojo) or Sozu is to be appointed; to that of the Ingé, Sozu or Risshi; a Hoin or Hogen (next in rank to Hoin) is to be appointed according to customary order; a common man should be first recommended by the temple itself and

then pass through the examination of the committee; (5) The head priest of the purple garb temples (or the temples of the highest order: the order of the temple was indicated by the colour of the garb wore by the head priest such as purple, scarlet, light blue, yellow, light red) should be appointed also according to customary regulations, although of late these regulations have been disregarded by Imperial order and there are those who usurp the position. Hereafter, the ability and virtue of the candidate must be examined and he must be recommended by the committee in the Imperial Court. (6) The honorary title of Shonin should be given to the learned monks only by Imperial order. It is to be divided into first and second grades and the first grade should be given to monks who have had over 20 years' experience in the faith, and the second to younger ones; those who are ambitious for the title without fulfilling its requirements should be banished.

System of Control Iyéyasu took scrupulous care not to give any chance to the Imperial House and the greater lords to gather forces against the Shogunate. His first policy was to restrict their powers by the promulgation of the Kugé Hatto and Buké Hatto above mentioned. His second was to allot their districts to the respective lords by an administrative plan deliberately schemed out. The Kanto district in which the seat of the Shogunate was located was put under the direct rule of the Shogun and ruled by his personal generals to protect the Central Government from an attack. In the districts around Kyoto, the city of the Imperial House, none of the Tozama Daimyo, the conquered lords, were placed, but only the relatives of the Tokugawa and the Fudai Daimyo, lords who had been on the

Tokugawa's side from of old; and in Kyoto itself a representative office of the Shogunate had the responsibility of watching any political move in that city. Along the two main roads, the Tokaido and Nakasendo (or Koshukaido) which connected Kyoto and Yedo, the Fudai Daimyo only were appointed to rule over the districts. The Tozama Daimyo were all given lands in the remoter parts and between each two of them a Fudai Daimyo was placed to play the part of a barrier. Such important places as Osaka, Sakai, Fushimi, Nagasaki and Uji-Yamada were administered by the governors directly sent from Yedo. The children of Iyeyasu were given large fiefs and established the Houses of Mito, Owari, Echizen and Kishu, forming a defensive semicircular line. As a whole, Iyeyasu cleverly divided the land among the lords so as to keep the balance between the East and the West, and this policy proved successful till the balance was broken when in the first half of the 19th century the western lords arose in rebellion. The Shogunate paid minute attention to all travellers along the Tokaido, and put a barrier at Hakoné, and no people were allowed to pass through the gate without a passport issued from the lords or the Shogunate. After the enforcement of the articles of the Buké Hatto requiring the family of a lord to stay at Yedo, women were almost entirely prohibited from leaving the city for they must get Hakoné passports directly from the Shogunate.

The purpose of the seclusion policy adopted by the Tokugawa Shogunate was to shut out any possible outside political influence and to prevent the local lords from getting large profits out of foreign trade, and rising thereby to financial and political power. The Shogunate did everything to safeguard their supremacy

and to make the lords obedient as sheep, no matter how the national progress was hindered or into what miserable condition the people might be thrown.

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

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

Both the Roju and the Wakadoshiyori were appointed from among the

Fudai-Daimyo only.

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

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

Cultural Life Culture and civilization made greatest progress in the western part of Japan and it was in Osaka and Kyoto that literature and a more refined life developed in the earlier years of the Yedo period. Iyeyasu was anxious to spread knowledge and encouraged the study of the Japanese and Chinese literatures of former days; scholars of great learning appeared who opened schools and published commentaries or interpretations either of their own accord or by the backing or order of the lords. The progress of the art of printing greatly helped the spread of education in books. But in the early days of the age most of the energy of the ruling class and the

common people was spent in readjusting their political and social life to the new state of affairs created by the united and centralized government of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and time was needed for the psychological atmosphere of the people to settle down toward a peaceful enjoyment of life in this better-organized society.

It was not until after half a century that a characteristic taste and way of life began to show themselves, discarding the old garbs of traditions. Here it must be noted that the fundamental feature of the literature of the age was that it was the creation of the common people, who were robbed of all opportunity for rising to higher social position or assuming official posts in the government. The so-called Genroku period commenced with the luxurious life of the fifth Shogun Tsunayoshi who was a man of enthusiasm, fond of learning, and encouraged lectures and schools. Even before his time the general trend of the period had been toward extravagance and amusement following a century of peace. The Shogun's example, however, quickened and intensified this tendency, and such amusements as "no" drama, joruri (or gidayu), and kabuki (see Chapter XXXVII) were enjoyed by the general masses, while pure literature such as hai-ku, waka, novels, and stories began also to be written and read among the lower classes. Skill in the fine arts, characteristic Japanese hand-work and special weaving arts reached the highest pitch.

The originality of the Japanese made itself felt in almost all lines and aspects of learning and daily life. One instance of this was in the compilation of the Dai Nippon Shi (the Great Japanese History) under the auspices of Mitsukuni Tokugawa, which had been commenc-

ed in 1657. Mitsukuni of Mito who was a grandson of Iyeyasu and one of the greatest figures among the lords in the Tokugawa Age, called scholars to Mito for the encouragement of Japanese learning and ordered the production of the *Dai Nippon Shi* on principles purely Japanese, his spirit exercising a profound influence over the people. In the Genroku period literary men were able to publish their writings freely and the *yoruri* of Chikamatsu, the novels of Saikaku, and the short poems of Basho had a great circulation, most of their works becoming literary treasures of Japan for ages to come.

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

The educational programme of the Tokugawa Shogunate, begun with Iyeyasu himself and encouraged through former decades bore fruit in this period. There appeared many Japanese and Chinese scholars, and literature among the common people reached its prime.

The policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate in handling the people from the lowest up to the lords themselves, was very severe, and the class most oppressed was the common populace. Social tragedies amply reflect themselves in the literature of *yoruri* writers, Chikamatsu and his contemporaries, and in spite of apparently good intentions of the Shogunate rulers and advisers to improve the

political, economical and social conditions, in many cases the people in general were either trodden down under the feet of the lawless samurai or entangled and helpless in the network of the prohibitive laws.

But the characteristic optimism of the Japanese kept them from falling into hopeless discouragement and their surplus time and money were spent in amusements of all kinds. This repressed energy found its outlet in creative industry and literature, or their enjoyment. Besides the standard works of literature there are preserved smaller illustrated pamphlets, short novels and poems which reflect the life of the common people in those days. They expose the looseness of the social life in many respects, but it is wonderful how they show the innate heart of the Japanese people, optimistic, realistic and humane. If it were not for its partial suppression by the Government this common literature might have attained remarkable progress. All Japanese amusements either originated or took definite form in this age. In the upper classes of society a similar course of development ran through all the phases of life. Characteristic Japanese philosophy on human life or Shintoism was created by the combination of Chinese philosophies and Buddhism. Bushido was theorized and its morals were generally sound, and moral activity reached its zenith in the overwhelming loyalty movement at the end of the Yedo Age which culminated in the downfall of the Shogunate and the brilliant Meiji Restoration.

Gradual Economic Decline At the beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate foreign trade was carried on to a considerable extent but afterwards it was almost entirely prohibited except to a small extent through one trade port, and all hope of increasing

the national wealth and economic progress of Japan was lost for the time being. Even with its income from the large territory above mentioned the Shogunate could hardly manage to keep pace with the ever increasing expenditure, and financial unsoundness appeared already at the time of the fourth Shogun, and from the fifth Shogun on they were forced to rely upon the profits gained by the recasting of coin. Various improvements and revisions of economic policy wrought no material change of situation for the better. In the Tempo Era (1830-1844), the Government stood on the brink of bankruptcy and during the last years of the Shogunate the financial situation went from bad to worse.

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

The samurai were also compelled by the *Sankin-kotai* system to have two houses, one at their rural town and the other in Yedo. They were not allowed to do any productive work but received a kind of salary from their own lords, and mostly

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

In the Yedo Age the country folk still lived on the natural products of their farms, helped out by some small income from their handwork, and each village constituted an economic unit, self-supplying and self-supporting. The political peace benefited farmers especially and increase of production resulted from the improvement of farming instruments and institutions. The kinds of vegetables grown became more numerous, sericulture advanced remarkably, and new areas of arable land were brought under cultivation. At the time of Toyotomi's land survey (1573) the rice production of the whole country had been estimated at 18,000,000 koku. In the Genroku Era (1688-1704) it increased to 25,780,000 koku, and, in 1842, to 30,550,000 koku. But 50% of the farmers' income had to be paid to the lords, they were forbidden to move from one place to another, or to change their occupation, purchase of land was restricted, the *Gonin-gumi* and other feudal institutions

fettered them hand and foot. So this class of people was also thrown into miserable depression, and farmers resorted to such desperate measures as infanticide, fleeing to cities and mob riots to escape from their difficulties or fight for their living.

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

The number of recorded farmer-mob riots reached 568, including 68 in the early period of the age, 236 in the middle and 264 in the last. The usual motive for rising in mobs was anger at the unreasonable extortion by the lords, tenant disputes being as yet rare.

Commerce and Industry The advance of commerce was helped by the increase of population in the towns and cities where central and rural governmental seats were located and the regular journeys to and from Yedo of the lords and their soldiers in Sankin-kotai. But as all

foreign trade was banned, business could not take on any natural or international development. The main commodity of the day was rice. The production of this in Kansai, Chugoku (the Main Island west of Kōbē), Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokuriku (districts facing the Japan Sea in the central part of the Main Island) were transported to Osaka rice-dealers, while that of Kanto and Ōhū or the north-eastern provinces was sold in Yedo. Exchange business in rice had already commenced among Osaka merchants and speculations began to draw common interest. Coins of gold, silver, bronze or copper were in good circulation by this time, although these suffered changes of value at times, and the west of Osaka adopted the silver standard, while the east of same the gold standard. Paper money was issued by the rural governments so that money economy prevailed all over Japan. Bank business or Ryo-gai and credit system made considerable progress.

Yedo had over a million population and Osaka came next with several hundred thousand. There were many other cities of over ten thousand. Seclusion had put a stop to sea transportation to foreign lands, but land transportation within the country made wonderful progress. The five highways, To-kaido, Nakasendo, Koshu-kaido, Nikko-kaido and Oshu-kaido (Do or Kaido means road) converged at Yedo and men and goods came to the Shogunate capital along them and their by-roads from the remotest corners of the land. Coasting sea transportation had the following four main lines: the South Sea line between Yedo and Osaka, the West Sea line between Osaka and Nagasaki, the North Sea line from Shimonoseki to Matsumaé, and the East Sea line between Oshu and Yedo; the most

important of these being the South Sea line which connected Yedo the greatest consuming city and Osaka the greatest commercial centre.

On the other hand industry was still undeveloped and most articles were made by handwork in the individual houses. Industry with large capital and in factories was limited to brewing at Nada, weaving at Ashikaga, Kiriu near Yedo and Hakata in Kyushu, metal foundries in Chugoku and shipbuilding.

The seclusion policy quenched the enthusiasm of the Japanese for foreign trade which had been greatly stimulated at the time of Nobunaga Oda. The Islanders were compelled to fall back on the old economic system of self-supply and self-sufficiency, unwillingly relinquishing the international spirit that had aspired to things Western on far larger a scale than that of China centuries ago.

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

The lowest stratum of society was composed of day labourers. They were (1) common day labourers, (2) kumosuké or coolies, (3) house serv-

ants and maids, and (4) women weavers. There was a still lower class of people called Yéta or Hinin (the unclean or no-man) whose intermarriage with the other classes was strictly prohibited and who were engaged in such business as straw-slipper making, leather work, digging graves and acting as night-watchmen and executioners.

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

the 23 years between the Osaka battle and the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637 another 70 lords lost the whole or a part of their territory by the relentless application of the Buké Hatto, and indeed the Shimabara Rebellion was nothing but an outburst of complaints by the Catholics and the ronin against the oppression of the Shogunate. But the power of the Shogunate was unshakable. The number of the ronin, however, was still more increased, and in the 4th year of the Keian Era, 1651, Yui-no Shosetsu and his colleagues attempted a change of the Shogunate government for the benefit of the ronin, although it was suppressed by the wholesale arrest of the ambitious leaders and the harakiri of Yui-no Shosetsu himself on July 25 of that year. There were minor events caused by outbreaks of the ronin here and there and at last the Shogunate was awakened by these uprisings to the graveness of the situation and after the Keian Era measures were taken to prevent further increase in the number of these masterless samurai. As a rule, in obedience to Bushido ethics, the samurai did not like to take a second master, and only a small portion found positions, while the rest either remained unemployed or chose some other occupation. Some became merchants or farmers. Others became scholars and opened Terakoya and educated the young in Confucianism and Japanese literature and morals. Still others became specialists in military arts and gave lectures to the samurai and the lords, while there were quite a number of experts in fencing and archery who opened drill-halls or schools in the larger cities. The better element of the ronin played an important part in the social development of the country standing in a freer position than the regular samurai. And the last

and most praiseworthy task they accomplished was to take a prominent part in the movement for aiding the Imperial House which finally led to the Meiji Restoration.

Exclusion Policy

Policy of Toyotomi The Catholic faith spread over Japan very quickly and many churches were built in various places. But the dogmas and institutions of the Church were in many ways unfitting to Japanese ideals and customs. Besides, the friars or missionaries behaved themselves without discretion, disregarding the laws of the nation, partly tempted to this by the humble attitude of the Japanese officials toward the foreigners, out of their wish to profit by the foreign trade. Hideyoshi Toyotomi therefore destroyed the Catholic Church in Kyoto in 1585, and issued a Prohibition Law in 1587, forbidding the residence of missionaries at Nagasaki and other places. But he still allowed foreigners who did not mean to spread the religion to come.

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

Policy of Iyeyasu Iyeyasu followed Hideyoshi's steps and encouraged foreign trade. But being anxious lest the people should be misled by

the Catholic priests he prohibited their preaching in 1612, expelled them from the country, and strictly ordered the Japanese believers to turn from their faith, and those who did not obey his order were condemned to death. They called this turning from or casting away the Christian faith "Korobi" or rolling over.

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

Seclusion of the Nation The Shogunate kept a strict watch against the coming in of the Catholic faith and tried to exterminate the believers in the country. Their measures were so severe that the Christian believers arose in rebellion at Shimabara in 1637. The uprising was subdued in a short time, but because of it the Shogunate determined to go a step farther in carrying out the law, and prohibited the coming of foreign people entirely in 1639, with the only exception of the Hollanders who helped the Shogun's armies in the fight against the religious mob at Shimabara and cherished no idea of spreading the Catholic faith among the Japanese. Hollanders were allowed to trade at Nagasaki, although it was done under the guard of the Samurai.

With this strict seclusion policy

the Shogunate was able to root out Catholicism and remove from the minds of the people the influence of foreign thought and belief, and so gain peace in home affairs. But during those years, foreign affairs became known to only a few of the Shogunate upper officials, and this merely through meagre reports presented by the Dutch Consul, and the people were kept in entire ignorance. The result of it all was the Japanese isolation from the nations of the world and the country's dropping behind out of the ranks of world civilization.

But general movements among the nations of the world did not allow Japan to stay forever in a secluded condition. In the 18th century, foreign ships began to visit Japan, and the Islanders could no longer leave these intruders at their shores unheeded. The end of the Yedo Age was evidently drawing near.

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

Seclusion Law Re-enforced The Seclusion Law required the provincial lords to drive foreigners away from the shores of the Empire, but its observance grew lax with the lapse of time. At the end of the 18th century the Shogunate made it milder and allowed foreign ships to come, on condition that they had no enmity to the nation, and still later the Government treated them very humanely. Unfortunately, however, the repeated rough conduct of the

English shipmen irritated the official mind to the last limit and they were compelled to re-enforce the old law, giving orders to the coastguard to bombard any foreign boat which came near the shore, and to arrest any of their crew who landed forcibly, and kill them if necessary. At the same time, they gave strict orders to the Japanese boats not to have any intercourse with foreign vessels (1825).

National Doors Opened

An American ship, the "Morrison", came to bring members of a Japanese shipwrecked crew back to their country, met with the bombardment, and went back to China in 1837.

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

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

Treaty with Russia Russia also sent Vice-Admiral Poutiatine to Nagasaki in 1853, and a treaty of commerce with Russia was concluded opening Shimoda, Hakodate and Nagasaki for her vessels, and making agreements respecting their boundaries in the north.

At that time England and Russia

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

Conclusion of Commercial Treaties In 1858 the United States sent to Shimoda her Consul General, Townsend Harris, who finally succeeded in coming up to Yedo and got an interview with the Shogun Iyêsada in 1857. He earnestly requested the Government's consent to open trade relations, and asked that an American minister might be stationed in Yedo, assuring his hearers of American sincerity. The foreign trade allowed hitherto by the Shogunate was only through the mediation of the officials, and Harris insisted upon free and direct commerce between the merchants of the nations.

The Shogunate officials themselves, already aware of the inconveniences of the old system, complied with his requests, regularly concluded a friendly commercial treaty with the United States, and agreed to open New Kanagawa (the present Yokohama), Nagasaki, Niigata, and Hyogo (Kobé) in addition to Shimoda and Hakodate. They allowed Americans to settle in those ports for trade, gave them freedom to come in to Yedo and Osaka, recognized their freedom of religious belief and extraterritorial jurisdiction, and regulated the rate of tariff in 1858. This was the so-called Ansei modus vivendi.

In the same year the treaty was sanctioned by the Shogunate, without the Imperial grant. The Shogunate concluded similar treaties with Holland, Russia, England, and France in the same year; and with

Prussia, Switzerland and Belgium a little later.

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

Downfall of the Shogunate

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

Uprising of the Loyalists On the other hand the smouldering fire of loyalty to the Imperial House was gradually fanned into a blaze by the increasing attention paid to the study of Confucianism and old Japanese literature. Confucian scholars taught that the first duty of the people was to be loyal to the King (Emperor) and not to the Conqueror (Shogun), while the students of the old Japanese literature explained the irrationality of the Shogunate régime in the country of which the sovereignty belonged solely to the Imperial House. Down to the middle of the Yedo Age, however, these teachings did no harm to the Shogunate for both the ruling class and the people took them as mere matters

of academical interest without practical application. Mitsukuni Tokugawa, the lord of Mito was among the foremost in advocating the virtue of loyalty to the Imperial House, himself beginning a work of the compilation of Japanese history to make this characteristic Japanese virtue clearly understood, and erecting a monument to the loyalist Masashigé Kusunoki at Minatogawa, Kobé. And such scholars as Ansai Yamazaki, Keisai Asami, Soko Yamaka, etc. mostly praised the virtue of loyalty, though not necessarily to incite any anti-Shogunate sentiment. Their teachings, nevertheless, acted to stimulate Imperial loyalty in the hearts of the samurai and the people till the time came when it should burst into flame.

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

keen and powerful pen.

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

The Ansei Coup d'État When Komei, father of Meiji the Great, came to the Throne, he did not hesitate to give Imperial suggestions and command to the Shogunate, and the Imperial power was greatly strengthened. The party which was defeated in its hopes for choosing another man for the 14th Shogun schemed a reformation of the Shogunate from within. They united with other forces and asked for an Imperial edict to accomplish their plans. The Emperor issued an edict and reprimanded the Shogunate for their rudeness in concluding treaties without the Imperial permission. Whereupon the Shogunate sent a delegate to apologize for their mistake, but at the same time the Tairo (premier) Naosuké Ii declared the coup d'état of Ansei, 1858, and punished and put into prison all who worked for the issuance of the Imperial edict. His purpose was to re-establish the governmental authority of the Shogunate. But Ii was assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun's palace in 1860.

The assassination of the Tairo gave what was to prove a final blow to the Shogunate though the Roju, Nobumasa Ando, schemed a combination or amalgamation of the Imperial Court and the Shogunate to save the latter from ruin. Some of the powerful lords in the west responded to the idea for a time, but public opinion was overwhelmingly against this amalgamation movement on the part of the pro-Shogun party, and the anti-Yedo movement

increased still more in power. Most of the loyalists gathered in Kyoto and hotly discussed the matter. The ronin or unemployed samurai flocked to the cause in such great numbers that it was necessary for the armies of the lords of Satsuma, Tosa and Choshu to keep them in bounds in order to preserve the peace of the city.

On the other hand, the Emperor Komei sent a messenger to Yedo to urge the reformation of the Shogunate Government. The Shogun Iyeshigé tried to make improvements in the system of Sankin-kotai, etc., but it was too late to regain the support of the people. The Namamugi incident, in which three Englishmen were killed or injured by the lord of Shimazu's samurai and England demanding compensation, stirred the extreme anti-foreign party to fury and the Kyoto Court sent Sanetomi Sanjo this time to Yédo and ordered the Shogunate to wage war against all foreigners. In 1863 an Anti-Foreign Edict was issued by the Shogunate, and the armies of the Choshu and Satsuma lords attacked foreign merchant ships and warships. The fanatical Kyoto loyalists demanded that a nation-wide anti-foreign movement should be launched, and the Emperor was inclined to take command of the movement himself, but the more sagacious and saner-minded princes and lords advised him to realize the unwisdom of anti-foreign action, and the leaders of the radical element lost influence and fled to the west. For a while the schism among the loyalists persisted, but the object lesson of the bombardment of Shimonoseki by a combined foreign fleet weakened the anti-foreign movement to a great extent. By 1867, when the Emperor Meiji ascended to the Throne, the anti-foreign movement had died away and the loyalists were solely

concerned with the destruction of the Shogunate régime, recognizing the inability of the Shogunate to sustain the national honour in the crisis.

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

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

and on October 24 the resignation of the Shogun was formally tendered to the Throne. Thus the Yedo Shogunate ended with the 15th Shogun, after having continued for 265 years, and after a total period of 675 years the sovereign authority was restored to the Throne.

The Meiji Restoration

In December of the same year, the Emperor Meiji issued an important order abolishing the old officialdom and forming a new Dajokan which should consist of the president, councillors and vice-councillors, and proclaiming the direct rule of the Throne in every line of national government. The Imperial Prince Arisugawa was appointed President of the Dajokan, and those court nobles and feudal lords who had faithfully worked for the restoration were given the position of councillors, while some other men of ability were made vice-councillors from among the nobles and common samurai, and the people were allowed to live in complete equality, discarding the old castes of nobles or common people. This change was called "Ishin" or the renovation of all things. In the following year, 1868, or the first year of Meiji, the Emperor by the advice of Takayoshi (Koin) Kido, a vice-councillor, called together the princes and high officials to the Shishin-den or central palace and took the famous oath of five articles before the ancestral gods. These five articles of the Imperial oath provided the foundation to the new régime. They were as follows: "(1) We will call councils and rule the nation according to public opinion; (2) Men of upper and lower classes without distinction shall be united in all enterprises; (3) Civil officials and military officers shall be in one accord and all the common people shall be so treated that they can attain their

aims and feel no discontent; (4) Old unworthy ways and customs shall be destroyed and the people shall walk along the highway of heaven and earth; and (5) Knowledge shall be sought among the nations of the world and the Empire shall be led up to the zenith of prosperity. To accomplish this unprecedented reformation, We go before the people, and proclaim the fundamental national principles, even in the presence of the gods of heaven and earth, to establish the way for the public welfare. Ye, Our subjects, shall be united all together, according to these principles." In August of the same year, the formal celebration of the Emperor's ascension to the Throne was held at the central palace, and in September the year-name Meiji was given.

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

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

Surrender of Fiefs The Imperial Court had confiscated all the territory belonging to the old Shogunate, and set up prefectural offices and appointed governors, but the feudal lords still owned their lands and their feudal subjects. In the first year of Meiji, Takayoshi (Koin) Kido submitted an opinion on the surrender of all feudal possessions to the Emperor, to complete the purpose of the Restoration, through Sanétomi Sanjo and Tomomi Iwakura; and at the same time he advised Lord Mori, Daimyo of Nagato, to return his territory to the Court, and the latter agreed and was willing to do so. Thereupon Takayoshi Kido worked with Toshimichi Okubo and succeeded in getting the consent of Lord (Daimyo) Shimazu of Satsuma, Lord Nabeshima of Hizen and Lord Yamanouchi of Tosa. These four lords tendered their petition for the territorial surrender in joint signature. Other lords followed them, and their petition was accepted in the second year. The lords gave up all their land and people, asking for nothing in return in a most admirable spirit of patriotism and loyalty. For the time being they were requested to continue as governors of their districts, and the feudal system was completely destroyed.

The country was divided into 8 urban prefectures, 26 prefectures and 262 clan districts. But the governors of clan districts, the former feudal lords, governed their people mostly in the old style, preserving the "chief-and-subject" relation. The orders and ways of administration were greatly distorted and the authority of the Central Government was ineffective. Fortunately, however, Yoshii of Gumma and Sayama of Osaka soon resigned their governorships, realizing the defects of the system, and many others followed their lead. Kido again was

quick enough to grasp the situation, and taking advantage of the general trend he endeavoured with his powerful friends Toshimichi Okubo and Takamori Saigo to do away with the clan governors and unify the whole nation under the same form of prefectural government. The Emperor called all the clan district governors to Tokyo in 1871, and kindly explained to them about the abolition of their office. They were given conveniences to live in Tokyo, and were replaced by the prefectural governors. Through many changes, the country was finally divided as at present into one "Do", three urban prefectures and forty-three prefectures in 1889. (Foreign relations are dealt with in Chapter VI.)

Social Reforms

After the cessation of samurai government the social system could not remain unaltered. In 1869, when the resignation of the lords was accepted, the name of "Kugé" (court noble) and "Daimyo" (feudal lord) were abolished and the nobles and lords were all made "Kazoku" (flowers of the nation) or peers. Clan samurai were given the class-name of Shizoku, and in the following year the common people were allowed to take their own family names, which they had not previously borne. In 1871, intermarriage was permitted between the peers and Heimin or common people, while the peers and "Shizoku" were allowed to engage in the ordinary business of agriculture, industry and commerce. Thus the social castes of the feudal age were entirely broken to pieces. Social institutions and customs changed also. With the official recognition of friendly intercourse with foreign people, international traffic and relations became busier and more intimate. Many a

Japanese who went abroad brought back Western customs and introduced new institutions, and the people were quick to adopt them in their social daily life. In the second year of Meiji telegraphic communication was opened between Tokyo and Yokohama; in the fourth year, the regular mail service began between Tokyo, Kyoto and Osaka; and in the fifth year, the first train ran between Tokyo and Yokohama. In the fourth year, men were ordered to cut off their topknots and walk on the street without wearing a sword. In the same year, laws regarding European costumes and uniforms of officials were issued, the old lunar calendar was discarded and the solar calendar was adopted in its place, and national holidays were newly appointed. In 1871, the Department of Education was added to the Government and, in 1872, the national educational system was established and it became compulsory for all children to be sent to public elementary schools. Buildings in European styles began to appear in the cities and people gradually acquired a taste for foreign food.

New Military System

After the appearance of the Samurai class in the middle age they held all the military power in their hands, and the people at large had nothing to do with it. But with the reforms following the Restoration, the military system was also revised and in the fifth year of Meiji the provisional Department of Military Affairs was changed into the two departments of Army and Marine, and in the following year the law of conscription was issued and, in accordance with the old-time ideas of the Japanese and on the pattern of the European powers the people were all ordered to share in universal military service for the protec-

tion of the country. The military system has made singular progress through many national crises in the Meiji Era.

Cultivation of Hokkaido

At the beginning of the Meiji Era the cultivation of the waste land of the north was proposed, and in the second year the Colonization Bureau was opened. The name Hokkaido, or north-sea-district, was given to the land, formerly known as Yezo. In the third year, Kiyotaka Kuroda was appointed vice-president of the Bureau and he made untiring efforts to civilize the natives, to construct roads, to promote industry and to encourage immigrants from the other islands. In 1875, he invited the Samurai class of the three north-eastern prefectures of the Main Island to form a colonial militia to let them guard and cultivate the land at the same time. The farming and population of Hokkaido have rapidly increased since. A troublesome question in the north was the boundary between Japan and Russia. The Shogunate had had several diplomatic negotiations with the Russian admirals, and at the beginning of the Meiji Era this question again arose with the opening of the Colonization Bureau. Japan's wish was to divide the Island of Saghalien into two with the border line at 50° north latitude. Kuroda wished to abandon Saghalien and concentrate all efforts on the colonization of Hokkaido, and the Government sent Vice-Admiral Buyo Enomoto to Russia and tried to settle the question. In 1875 a compromise was reached and the whole of Saghalien was adjudged to belong to Russia and all the Kurile Islands were given to Japan. This so-called exchange of Saghalien and the Kuriles finally settled the long dispute over Japan's northern boundaries.

Civil Wars

The Cause The political and social reforms of the Meiji Restoration were so vast in scale and so rapid in progress that the mass of the people could hardly understand their need and meaning, being still prone to the old ways and systems. There were some who were offended by various policies of the Government. Those people became a constant cause of political and social unrest, there were repeatedly assassinations of high officials; while in the country districts disturbances broke out one after another. Shimpei Yeto, caused some troubles in Saga prefecture; but he was soon subdued by the Imperial army. In Kumamoto, an adjacent prefecture to Saga, Otaguro and others formed a party which was called the Jimpuren or Divine-wind-party, and made an attack on the Kumamoto garrison in 1876, only to be defeated by the soldiers of the garrison. At Hagi, the north-western end of the Main Island, Maehara arose in accord with the Jimpuren party, but he was also killed and his men dispersed.

The Saigo Rebellion Takamori Saigo could not realize his ideas about the Korean problem, and was deeply grieved at the failure. After his resignation he went back to his native place, Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu Island. Over a hundred officers and soldiers who had been under him in the Tokyo Imperial Guard followed him to the city and it caused a great commotion in the country. His followers, such as ex-major-generals Kirino and Shinowara, elected Saigo to the leadership of their party and the head of their private school. In 1877 Saigo, Kirino and Shinowara gathered an army of over 15,000 soldiers, proclaiming their intention of impeach-

ing the Government for its social and political failures, and came up to Kumamoto and besieged the Kumamoto castle of the Imperial garrison. But the commander of the garrison, Major-General Tateki Tani, bravely fought against Saigo's army and did not surrender. The Emperor Meiji was then travelling in the districts near Kyoto and Osaka, and stopped in Kyoto to take command of the Imperial army. He appointed the Imperial Prince Arisugawa to be Commander-in-Chief, and Lieutenant-General Arimoto Yamagata and Vice-Admiral Sumiyoshi Kawamura to be the heads of the army and navy respectively. Saigo's troops were compelled to raise the siege under the pressure of the big Imperial armies, and they retreated in disorder back to Kagoshima, and made Shiroyama their final stronghold. Shiroyama was a promontory in the outskirts of the town and there the great Saigo killed himself with his colleagues in the face of the assailing Imperial soldiers. This rebellion was really the last of the civil wars accompanying the Restoration. After this South-Western Civil War, the wounded soldiers, loyalist and rebel alike, were cared for impartially at the Imperial army hospitals, and the Emperor Meiji, the Empress and the Empress-Dowager showed them special kindness. It may be mentioned that the Japan Red Cross Society was founded on this occasion.

Dawn of Constitutional Government

The Constitution In the first year of Meiji, government institutions were reformed in many ways, and representatives of prefectures were made members of the lower council. In the following year the public assembly was opened, and the prefectural representatives became its members.

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

Prefectural Elections The South Western Civil War was ended and the foundation of the Central Government became unshakable. But in a few years Japan lost most of her able statesmen one after another. Saigo died in the battle just mentioned, Kido passed away from illness, and Okubo was assassinated in 1878. These were the three pillars of the Reformation, and Shigénobu Okuma, Hirobumi Ito and the like had to carry on their strenuous task. Public faith in these new statesmen was not yet assured, but they were young and progressive and endeavoured to absorb Western ways and civilization for the benefit of the rising generation. In April, 1878, the second local governors' conference was held and Ito was its

chairman. The items for discussion were rules on prefectural assemblies, local taxes, and the organization of towns and villages. In July of the same year the rules on prefectural assemblies were issued, and according to the articles public election of representatives and local self-government were for the first time put into practice in the following year. This was a further step toward constitutional government. As a matter of fact, it might be considered a rehearsal of the formation of a national diet. The election was most sincerely carried out, because the people honoured the candidates as those who must in truth represent them not only in wisdom and political ideas but also in personality and social standard. The result was that the prefectural assemblies were composed of the best class of men in the districts. For instance, the chairman of the Tokyo prefectural assembly was Genichiro Fukuchi and the vice-president was Yukichi Fukuzawa, founder of Keio-Gijuku University, while the members were all men of honour. The famous members of the Imperial Diet and great statesmen of later days mostly came out of these primitive local assemblies.

Political Dissensions Political dissensions, which had appeared even under the turmoil of military struggles, came to the fore, and hot discussions on both sides were carried on both in debates and through printed pamphlets. The one who attracted most public attention with his progressive opinions was Taisuké Itagaki of Tosa. In September, 1878, a meeting was held at Osaka under the leadership of Itagaki's society to pass a resolution calling for the realization of the national assembly. It was a meeting of Samurai-class people as yet. But their second meeting, in March, 1879, gathered

together 80 members who represented 21 societies in 19 prefectures, and the third meeting in November made resolutions to send a petition to the Emperor, and drafted a letter with a long heading, "Letter of Appeal to the Public for demanding the establishment of the National Assembly," which was printed and distributed among the people.

Petition for Opening Diet In the city of Okayama, a little west of Kobé, hot-blooded young politicians composed a manifesto and distributed it, whose earnest and beautiful sentences moved their youthful contemporaries more strongly than the first had done. When the fourth meeting of the Patriots' Society was held at Osaka in April, 1880, 114 delegates from the 87,000 members of different societies met together, formed the "Volunteers' Association for Demanding the Opening of the National Assembly," and drafted a petition. It is said that over 50 such petitions were presented to the Government during the one year of 1880. In the midst of such movements a new scholar of French politics, Kim-mochi Saionji, the only surviving Genro or Elder Statesman at present, came back from Paris and published the "Toyo Jiyu Shimbun" (Eastern Liberal News), and instructed the people in the principles of liberal politics, to the great surprise of the authorities. The acute state of affairs seemed to presage the early appearance of an Imperial Diet when the political events of 1881 occurred.

Imperial Edict Issued In that year the Government was going to sell to the Kansai Trade Society the land, buildings, ships, dock and hunting fields which belonged to the Colonization Bureau. The actual price was estimated at a little over ¥300,000, while the Government invested and spent as much as ¥14,096,800 for

them. There was a strong suspicion of favouritism for the Kagoshima merchants, for many of the high officials came from that district, and criticisms arose against the abuse. This public criticism was caught up by those who demanded liberty and they bitterly censured the official autocracy. The very evening of his return from a tour of the northeastern districts on the 11th of October, the Emperor Meiji gathered together the members of the Cabinet and the councillors and a meeting was held in his presence at which it was resolved that the government sale should be stopped at once and that the Imperial Diet should be summoned in the twenty-third year of Meiji, (1890). These resolutions were published in the Imperial edict issued on the following day, October 12th, 1881. With the issuing of this edict the boisterous outbursts of discussion and debate among the people gradually died down and political parties began to be organized for carrying out their political principles in readiness for the opening of the parliament ten years later. The principal ones were the Jiyu-to, Liberal party of Taisuké Itagaki and the Kaishin-to, or Progressive Party of Shigenobu Okuma.

Preparation of Constitution In 1882 the Government sent Hirobumi Ito to make thorough investigations regarding Western institutions, to find good models and suggestions for the Japanese parliament. Ito and his attendants mostly stayed in Germany and there studied Western politics and constitutions, and came back in the following year. In 1884 the Government established an Investigation Bureau in a part of the Imperial Palace and appointing Ito the president of the Bureau, ordered him to make out a draft of the Constitution and plans for the new institutions. It was in this

year that a law for the peers was enacted and the five ranks of nobility—prince, marquis, count, viscount and baron—were first defined. In 1885, at the instance of Prince Sanjo and to lay the foundation for true constitutional government, the officialism of the Central Government was reformed and a real Cabinet of a modern nature was formed for the first time, the old positions of councillor and minister being abolished. It consisted of the Premier and Ministers for Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Finance, Army, Marine, Justice, Education, Agriculture and Commerce, and Communications. The function of these ministers was to take joint responsibility on national politics in place of the Emperor and help him in good government over his faithful subjects. In the Court there were the Naidaijin or Keeper of the Privy Seal and the Minister of the Imperial Household. The first Premier was Ito himself, who held the additional post of the Ministership of the Imperial Household. In 1888 the Privy Council was established, the most excellent and patriotic statesmen were appointed to its membership, and it was made the highest body for the Imperial consultation on important political affairs. Ito again was the first President of the Privy Council. The draft of the Constitution was completed by this year and the Emperor put it before the Privy Council as the first item of discussion. The Emperor Meiji was present in all sessions on the Constitution, earnestly listening to the opinions of the different members, and played a great part himself in the resolutions.

Promulgation of the Constitution On the 11th of February, the 2549th anniversary of the accession of Jimmu Tenno, 1889 in Western reckoning, the Emperor Meiji reverently

reported the promulgation of the Constitution to the ancestral gods and appeared in person with the Empress before the Imperial Princess, Cabinet ministers, high officials, representative people, and foreign ministers, and solemnly issued the Imperial Constitution. (See Appendix.) He issued an accompanying law relating to the Imperial family which regulated future accessions, and relative positions of the Imperial Princes, that no trouble might ensue on the question of the successor to the Throne. Other laws which were to accompany the Constitution were on the election of the members of the lower house of parliament and the institution of it. They were issued in the same year, and in November, 1890, the first Imperial Diet was convened in Tokyo and the opening ceremony was held in the presence of the Emperor. Local self-government had been established and improvements made in the institutions of cities and towns for the past two years and in this year another improvement in the prefectural and county institutions was made, confirming their self-government, although the county government was abolished later.

Laws Since the downfall of feudalism and return of fiefs to the Emperor, the enacted uniform laws for the proper control of the people became an acute necessity and the Government first took in hand the criminal laws and issued revised ones in the sixth year of Meiji. Other laws were revised or newly compiled according to the need of the progressive society and with due regard to foreign relations. The code of civil procedure, the commercial law and the civil law were enforced by 1899. The criminal law was revised in 1908 and the code of civil procedure in 1924 according to the advanced ideals and needs of the times.

Revision of Treaties (See Chapter VI)

Sino-Japanese War

The War In August, 1894 Japan declared war against China, and the Emperor located his headquarters at Hiroshima to command his armies more effectively. Lieutenant-General Notsu routed the Chinese soldiers and drove them back from the boundaries of Korea in that month, and Vice-Admiral Yukyo Ito, Commander-in-Chief of the combined fleet, defeated the Chinese North-Sea fleet on the Yellow Sea. In October, Commander Aritomo Yamagata led his First Army through Chosen to Southern Manchuria and advanced victoriously to the west, while Commander Iwao Oyama, head of the Second Army, crossed the Yellow Sea and entered China direct, to act in conjunction with the Imperial fleet on the sea. Port Arthur was captured in November and Weihaiwei in February, 1895, and the Chinese naval power was annihilated. In March, the peninsula of Liaotung was seized by the Japanese armies and Peking was threatened by attack, while Southern China lay at the mercy of the Japanese fleet. The Emperor Meiji appointed Imperial Prince Akihito Arisugawa generalissimo over the whole army and navy to reduce China to submission. China yielded and asked for peace, appointing Li Hung-chang ambassador. Japanese ambassadors Premier Ito and Foreign Minister Mutsu met him at a peace conference at Shimonoseki. According to the peace treaty concluded in April, 1895, China recognized Korean independence, gave Japan the Liaotung Peninsula, Formosa and Boko Islands, paid about ¥300,000,000 to her, and opened four new ports for trade.

Return of Liaotung In alliance with Germany and France Russia inter-

vened and advised Japan to give back the territory to China, and the Peninsula was returned to China at the end of 1895 for an indemnity of about ¥45,000,000.

The newly acquired territory of Formosa was first governed by Governor-General Kabayama. In 1896, the whole island of Formosa was pacified and the new people began to understand the Japanese rule. In 1898 Gentaro Kodama became the Governor-General and encouraged industry and improved traffic so much that the Island was really transformed into a valuable part of the Empire. After the Sino-Japanese War, the Japanese Government and people united their efforts in many enterprises. Military preparations were strengthened, schools improved in number and quality, industry and commerce thrived, communications were also greatly improved, and the national power remarkably augmented. In 1897 Japan adopted the gold standard, on the foundation of the gold coin received from China as indemnity.

The Boxer Rebellion In the meanwhile, anti-foreign feeling began to spread over the Chinese people, and, in 1899, the so-called "Boxer Rebellion" suddenly broke out in Shantung. The party hoisted the banners of "protect China, exterminate foreigners", murdered many Christian missionaries, destroyed churches, and, in the following year, advanced to Tientsin and attacked the residences of Europeans there. Later they united with the Government soldiers controlled by the Empress-Dowager and coming up to Peking attacked the foreign legations, some Japanese and German delegates being killed, and Japan headed the combined forces of the Powers which marched on the capital for the relief of the legations. The Chinese yielded, asked for peace,

punished the leaders of the anti-foreign movement, and agreed to pay a 450,000,000 tael indemnity, and to send delegates to Japan and Germany to make apology.

Anglo-Japanese Alliance After the experience of the North China incident, England abandoned her historical policy of "splendid isolation" and allied with Japan in 1902 for mutual help in the Far Eastern problems. According to the terms of the Alliance, Japan and England were to be united in maintaining Chinese and Korean territorial integrity and to help each other if any two other nations united to attack either one of the allies in the Far East.

Russo-Japanese War

Russia Reluctant to Go Under pressure of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance and the American Government, Russia promised China to return Manchuria, but was by no means ready to keep her promise and on the contrary, in 1903, she sent larger armies to Manchuria and was busy constructing permanent strongholds at Port Arthur, dispatched warships to the port, appointed Alexeiev Governor-General with his headquarters at Port Arthur, acted as the sovereign power in diplomatic, civil and military affairs in the Far East, and in August of the same year invaded the northern part of Korea. This unrestrained Russian advance menaced the territorial integrity of Korea, the existence of Japan, and the peace of the Far East, and Japan was compelled to take a firm stand against these designs, proposing a mutual understanding about the limitations of rights of both nations to avoid the impending danger of collision. But during the course of the negotiations, Russia continued to menace Japan, treating her with contempt and preserving her own aggressive attitude. The Japanese

final proposal, on the problems in Manchuria, of the 12th of January, 1904, was left unanswered by Russia for two weeks, and the Imperial declaration of war against Russia was issued on Feb. 10th, 1904.

War on Sea The combined fleet of Admiral Togo immediately attacked the Russian warships off Port Arthur and Chinnampo and constantly pressed the Russian navy in Port Arthur. The warships in Vladivostok often came out into Japanese waters, harassed the communications of the Japanese army on the continent and hindered the transport of soldiers, but they were also destroyed in August by the second squadron under Rear-Admiral Kamimura.

War on Land On the land, General Kuroki headed the First Army and marched into Manchuria through Korea in May; the Second Army of General Oku was landed at the Liaotung peninsula and devising a united stratagem with the Fourth Army of General Notsu defeated the enemy in every place, and the three armies simultaneously advanced to Liaoyang. In June the Emperor ordered Generalissimo Oyama, Commander-in-Chief of all the armies, and General Kodama, Chief of the General Staff, to go to the front, and they spurred the whole army to victory over the Russian soldiers in the town. In October the Russian reinforced armies came down to retake the town, but the Japanese armies encountered them at Shaho and defeated them.

In the meantime the Third Army under General Nogi turned from Liaotung to the attack of Port Arthur. Nogi began the famous but awful siege warfare, and captured the so-called "203-metre hill" in December. In January, 1905, General Stoessel, head of the Russian garrison, surrendered to General Nogi and sued for peace.

After the unsuccessful Battle of Sha-ho the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army, General Kuropatkin, gathered over 600,000 soldiers at Mukden and awaited his chance. In February, 1905, the Japanese Manchurian armies were reinforced by the Third Army from Port Arthur, and General Kawamura's Yalu River army, and rallying 400,000 soldiers they advanced towards Mukden from three ways. After a fierce battle of 14 days the Japanese armies defeated the immense armies of the enemy, who returned to the north in a complete rout. This momentous event was on the tenth of March, 1905.

The Baltic Fleet Before the downfall of Port Arthur and the defeat at Mukden, Russia had seen the weakness of her naval power in Japanese waters, delaying any possible victory over Japan. She, therefore, had formed the Second and Third Pacific Squadrons out of her Baltic fleet, and had sent them to the Pacific under the leadership of Vice-Admiral Rozdhestvensky. The Russian squadron made a long voyage to the Far East and Togo was able to make full plans to meet them in the most convenient place for the Japanese fleet. Had the Russian warships safely entered the port of Vladivostok the defenceless shores of Japan would have been exposed to their bombardment while the Japanese Manchurian armies might have been starved to death, unable to get supplies from the home Islands. Togo was right when he hoisted high on the main-mast of his flagship the signal, "The fate of Japan will be decided with this battle; every sailor is requested to exert his best for the country," at the moment the outlines of the Russian fleet came into sight. The 38 boats of the two Russian squadrons sailed straight in majestic lines for

their destination across the East China Sea. Togo kept the utmost secrecy as to his hiding place and chose the narrow Tsushima Straits to encounter the Russian fleet. It took only a few hours from the evening of the 27th of May to the following morning to sink most of the Russian warships or blow them to pieces, and Rozdhestvensky and his staff were taken captive. In July of the same year a part of the Japanese army was landed at Saghalien and subduing the Russian resistance quickly captured the whole Island.

The Peace Mr. Roosevelt, President of the United States, initiated peace-proposals between Japan and Russia, seeing the disastrous condition, financial or otherwise, which threatened both countries after the battles at Mukden and the Japan Sea. He was successful in persuading the rival parties to open a peace conference in America. Japan sent Jutaro Komura and Kogoro Takahira as her ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary to Portsmouth, to meet with the Russian ambassadors Witte and Rosen. The peace treaty was concluded in September, 1905. Russia recognized the supreme rights of Japan over Korea, surrendered the southern half of Saghalien to Japan, and handed over the special rights of lease which she possessed in Kwantung, the railroad south of Changchun and the mining of coal along it.

After the Russo-Japanese War

Post-war Readjustment The Russo-Japanese war raised Japan's position in world politics, putting her almost on the same level as the European Powers, especially in regard to Oriental affairs. The international relations of Japan with the Western Powers became so intimate and important that all of them exchanged ambassadors with Japan in place

of the former ministers. In home affairs, Japan made special efforts in the education of the people to keep abreast with the times. Industry in all lines leaped forward under the leadership of able business men. The state-ownership of railroads was realized to improve the traffic of the Islands. The patriotic contributions of the business men and merchants after the war must not be overlooked. In 1906 Port Arthur was made a naval station for the defence of the Kwantung littoral, and the South Manchuria Railway Company was established to manage the railroad and mining business which had been handed over by Russia. Dairen and a part of Port Arthur were opened for international trade. In 1907 the Saghalien national boundary was fixed at 50° north latitude, and the Government opened an office there and encouraged the emigration of Japanese to the island.

Relation with Korea

(See Chapter VI.)

Treaties with Powers

(See Chapter VI.)

Demise of the Emperor Meiji In July, 1912, the Emperor Meiji passed away after only a few weeks of illness in his Tokyo Palace. His demise caused such profound grief among the people that an English correspondent was said to have telegraphed home "Japan is going into a decline!" with the death of the great Emperor. He died beloved of all, a love which was attested by the splendid Meiji Shrine which was built in his honour, and which draws more worshipers than any other shrine. The Emperor Yoshihito (the late Emperor Taisho), came to the Throne immediately after his father's death, according to the provisions in the Imperial code on the succession.

Blending of East and West Immedi-

ately after the Restoration the Government had been eager to invite and introduce all things Western, and the people had responded to the policy with alacrity. There followed, as a matter of fact, an age of Europeanization. It was during those days that so many Japanese treasures of Buddhism and fine arts went out of the Islands for very meagre amounts of money, and many beautiful old customs and precedents were carelessly dropped. But then came the victories over China and Russia and they gave confidence and conviction to the Japanese and they turned from a mere imitation of the West to the recognition of their own special abilities and valuable inheritances. Cries for the preservation of national characteristics were raised and the blending of the Occidental and Oriental civilizations, the creation of a new Meiji civilization, was started and the nation began to make a steady and healthy advance in all phases of national life.

The World War

Japan's Contribution In August, 1914, the World War broke out and Japan was compelled according to the terms of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance to take necessary steps to combat German activities in the Orient. She requested Germany to withdraw her war vessels from Japanese and Chinese waters, and to return Shantung by a fixed date to China. Needless to say, Germany did not comply, and Japan declared war in the same month.

Tsingtao Falls Japan lost no time in dispatching her army and navy to Tsingtao. The Second Squadron commanded by Vice-Admiral Sadakichi Kato blockaded the gulf while the First Squadron of Tomosaburo Kato kept watch over the Yellow Sea and other Chinese north-eastern

seas. The 18th Divisional Commander Kanwo attacked the fortress from behind, in conjunction with the navy. Some British troops also took part and they all besieged the fortress in October, 1914. The attack was so aggressive that in but ten days all the batteries were captured and in November the German Governor Waldeck and his staff surrendered the port and fortress. In deeper waters, the Japanese Third Squadron commanded by Rear-Admiral Tsuchiya kept watch over not only the Chinese seas but also as far as the Philippine waters. A detachment of the First Squadron was sent to the South Seas and acting in concert with the British navy tried to destroy the German Asiatic fleet, the Marshall Islands were occupied in September, and the Mariana and Caroline Islands in October, and possession was taken of all German naval stations in the South Seas. British vessels met the German fleet in the Indian Ocean, and off the coast of South Africa, and destroyed it in December, 1914. With it Germany's strength in the Orient was altogether wiped out.

Japan helped Russia also chiefly by enabling her to attend to the War without any anxiety about Eastern affairs, supplying her with ammunitions as much as she could. Russia was grateful for this friendly attitude of Japan and the relations of the two nations became more intimate, and a new treaty was concluded in 1916 to co-operate for the maintenance of perpetual peace in the Far East, and to negotiate freely with each other for the protection and defence of the special rights and territorial domination already recognized, instead of competing. With the progress of the World War, Japan dispatched a special-service fleet as far as the Mediterranean. The special-service fleet tried their best

to protect trade and communications in that part by bravely and effectively attacking German submarines in co-operation with the European fleets and in harmony with the orders of the British Mediterranean fleet Commander. In 1917 the Russian Revolution broke out in the midst of the War. The Romanoff dynasty was overthrown and the radical revolutionaries came into power and concluded peace singly with Germany. This resulted in the permeation of the military influence of Germany and Austria into Russia and even to the Far East. A large body of Czechoslovak troops who had escaped into Russia, and were trying to make their way home to Europe by way of Siberia, suffered greatly in consequence. Japan kept a keen watch on these Russian disorders. In 1918 she sent ships to Vladivostok for the protection of the Japanese residents and to maintain order in that district for the international benefit, in co-operation with the warships of other nations. And later, in agreement with America, Japan dispatched an army under General Otani to Vladivostok and helped the Czecho army, in conjunction with the soldiers of other nations.

Japanese Massacred In March 1920 the Japanese garrison and citizens, about 700 in all, were massacred by Russian communists at Nikolaievsk, which caused intense indignation in Japan. She sent armies to Siberia immediately and occupied a part of the coast district and the remainder of Saghalien. Negotiations were opened again between the two nations and in 1925 a new Russo-Japanese treaty was concluded. According to its terms Japan withdrew her soldiers from North Saghalien while Russia gave Japan the mining rights

and freedom of cultivating the oil-fields in that district.

The Kanto Earthquake On Sept. 1st, 1923, Japan underwent the sad experience of the Kanto earthquake, in which tens of thousands of houses were destroyed or damaged in Tokyo, Kanagawa, Shizuoka, Saitama and Chiba prefectures, and a hundred thousand people were killed or injured, with an estimated loss of several thousand million yen. (See Chapter I.) The great fires caused by the earthquake in Tokyo and Yokohama caused far more deaths than those which were directly attributable to the shocks. But, undaunted by the terrible disaster, the people not only of the metropolis but of all Japan stood up in a splendid spirit of determination to reconstruct all her damaged cities and towns by the help of the sympathetic nations of America and Europe. The wonderful improvement in the streets and buildings of the new cities materially exhibited the strength of Japan's national power, so that the great earthquake rather quickened than retarded the splendid advance of Japan as a whole.

Demise of the Emperor Taisho In December, 1926, the Emperor Taisho passed away at the Hayama Winter Palace and the Regent, Crown Prince Hirohito, succeeded him as Ruler, the year-name of Showa, or Enlightened Peace, being given to his era. Under his rule Japan is continuing her painstaking efforts to keep pace with the world progress and cope with complicated international relations.

The birth of Manchoukuo in 1932 and the trade and industrial expansion in recent years have greatly strengthened Japan's position in the Orient.

Chronicle of Important Events

Age of Traditions
(660 B.C.—531 A.D.)

1. Beginning of the Empire
660 B.C.—The Emperor Jimmu ascends to the Throne at the Kashiwara Palace, Unebiyama, Yamato province, near the present Nara.
2. Subjugation of Clans and Tribes.
88 B.C. Neighbouring clans subdued by the armies of the Imperial Princes.
11 A.D. The Great Shrine of Isé built by the Emperor Suinin in honour of Amaterasu-Omikami.
97-110 Clans and tribes in Kyushu and the eastern half of the Main Island subdued by the armies of the Emperor Keiko and Prince Yamato-takeru his son.
135 The Emperor Seimu divides his dominion into administrative districts.
3. Intercourse with Korea
200 The Empress Jingo conquers Silla.
285 Confucianism introduced.
313 The Emperor Nintoku establishes the capital at Naniwa (Osaka) for the convenience of intercourse with Korea.
463-512 Troubles with Korea.

Age of Foundation
(532-709)

4. Introduction of Continental civilization
552 Buddhism introduced.
562 Japanese Office in Mimana is destroyed by Silla.
593 Imperial Prince Shotoku becomes Regent, and propagates Buddhism, building Horyuji and other temples.
604 The Regent Shotoku proclaims the Constitution.
607 An Embassy is sent to Sui.
620 An Embassy is sent to Tang.
645 The Sogas punished and extirpated.
592-645 The Asuka or Empress Suiko's Period of Art history.
5. The Taika (Taikwa) Reformation and After.
645 The custom of 'year-names' is introduced, the first one being called Taika (great reformation).
646 The Taika Reformation.
650 Yezo (Hokkaido) is subjugated by the army of Hirafo Abé.

- 663 Control over the Korean Peninsula is abandoned.
701 The Taiho Law is promulgated and the organization of the Imperial Government is fixed.
646-707 The Hakuho Period of Art history.

Nara Age
(710-793)

6. Establishment of the Capital at Nara and Compilation of a History of Japan.
710 The Empress Gemmyo founds Nara as her capital.
620-720 The first books of Japanese history, Nihon Shoki (Japanese Annals) and Kojiki (Antiquities) are compiled.
7. Spread of Buddhism and Progress of Religious Fine Art.
747 Building of Todaiji temple and other provincial temples.
756 The Empress Komyo donates the treasures of the late Emperor Shomu to Todaiji temple and they are kept in the Shosoin Museum, built a little later.
769 Dictatorship of Doko, Buddhist pope, opposed by the great loyalist Kiyomaro Waké.
710-781 The Tempyo Period of Art history.

Heian Age
(794-1191)

8. Founding of Heian (Kyoto) the Capital, and troubles in the north.
794 The Emperor Kammu founds the new capital Heian and the Government removes there from Nara.
801 Revolts break out in Yezo, finally subdued by the expedition of Tamuramaro Sakanoué.
794-800 Establishment of governmental and private schools.
794-887 The Konin period of Art history.
9. Rising of the Fujiwaras.
858 Yoshifusa Fujiwara assumes the Regency.
887 Mototsuné Fujiwara the Daijo Daijin and Regent becomes Kampaku (Chief Councillor) at the same time.
901 Michisané Sugawara, candidate for Kampaku is reduced to the position of governor of Kyushu by the Fujiwara scandal.
10. Foreign Relations.
894 Official intercourse with Tang is

- broken off by the advice of Michisané Sugawara.
727-900 Bokkai, a maritime monarchy in Manchuria, trades with Japan.
11. Disorder in Rural Districts and Rise of the Samurai.
939 Masakado Taira rebels and proclaims himself Emperor.
941 Sumitomo Fujiwara disturbs the coasts of the Inland Sea but is suppressed.
950 The Samurai families of Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Heishi or Heiké) gradually rise to power.
 12. Fujiwara Despotism.
1016 Michisané Fujiwara assumes the Regency for the next 20 years and his son Yorimichi for 50 years. Climax of the Fujiwara despotism and prosperity.
 13. Incessant Wars.
1019 Toi tribe in the north-eastern part of Korea invades the islands of Iki and Tsushima.
1028 Tadatsuné Taira's treason in Shimosha province.
1039 Armies of Buddhist monks rise in revolt.
1054-1062 The Abés in the Ohu district declare independence.
1086 The ex-Emperor Shirakawa takes part in politics for nearly 40 years and sets a precedent for government by ex-Emperors.
1085-1087 The Ohu district is again disturbed by the Kiyowaras.
1087 For about a century the family of Kiyohira Fujiwara who subdued the Kiyowaras rules over the Ohu district.
1156 Strife between the armies of the Emperor and the ex-Emperor (Hogén war).
1159 The Fujiwaras and Minamotos wage war against another branch of the Fujiwaras and the Tairas (Heiji war).
 14. The Gen-pei (Minamoto and Taira) Period.
1167 Kiyomori Taira promoted to Daijo Daijin.
1167-1180 Autocracy of Kiyomori and his family.
1180 Rise of the Minamotos in rivalry to the Tairas. Yoritomo Minamoto establishes headquarters at Kamakura.
1185 The Tairas destroyed by the armies of Yoshitsuné, brother of Yoritomo.
1185 Yoritomo appoints local military police and tax-gatherers for rural districts.
889-1185 The Fujiwara Period of Art history.

Kamakura Age
(1192-1337)

15. Beginning of the Kamakura Shogunate Régime.
1192 Yoritomo Minamoto promoted to Seii-Tai-Shogun (Generalissimo) and the Shogun Government formally sanctioned. For the next 675 years Japan ruled by the 'samurai statesmen'.
1204 Tokimasa Hojo becomes chief executive of the Shogunate régime.
1219 Minamoto Shogunate ends with the third Shogun, Sanétomo. But Masako, widow of Yoritomo, (called the 'Ama' or Nun Shogun) officiates as Shogun for several years.
1221 Trouble between the Kyoto Court and the Hojos (Shokyu affair).
16. Hojo Rule.
1224 Yasutoki Hojo becomes chief executive of the Kamakura Shogunate.
The Hojos continue to exercise the Shogun's duties for over a century.
1232 The Joyei Code promulgated for the discipline of the samurai.
1274 Yuan invasion.
1281 Second Yuan invasion and defeat by the armies of Tokimuné Hojo, the chief executive.
1324 An attempt for the restoration of the Imperial Rule.
1331 War between the Imperial and the Hojo armies.
1333 The Hojos destroyed.
17. The Emperor Godaigo and Takauji Ashikaga
1333 Temporary restoration of the Imperial direct rule by the Emperor Godaigo.
1335 Takauji Ashikaga rebels against the Emperor.
1336 Masashigé Kusunoki, famous loyalist, dies in the battle of Minatogawa (Kobé).
1336 The Emperor Godaigo moves to Yoshino mountain.
1336 The Imperial House is divided into two, the South and the North (Yoshino and Kyoto) for 57 years.
1192-1337 The Kamakura period of Art history.
- Muromachi Age
(1338-1602)
18. Beginning of the Muromachi Shogunate and the luxurious age of Yoshimitsu.
1338 Takauji Ashikaga proclaims him-

Chronicle of Important Events

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2. Subjugation of Clans and Tribes.
88 B.C. Neighbouring clans subdued by the armies of the Imperial Princes.
11 A.D. The Great Shrine of Isé built by the Emperor Suinin in honour of Amaterasu-Omikami.
97-110 Clans and tribes in Kyushu and the eastern half of the Main Island subdued by the armies of the Emperor Keiko and Prince Yamato-takeru his son.
185 The Emperor Seimu divides his dominion into administrative districts.
3. Intercourse with Korea
200 The Empress Jingo conquers Silla.
285 Confucianism introduced.
313 The Emperor Nintoku establishes the capital at Naniwa (Osaka) for the convenience of intercourse with Korea.
453-512 Troubles with Korea.

Age of Foundation
(532-709)

4. Introduction of Continental civilization
552 Buddhism introduced.
562 Japanese Office in Mimana is destroyed by Silla.
593 Imperial Prince Shotoku becomes Regent, and propagates Buddhism, building Horyuji and other temples.
604 The Regent Shotoku proclaims the Constitution.
607 An Embassy is sent to Sui.
630 An Embassy is sent to Tang.
645 The Sogas punished and extirpated.
592-645 The Asuka or Empress Suiko's Period of Art history.
5. The Taika (Taikwa) Reformation and After.
645 The custom of 'year-names' is introduced, the first one being called Taika (great reformation).
646 The Taika Reformation.
650 Yezo (Hokkaido) is subjugated by the army of Hirafo Abé.

- 663 Control over the Korean Peninsula is abandoned.
701 The Taiho Law is promulgated and the organization of the Imperial Government is fixed.
646-707 The Hakuho Period of Art history.

Nara Age
(710-793)

6. Establishment of the Capital at Nara and Compilation of a History of Japan.
710 The Empress Gemmyo founds Nara as her capital.
620-720 The first books of Japanese history, Nihon Shoki (Japanese Annals and Kojiki (Antiquities) are compiled.
7. Spread of Buddhism and Progress of Religious Fine Art.
747 Building of Todaiji temple and other provincial temples.
756 The Empress Komyo donates the treasures of the late Emperor Shomu to Todaiji temple and they are kept in the Shosoin Museum, built a little later.
769 Dictatorship of Doko, Buddhist pope, opposed by the great loyalist Kiyomaro Waké.
710-781 The Tempyo Period of Art history.

Heian Age
(794-1191)

8. Founding of Heian (Kyoto) the Capital, and troubles in the north.
794 The Emperor Kammu founds the new capital Heian and the Government removes there from Nara.
801 Revolts break out in Yezo, finally subdued by the expedition of Tamuramaro Sakanoué.
794-800 Establishment of governmental and private schools.
794-887 The Konin period of Art history.
9. Rising of the Fujiwaras.
858 Yoshifusa Fujiwara assumes the Regency.
887 Mototsuné Fujiwara the Daijo Daijin and Regent becomes Kampaku (Chief Councillor) at the same time.
901 Michizané Sugawara, candidate for Kampaku is reduced to the position of governor of Kyushu by the Fujiwara scandal.
10. Foreign Relations.
894 Official intercourse with Tang is

broken off by the advice of Michizané Sugawara.

- 727-900 Bokkai, a maritime monarchy in Manchuria, trades with Japan.
11. Disorder in Rural Districts and Rise of the Samurai.
939 Masakado Taira rebels and proclaims himself Emperor.
941 Sumitomo Fujiwara disturbs the coasts of the Inland Sea but is suppressed.
950 The Samurai families of Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Heishi or Heiké) gradually rise to power.
 12. Fujiwara Despotism.
1016 Michizané Fujiwara assumes the Regency for the next 20 years and his son Yorimichi for 50 years. Climax of the Fujiwara despotism and prosperity.
 13. Incessant Wars.
1019 Tol tribe in the north-eastern part of Korea invades the islands of Iki and Tsushima.
1028 Tadatsuné Taira's treason in Shimoosa province.
1080 Armies of Buddhist monks rise in revolt.
1054-1062 The Abés in the Ohu district declare independence.
1086 The ex-Emperor Shirakawa takes part in politics for nearly 40 years and sets a precedent for government by ex-Emperors.
1085-1087 The Ohu district is again disturbed by the Kiyowaras.
1087 For about a century the family of Kiyohira Fujiwara who subdued the Kiyowaras rules over the Ohu district.
1156 Strife between the armies of the Emperor and the ex-Emperor (Hogen war).
1159 The Fujiwaras and Minamotos wage war against another branch of the Fujiwaras and the Tairas (Heiji war).
 14. The Genpei (Minamoto and Taira) Period.
1167 Kiyomori Taira promoted to Daijo Daijin.
1167-1180 Autocracy of Kiyomori and his family.
1180 Rise of the Minamotos in rivalry to the Tairas. Yoritomo Minamoto establishes headquarters at Kamakura.
1185 The Tairas destroyed by the armies of Yoshitsuné, brother of Yoritomo.
1185 Yoritomo appoints local military police and tax-gatherers for rural districts.
880-1185 The Fujiwara Period of Art history.

Kamakura Age
(1192-1337)

15. Beginning of the Kamakura Shogunate Régime.
1192 Yoritomo Minamoto promoted to Seii-Tai-Shogun (Generalissimo) and the Shogun Government formally sanctioned. For the next 675 years Japan ruled by the 'samurai statesmen'.
1204 Tokimasa Hojo becomes chief executive of the Shogunate régime.
1219 Minamoto Shogunate ends with the third Shogun, Sanétomo. But Masako, widow of Yoritomo, (called the 'Ama' or Nun Shogun) officiates as Shogun for several years. Trouble between the Kyoto Court and the Hojos (Shokyu affair).
1221
16. Hojo Rule.
1224 Yasutoki Hojo becomes chief executive of the Kamakura Shogunate.
The Hojos continue to exercise the Shogun's duties for over a century.
1232 The Joyei Code promulgated for the discipline of the samurai.
1274 Yuan invasion.
1281 Second Yuan invasion and defeat by the armies of Tokimuné Hojo, the chief executive.
1324 An attempt for the restoration of the Imperial Rule.
1331 War between the Imperial and the Hojo armies.
1333 The Hojos destroyed.
17. The Emperor Godaigo and Takauji Ashikaga
1333 Temporary restoration of the Imperial direct rule by the Emperor Godaigo.
1335 Takauji Ashikaga rebels against the Emperor.
1336 Masashigé Kusunoki, famous loyalist, dies in the battle of Minatogawa (Kobé).
1336 The Emperor Godaigo moves to Yoshino mountain.
1336 The Imperial House is divided into two, the South and the North (Yoshino and Kyoto) for 57 years.
1192-1337 The Kamakura period of Art history.

Muromachi Age
(1338-1602)

18. Beginning of the Muromachi Shogunate and the luxurious age of Yoshimitsu.
1333 Takauji Ashikaga proclaims him-

- self Shogun and establishes the Muromachi Shogunate in Kyoto.
- 1342 Takauji sends the Tenryuji-buné (trade boats) to China.
- 1368 Yoshimitsu Ashikaga is publicly appointed Shogun and the Muromachi Shogunate officially sanctioned.
- 1399 The Ōei Rebellion.
- 1401 Yoshimitsu trades with Ming: indulges in luxurious living.
19. Corruption of the Muromachi Shogunate and Political Commotion
- 1438 The Yeikyo Rebellion. Rising of military lords in Kanto district.
- 1441 The Kaki Rebellion.
- 1407-1475 The Ōnin war: Kyoto is reduced to ashes in the street fighting. The Court and the Shogunate both lose power and the whole country becomes a scene of warfare among the military lords.
20. A century of civil wars among the feudal lords.
- 1491 Soun Hojo captures Odawara Castle and rules over the Kanto district.
- 1476-1573 Feudal lords struggle for supremacy, the greater lords being as follows: Kanto district; Hojo, Uesugi. Ōhu district; Daté, Ashina, Mogami, Tamba, Akita. Central district; Uesugi, Takeda, Imagawa. Kinki (Kyoto-Osaka) district; Saito; Asai, Asakura, Oda, Matsudaira. Chugoku (Western Main Island) district; Ukida, Amako, Ōhuchi, Mōri. Shikoku Island; Miyoshi, Kōno, Chōsokabé. Kyushu Island; Ōtomo, Ryuzoji, Shimazu.
- 1513 Coming of the Portuguese.
- 1543 Introduction of fire-arms.
- 1549 Christianity introduced.
- 1337-1573 The Muromachi Period of Art history.
21. The Oda and Toyotomi Period.
- 1568 Nobunaga Oda comes up to Kyoto by Imperial order and repairs the Palace.
- 1571 Nobunaga destroys Enryakuji temple to suppress the power of the monks.
- 1573 Downfall of the Muromachi Shogunate.
- 1576 Building of the Azuchi castle.
- 1582 Nobunaga assassinated.
- 1582 Hideyoshi Toyotomi's supremacy.
- 1588 Hideyoshi is promoted to be Kampaku and Daijo Daijin.
- 1590 Unity of the Empire is realized by Hideyoshi, all the lords being completely subdued.
- 1592 Invasion of Korea by armies of Toyotomi.
- 1597 Second invasion of Korea.
- 1598 Hideyoshi Toyotomi dies at Fushimi castle (Momoyama Palace).
- 1574-1598 The Momoyama period of Art history.

Yédo Age (1602-1867)

22. Beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate.
- 1600 Battle of Sekigahara, assuring the supremacy of Iyeyasu Tokugawa (1542-1616)
- 1603 Iyeyasu is appointed Shogun and founds the Yédo Shogunate.
- 1609 Begins trade with Hollanders.
- 1609 The Loochoo Islands subjugated by Lord Shimazu.
- 1610 Sending of official letters to Nova-Hispania and Spain.
- 1612 Iyeyasu prohibits the preaching of the Catholic Faith.
- 1613 The lord Masamuné Daté sends Hasekura to Rome.
- 1613 Opens trade with the English.
- 1615 The Toyotomis are destroyed at the Battle of Osaka.
23. Stabilization of the Yédo Shogunate.
- 1615 Proclamation of the Kugé Hatto (Court Nobles Law) and the Buké Hatto (Samurai Law).
- 1616 Death of Iyeyasu.
- 1623 Iyemitsu (1604-1651) becomes the third Tokugawa Shogun. Under his enlightened rule the position of the Yédo Shogunate becomes unshakable.
- 1630 Introduction of Western literature prohibited.
- 1636 Japanese forbidden to go abroad.
- 1637-1638 The Shimabara Rebellion.
- 1651 Death of Iyemitsu and attempted rebellion by Yuino Shosetsu and his colleagues.
24. The Golden Age of the Yédo Shogunate.
- 1657 Mitsukuni Tokugawa, lord of Mito begins the compilation of the Dai Nippon Shi (Great Nippon History).
- 1687 The Shogun Tsunayoshi's Edicts for the protection of animals cause much loss of human life.
- 1688-1703 The Genroku Era of luxurious living.
- 1702 Revenge of the '47 Akao Ronin'
- 1709 Hakuseki (Kunmi) Arai's Reformation.
- 1716 The 8th Shogun Yoshimuné regulates officialdom and improves the administration, reigning for 30 years.

- 1720 Yoshimuné loosens the Prohibition Law against Western books.
- 1750 Punishment of Takenouchi Shikibu, a loyalist.
- 1764 Norinaga Motoori commences his commentary on the Kojiki (Antiquities).
- 1772-1784 Misrule of the Roju Okitsugu Tanuma.
- Succession of natural calamities.
- 1787 Adjustment of the administration by the Roju Sadanobu Matsudaira (Rakuo).
25. Waning of the Shogun Régime.
- 1792 Punishment of Shihei Rin (Hayashi) who warned the Government of possible invasion by foreign Powers.
- 1792 Coming of Laxsman to Hokkaido.
- 1804 Coming of Lesanov to Nagasaki.
- 1808 Coming of an English boat to Nagasaki.
- 1825 Shogunate order to shut out all foreign ships by force.
- 1830 Great famine of the Tempo Era.
- 1837 Rebellion of Heihachiro Ōshio to relieve the starving masses.
- 1837 Coming of the American ship Morrison.
- 1841 The Roju Tadakuni Mizuno's attempt at reformation.
- 1842 The 1825 order is removed. A step towards the 'open door' policy.
- 1842 Controversies between the anti-foreign party and the liberalists become hotter.
- 1844 King of Holland gives advice to the Shogunate.
- 1846 First request of America for the 'open door.'
- 1853 Arrival of the American fleet under Commodore Perry.
- 1853 Coming of the Russian delegate Poutiatine to Nagasaki.
- 1854 Institution of the Sun Flag to symbolize Japan. (Sanctioned by the Meiji Government in 1870.)
- 1854 Conclusion of Amity Treaties with America, England and Russia.
- 1855 Conclusion of Amity Treaty with Holland.
- 1856 Arrival of the American envoy Townsend Harris.
- 1858 Conclusion of Commercial Treaties with Foreign nations by the Shogunate.
- 1858 The Ansei Coup d'état by the Tairō Naosuké Ii.
- 1860 The Japanese envoy Maszoki Niimi sent to America.
- 1860 The Tairō Ii assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun Palace.
26. Downfall of the Yédo Shogunate.
- 1862 Rise of the Anti-Shogunate movement.
- 1862 The Namamugi Affair.
- 1863 The Anti-Foreign Law, and attack on foreign ships at Shimonoseki and Kagoshima.
- 1863 Defeat of the Anti-Foreign party; the seven Court nobles flee to Nagato.
- 1864 The Anti-Foreign party demands the release of the seven Court nobles by force; battle at the Hamaguri gate of the Kyoto Imperial Palace.
- 1864 A combined fleet of America, England, France and the Netherlands bombards Shimonoseki.
- 1865 Imperial Sanction given to the treaties of 1858.
- 1865-1867 Hostilities between the Shogunate forces and the army of the Choshu (Nagato) Lord who represented the Anti-Shogunate and Anti-Foreign Party.
- 1866 Demise of the Emperor Kōmei.
- 1867 Ascension of the Meiji Tenno (1867-1912), the 122nd Emperor.
- 1867 The Emperor orders armies opposed to the Nagato Lord to withdraw.
- 1867 Rapid progress of Anti-Shogunate movement and a definite scheme promoted by Sanjo, Iwakura, Saigo, Okubo, and Kido.
- 1867 The Emperor gives orders to the lords of Nagato and Satsuma to move their armies against the Yédo Shogunate in compliance with the request of Sanjo, Iwakura and their colleagues, October 14.
- 1867 On the same day (October 14) the Shogun Yoshinobu Tokugawa asks Imperial sanction for the return of all authority of the Government to the Throne. On October 24 the Emperor complies with his request and accepts Yoshinobu's resignation.
- 1867 Proclamation of the Restoration, December 9.
- 1868 The rise of the lords and warriors loyal to the Shogunate. Battle of Tobu-Fushimi. March of the Imperial armies to Yédo. Surrender of the Yédo Castle without bloodshed. Battles at Uéno, Utsunomiya and Aizu.
- 1869 Battle at Hakodaté, May, after which all disturbances in the wake of the political change are completely subdued.
- 1602-1867 The Yédo period of Art history.

The New Japan (1868-)

27. The Meiji Era.

- 1868 Coronation of the Emperor Meiji.
1868 The First year of Meiji, beginning with September.
Proclamation of the Five Imperial Pledges.
Establishment of the Dajokan.
1869 Removal of the Capital to Tokyo.
Surrender of fiefs by the lords.
New organization of the Government.
Telegraphic communications opened.
1870 Ministers sent to foreign countries.
Social castes done away with.
1871 Japan is divided into 1 "Do," 3 urban prefectures and 72 prefectures for administrative purposes. (The number being reduced in 1889 to the present 1 Do, 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures.)
The people are allowed to cut off their cues and the samurai forbidden to wear swords.
1872 Institution of the national school system.
The Loochoo Islands definitely included within Japanese territory.
Opening of railway line between Tokyo and Yokohama.
1873 Adoption of the solar calendar.
Institution of the Conscription system of military service.
Controversy over Korean affairs.
1874 Expedition to Formosa.
Request for opening the House of Representatives.
The Saga Affair.
1875 Karafuto exchanged for the Kuriles.
First Convention of the local governors.
1876 Kumamoto incident, a reactionary movement by the Jimpu-ren band of Kumamoto Samurai. Similar events occur at Akitsuki and Hagi.
1877 The South-Western Civil War, the rebellion of Takamori Saigo and his colleagues.
1879-1890 Rapid influx of things and ideas from Europe, called Rokumei-kan period.
1879 First opening of local assemblies.
1880 Promulgation of new penal code.
1881 Imperial Edict promising the opening of the national assembly.
1882 Hirobumi Ito sent to Europe for

- the study of Western constitutional governments.
1884 Drafting of the constitution started.
1885 Institution of the cabinet.
The Tientsin Treaty.
1886 Japan becomes a member of the international Red Cross Association.
1888 Institution of city, town and village divisions.
1889 Proclamation of the Dai Nippon Teikoku Kempo (The Constitution of the Great Empire of Japan), Feb. 11.
1890 The First Imperial Diet is convened in November.
Issuance of the Imperial Rescript on Education.
Institution of the system of courts of justice and promulgation of court procedures.
1894 New Anglo-Japanese Treaty.
1894-1895 Sino-Japanese War.
1895 Shimonoseki Peace Treaty, April.
The Three Powers' Intervention and return of the Liaotung Peninsula to China.
Formosa ceded to Japan.
1898 Promulgation of the Civil Law.
1899 Promulgation of the Commercial Law.
Boxer Uprising in China.
1902 Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
1904-1905 Russo-Japanese War.
1905 Capture of Port Arthur, January 1.
Battle of Mukden, March 10.
Battle of the Japan Sea, May 27.
Portsmouth Peace Treaty, September.
Korea becomes Japan's protectorate, November.
1906 Establishment of the Kwantung Government-General.
1907 Opening of the Karafuto Office.
Promulgation of the Revised Penal Code.
1910 Annexation of Korea, August.
1911 Revision of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
Revision of Treaties with Western countries on equal footing.
1912 Demise of the Emperor Meiji, July 30.
28. The Taisho Era.
1912 Ascension of the Emperor Taisho, July 30.
1914-1918 The World War.
1914 Capture of Tsingtao, November.
1915 New Treaty with China. So-called '21 Demands'.
1917 Gold embargo.

- 1918 End of the World War, November
1919 Conclusion of the Versailles Treaty.
The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan.
Japan becomes a member of the League of Nations.
1921 Crown Prince's tour to Europe.
Crown prince becomes Regent.
1921-1922 The Washington Conference.
Termination of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
1923 Great Earthquake of Kanto district, September 1.
1925 Conclusion of Treaty with the U. S. S. R.
Promulgation of the new Election Law (Universal Suffrage).
1926 Demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25.
29. The Showa Era.
1926 Ascension of the present Emperor, December 25.
1927 Financial Panic.
1930 Removal of gold embargo.
The London Disarmament Conference.
1931 Outbreak of the 'Manchurian Incident,' September 18.
Replacement of gold embargo.
1932 The Shanghai Affair.
Independence of Manchoukuo, March 1.
The 'May 15 Affair' (assassination of Premier Inukai).
1933 Withdrawal from the League of Nations, March.
The World Economic Conference at London.
1934 Manchoukuo becomes an Empire with Kangtê (Mr. Pu Yi) as first Emperor, March 1.

CHAPTER IV

GOVERNMENT

The Constitution

The fundamental source of all laws and ordinances, and of the administrative system is the Constitution of the Japanese Empire. This document, however, contains simply an outline of the principles involved, and there are many constitutional laws, written and unwritten, which condition the functioning of state organs. There are four fundamental sources of the laws of Japan; (1) the Constitution, (2) the Imperial House Law, (3) certain laws containing constitutional provisions, and (4) the unwritten constitution.

The Constitution of the Japanese Empire was promulgated on Feb. 11, 1889, and is composed of 7 chapters and 76 articles (given in full in Appendix). It was accompanied by an Imperial Declaration, the essence of which has the same legal force as the articles of the Constitution. In the declaration, the Emperor Meiji made four points clear: that the purpose of the establishment of the Constitution is to promote the welfare of his subjects and sustain the progress of the nation; secondly, that the monarchy of Japan is unchanged in form and identical with what it has always been, in the principles of the harmonious rule of sovereign and subjects and of constitutional and responsible government; thirdly, the proper means for revision of the Constitution, and that it limits not only the lawful actions of the subjects, but also the powers of the sovereign; and fourthly, the date of its coming into effect, that of the

opening of the first session of the Imperial Diet on November 25, 1890.

The Highest Expression of State Will The Constitution was given by order of the Emperor and is the highest expression of the will of the State. All laws must conform to it, while the functions of the highest political organs of the nation are stated in it. But there is no means specified for prevention or correction of a breach of the Constitution by those organs, whether they be constitutionally established or not, except in so far as the interpretative power of the Privy Council, (see section on Privy Council), can be said to constitute such a check. Otherwise, this can only be provided for by the reciprocal restraint exercised by the Executive and the Legislative, the power of public opinion, or other means which are not specified by law. It must be remembered that not all the parts of the Constitution are new creations. Most of them are rather the expression of old laws in a new written form; many of the important political customs had already been incorporated in legal enactments before the Constitution came into being.

The Constitution does not include the whole of constitutional laws. It is one of the simplest constitutions in the world. For instance, such laws as the Imperial House Law or the laws concerning the composition of the Imperial Diet are not included in the Constitution, the reason being that, whereas the revision of these laws in accordance with changes in public thought may be necessary, it is undesirable that the

Constitution itself should be revised easily and often. Revision of the Constitution must be initiated by the Tenno (Emperor), and the Imperial Diet has the power of deciding only on such revisions as are indicated by the Throne. No revisions have been made or constitutionally suggested since its establishment.

Other Constitutional Provisions The Imperial Household Law (See Appendix) mainly regulates matters concerning the Imperial household and family, but there are many constitutional provisions contained in it. Of special importance are the articles concerning the succession of the Throne and Regency, which determine the form of the highest organ of the State and are therefore clearly of equal importance to the Constitution itself.

Other legal enactments containing constitutional provisions are the following: The Law of the Houses, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the House of Peers, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the Election of Members of the House of Peers, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the Cabinet, the Penal Law concerning the infringement of Ordinances, the Judicial Court Formation Law, the Court of Administrative Litigation Law, and the Board of Audit Law, which were enacted simultaneously with the Constitution; the Imperial Ordinances concerning the Privy Council and the Military Establishments, which were enacted before the promulgation of the Constitution; the Electoral Law and the common law for the formation of departments of the central government, which were promulgated after the Constitution. In addition there are many examples of post-Constitution laws with minor constitutional provisions.

Unwritten Provisions The Constitution of Japan is a written one

in principle, but it does not exclude all unwritten provisions. There are still some spheres of government action which are not regulated by any document. Moreover, there are many cases in which the written laws have to be interpreted by unwritten laws or by national political custom or reason. For instance, the relation of the Japanese nation to the Shinto Shrines, the relation of State and religion, the site of the capital, the nature of the National Flag, the Calendar, and the customary procedure of the Imperial Diet are not defined in written laws, but are nevertheless constitutional observances. Other political customary observances of importance are that the Cabinet is formed, as a rule, by the members of the majority party in the House of Representatives, and that the Genro, Elder Statesmen, (at present only one, Prince Saionji) are consulted by the Emperor on the choice of a new Prime Minister.

The Form of Government

The form of the Japanese Government is that of a constitutional monarchy. The Empire is ruled by the Emperor (Tenno) according to the first article of the Constitution, "the Empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal." The representatives of the people in the Imperial Diet participate in the rule of the State, but have no sovereign power. Sovereignty belongs entirely to the Emperor and all power is exercised in his name only. The Japanese Reigning House is the oldest dynasty in the world and, in stability and historical continuity, the Japanese monarchy is unique in history. The actual power of the Emperor at the present time is much greater than that of other constitutional monarchs.

The actions of all governmental organs are regulated by the Constitution and the collateral laws and usages above mentioned, and all the organs are co-ordinated by the central government. The supreme power is concentrated in the State, and the exercise of sovereignty is all in the hands of the central government which gives orders to all other administrative organs.

The People

All Japanese subjects are registered with the census authorities according to the Law of Nationality, and are recognized as the constituency of the state and protected by the state laws. They are required to submit completely to the control and orders of the state. By the terms of the Constitution they may, subject to qualifications determined by law or ordinance, be appointed to civil or military offices equally and may fill any other public positions. They are liable to service in the army and navy and to the duty of paying taxes according to the provisions of law. The duties they owe to the State are numerous, but these two are specially mentioned in the Constitution.

Japanese subjects are guaranteed liberty of abode and of changing the same. Within the limits of law, they shall not be arrested, detained, tried, or punished unless according to law, shall not be deprived of their right of being tried by the judges determined by law, except in cases provided for by the law, their houses shall not be entered or searched without their consent, the secrecy of their letters shall remain inviolate, and their right of property shall remain inviolate. They enjoy freedom of religious belief, speech, writing, publication, public meeting and association; and they may

present petitions to the authorities in the forms provided by law.

The feudal social castes were abolished at the Meiji Restoration, and the class names of Kazoku (Peers), Shizoku (Samurai class), and Heimin (Common people) were given according to family standing and lineage. The two last are purely social and represent no political distinction. Peerage carries with it the privilege of membership of the Upper House of the Legislature (Kizokuin, House of Peers), subject to certain conditions. In 1884 the peerage was divided into the following five ranks: Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount, and Baron. The class name of "Common people" has fallen into complete disuse, while that of "Samurai class" is being rapidly forgotten.

Tenno, The Emperor

The Japanese Throne is hereditary. The custom was established with the foundation of the State 2,593 years ago, and had been a constitutional unwritten law till it was clearly stated in the Imperial House Law by order of the Emperor Meiji. According to this law, the Japanese Throne "shall be succeeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors" (Art. 1). In the history of Japan there were some Empresses in their own right, but their cases were always regarded as exceptional. The succession to the Throne as defined by the Imperial House Law is as follows:

- (1) Imperial eldest son. (Kotaisi)
- (2) Imperial eldest grandson. (Kotaison)
- (3) Other male descendants of eldest son.
- (4) Imperial son next in age.
- (5) Male descendants of same in the same order as above.

(6) Other Imperial sons in order of age.

(7) Male descendants of same in the same order as above.

(8) Imperial brothers in order of age and their male descendants in the same order as shown in the above.

(9) Imperial uncles and their male descendants in the same order as above.

(10) Next nearest relative of the Emperor.

In all cases precedence is given to descendants of full blood over those of half blood.

The Three Sacred Treasures The Imperial heir ascends the Throne and is invested with the three Sacred Treasures, the Mirror, the Jewel, and the Sword, of the Imperial Ancestors upon the demise of the Emperor, and in no other circumstances. In ancient days, the Throne was succeeded to only for this natural reason, but the good custom was broken in the middle ages. The Imperial House Law aims at the re-establishment of the oldest custom and absolutely prohibits the abdication of the Throne in the Emperor's life time. The Imperial heir ascends to the Throne immediately upon the demise of the Emperor, although the ceremonial ascension comes later. For instance, the present Emperor came to the Throne in a room of the Hayama Winter Palace, where his father died, immediately after the demise was announced by the doctor on December 25, 1926, while the formal ceremony of ascension was held about two years later in accordance with Art. 11 of the Imperial House Law which states that the ceremonies of Enthronement shall be performed and a Grand Enthronement Banquet (Daijo-sai) in honour of the Ancestral Gods held at Kyoto. Upon the ascension, a new era is inaugurated and the name of the

era remains unchanged during the whole reign of the Emperor.

The Regency As abdication of the Throne is impossible, Art. 19 of the Law provides for a regency to be instituted, when the Emperor is a minor (the Tenno, Kotaisi and Kotaison attain majority at 18 years of age) or when he is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing. In the second case the advice of the Imperial Family Council and of the Privy Council is required. The Regency shall be assumed by major members of the Imperial Family in the following order:

Family Status	Majority Age
(1) The Imperial Eldest son	18
(2) Imperial Eldest Grandson	"
(3) Imperial Prince	20
(4) Prince	"
(5) The Empress	"
(6) The Empress Dowager	"
(7) The Grand Empress Dowager	"
(8) Imperial Princess or Princess	"

Imperial Prerogative

According to the provisions of the Constitution, the Japanese Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in himself all the rights of sovereignty. According to the provisions of the Imperial House Law, he is the head of the Imperial Family, and he carries out his function as such by the advice of the Minister of the Imperial Household without reference to the Diet. By hereditary custom he assumes the position of the Highest Priest of the national cult of Shinto and conducts august ceremonies in honour of the gods of heaven and earth and of the ancestral gods directly and in person. He is in supreme

command of the Imperial Army and Navy and exercises this power with the help of special organs established to that end and independently of the advice of State ministers. Lastly, he has power to confer all titles of nobility, rank, orders and other marks of honour.

The Emperor uses these sovereign powers with the assistance of various organs. In exercising legislative power he gets the consent of the Imperial Diet as a rule, although Imperial ordinances are often issued independent of the Diet, (under Article 9 of the Constitution), and for the colonies the exercise of ordinance power is unlimited by the Constitution. In the administration of State affairs he is advised by the Ministers of State, and in certain special cases by the Genro, the Keeper of the Privy Seal, and the Privy Council. In Military administration he is advised by the chiefs of the Naval and Military General Staffs, while in the exercise of judicial power, he is represented by the Courts of Law.

"The Emperor is sacred and inviolable" (Constitution, Art. 3). He cannot be removed from the Throne for any reason; and he is not to be held responsible for overstepping the limitations of law in the exercise of his sovereignty. All responsibility for the exercise of his sovereignty must be assumed by the Ministers of State and other organs. Thus, no criticism can be directed against the Emperor, but only against the instruments of his sovereignty. Laws are not to be applied to the Emperor as a principle, especially criminal laws, for no court of law can try the Emperor himself and he is not subject to any law.

The Cabinet

The Ministry is composed of 13

State ministers headed by the Prime Minister. The twelve ministers are (1) the Minister of Foreign Affairs, (2) the Minister of Home Affairs, (3) the Minister of Finance, (4) the Minister of War, (5) the Minister of Marine, (6) the Minister of Justice, (7) the Minister of Education, (8) the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, (9) the Minister of Commerce and Industry, (10) the Minister of Communications, (11) the Minister of Railways, and (12) the Minister of Overseas Affairs.

Though all the ministers are separately responsible to the Emperor for all the administrative work under their respective jurisdiction, they are united by the Prime Minister (Naikaku Sori Daijin), one of whose functions is to preserve unity among the State ministers. Through this specific function of the Premier (which, though not mentioned in the Constitution, is prescribed in the Cabinet Organization Ordinance), and the rapid growth of party government, his controlling power over the other state ministers has, of late, been greatly augmented, and as all matters of national importance are decided upon in cabinet meetings, State ministers are now, as a matter of fact, held jointly responsible to the Emperor.

Thus, each departmental minister has a twofold function, first as a state minister and secondly as a departmental executive head. As a State minister he is an adviser to the Emperor in the exercise of his sovereign power over national administration, and for the advice given assumes a joint responsibility with his colleagues. As a departmental head his function is to direct, control and supervise all the administrative affairs within his departmental jurisdiction, for which his responsibility is individual.

The Present Cabinet Prime Minis-

ter, Admiral Keisuké Okada; born 1868; second Sub-lieutenant 1890; vice-commander of the warship Asahi, 1904; Commander of the 2nd fleet torpedo boats, 1914; Director of the Personnel Bureau, Navy Office and soon promoted to the post of Director of the Fleet Administration Department; Vice-Admiral, 1917; Vice-Minister of Marine, 1923; Admiral, and Commander of the 1st and combined Fleets, 1924; Commander of the Yokosuka Admiralty, 1926; Minister of Marine, 1927; member of the Supreme Military Council, 1929; again Minister of Marine, 1932.

Minister of Foreign Affairs, Koki Hirota; born February, 1878; entered the Foreign Office service, 1906; minister to Holland, 1926; ambassador to the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, 1930-32.

Minister of Home Affairs, Fumio Goto; born 1884; Chief of the Police Bureau, Home Department, 1922; Secretary-General, Taiwan, 1924-1928; became member of the House of Peers by Imperial appointment, 1930; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1932.

Minister of Finance, Korekiyo Takahashi; born 1865; President of the Yokohama Specie Bank, 1906; Governor of the Bank of Japan, 1911; Minister of Finance, 1913; Minister of Finance, 1918; Premier, 1921; Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, 1924; Minister of Finance, 1928; Minister of Finance, 1931; Minister of Finance, 1932-1934.

Minister of War, Senjuro Hayashi; born 1876; Second Lieutenant, 1897; Major-General, 1921; Army representative to the League of Nations, 1923; commander of the 2nd infantry brigade, 1925; Lieutenant-General, 1926; Commander of the Tokyo Bay Fortress, 1926; President of the Staff College, 1927; Director

of the General Affairs Bureau of the Department of Military Training, 1928; Commander of the Imperial Guard Division, 1929; Commander of the Chosen (Korean) Army, 1930; Head of the Department of Military Education, 1932-1934.

Minister of Marine, Mineo Osumi; born in 1878; Second Sub-lieutenant, 1898; Rear-Admiral, 1920; Commander of the Third Fleet, 1923; Vice-Admiral, 1924; Vice-Minister of Marine, 1925; Commander of the Second Fleet, 1928; Commander-in-Chief of the Yokosuka Naval Station, 1929; Admiral, 1931; High Naval Councillor, 1931.

Minister of Justice, Naoshi Ohara; born January, 1877, a judge of the Tokyo Local Court, 1904; successively public procurator of the Chiba Local Court, Counsellor to the Justice Ministry, chief public procurator of the Yokohama Local Court, Tokyo Local Court and Nagasaki Court of Appeal, and public procurator of the Supreme Court; Vice-minister of Justice, 1927; President of the Tokyo Court of Appeal, 1931.

Minister of Education, Genji Matsuda; born 1875; started his career as a lawyer; has been elected 8 times member of the House of Representatives since 1908; once vice-president of the House of Representatives; a counsellor to the Home Ministry, 1918; Minister of Overseas Affairs, 1929.

Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Tatsunosuké Yamazaki; born June, 1880; an official of the Taiwan Government-General, 1906; successively chief of the Budget Section of the Education Ministry, chief of the Bureau of Technical Education, and chief of the Bureau of Common Education; Parliamentary vice-minister, 1927; has been elected 4 times member of House of Representatives since 1924.

Minister of Commerce and Industry, Chuji Machida; born 1863; began his career as a banker and was in the Bank of Japan and later a director of the Yamaguchi Bank, Osaka; a counsellor to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, 1915; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1925; again Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1929; once president of the "Hochi"; has been elected 7 times member of House of Representatives since 1912.

Minister of Communications, Takejiro Tokonami; born December, 1866; successively chief of the Local Bureau, Home Ministry, Governor of Karafuto, Vice-minister of Home Affairs, and President of the Railway Office; Minister of Home Affairs, 1918; organized and became president of the political party Seiyuhontō, 1924; Minister of Railways, 1931; has been elected 8 times member of House of Representatives since 1914.

Minister of Railways, Sinya Uchida; born 1880; once a successful shipping business man; Parliamentary vice-minister of Marine, 1927; Parliamentary vice-minister of Communications, 1931; has been elected 4 times member of House of Representatives since 1924.

Minister of Overseas Affairs, Count Hidepō Kodama, born 1876; graduated Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1900; Head of the General Bureau, Chosen Government-General, 1912. Chief-secretary of the Cabinet, 1916; President of the Merit Bureau, 1918-21; Governor-General of Kwantung, 1924-27; Vice Governor-General of Chosen, 1929-1931; has been member of House of Peers since 1918.

The Prime Minister

The Prime Minister presents reports on administrative matters of importance to the Emperor as the

head of the Cabinet. When necessary he can order the suspension of an administrative operation or of the application of an administrative order (Meirei) by any executive organ, pending the final decision of the Emperor. The Premier issues Cabinet Orders (Kakurei) in virtue of this official function or by special commission. He is empowered within his functional jurisdiction to direct the Metropolitan Chief of Police and the Prefectural Governors. Matters that should be presented to the Cabinet Council are prescribed as follows:

- (1) All legislative and budget bills.
- (2) Treaties and other international matters of importance.
- (3) Ordinances to be issued.
- (4) Disputes among the various Departments regarding jurisdiction.
- (5) Petitions from the people received from the Emperor or from the Diet.
- (6) Outlays not prescribed in the budget.
- (7) Appointments and removals of officials of "chokunin" rank and also of prefectural governors.

PREMIERS SINCE 1885

Date of formation of Cabinet	Premier
Dec. 22, 1885	H. Ito
April 30, 1888	K. Kuroda
Dec. 24, 1889	A. Yamagata
May 6, 1891	M. Matsukata
Aug. 8, 1892	H. Ito
Sept. 18, 1896	M. Matsukata
Jan. 12, 1908	H. Ito
June 30, 1898	S. Okuma
Nov. 8, 1898	A. Yamagata
Oct. 9, 1900	H. Ito
June 2, 1901	T. Katsura
Jan. 7, 1906	K. Saionji
July 14, 1908	T. Katsura
Aug. 30, 1911	K. Saionji
Dec. 21, 1912	T. Katsura
Feb. 20, 1913	G. Yamamoto
April 16, 1914	S. Okuma
Oct. 9, 1915	M. Terauchi

Date of formation of Cabinet	Premier
May 29, 1918	T. Hara
Nov. 15, 1921	K. Takahaashi
June 12, 1922	T. Kato
Sept. 2, 1923	G. Yamamoto
Jan. 7, 1924	K. Kiyoura
June 11, 1924	T. Kato
Aug. 2, 1925	"
Jan. 30, 1926	B. Wakatsuki
April 20, 1927	G. Tanaka
July 2, 1929	O. Hamaguchi
April 14, 1931	R. Wakatsuki
Dec. 18, 1931	T. Inukai
May 26, 1932	M. Saito
July 8, 1934	K. Okada

Cabinet Bureaux

Important offices of the Cabinet are the Secretariat, Pension Bureau, Statistics Bureau, and Printing Bureau. There are three other bureaux which are affiliated to the Cabinet and which are under the Premier's direct control, namely the Legislation Bureau, Merit Bureau and Resources Bureau. All bills to be submitted to the legislature by the Government and all ordinances to be promulgated are drafted at the Legislation Bureau in accordance with the order of the Premier. Proposals of amendment or repeal of laws or ordinances are also submitted to this bureau. In the discharge of his duties the Chief of the Legislation Bureau is at liberty to present his opinion to the Cabinet.

The Merit Bureau handles all business pertaining to the Order of Merit, decoration and the pension affiliated to it, national and international. The Resources Bureau supervises all the matters concerning the planning, utilization, and administration of the national resources, human and material.

On December 26, 1934, the Bureau for Manchurian Affairs was established. The bureau is under the Premier's direct control as the other three bureaux. Its function is to supervise all matters concerning Kwantung Leased Territory and the

South Manchuria Railway Zone through the Kwanto Bureau in the Japanese Embassy in Hsinking.

There are the following committees under the direct control of the Premier:—(a) The Higher Civil Service Examination Committee which is in charge of the higher civil service examinations, and of recommendations to certain higher posts. It consists of 8 members who are chosen from among high officials of the Government and its chairman is the Chief of the Legislation Bureau. (b) The Central Statistics Committee, (c) the Pensions Arbitration Committee, (d) the Educational Investigation Committee, which investigates and deliberates on educational problems of national importance. It consists of 53 members including the president and two vice-presidents. (e) The Resource Investigation Committee, (f) the Rice and Cereals Investigation Committee, (g) the Investigation Committee for the Correction of Election Evils, (h) the Temporary Industrial Investigation Committee, and (i) the Temporary Administrative and Financial Investigation Committee.

On May 10, 1935, (Imperial Ordinance, No. 118) the Naikaku Shingikai or Cabinet Advisory Board was established. The function of the board is to make investigations and find out conclusions on important national policies upon the request of the Cabinet or may present views on such policies to the Cabinet on its own initiative. The board consists of the president, the vice-president and 15 members. The chairs of the president and the vice-president are taken by the Premier and a member of the Cabinet respectively. Fifteen members are chosen, by the Imperial order, from among experienced statesmen or citizens.

On the same date (Imperial Ordinance, No. 119) the Cabinet Investigation Bureau was established to make investigations on important national policies and to handle matters in connection with the working of the Cabinet Advisory Board. The bureau is under the direct control of the Prime Minister and consists of 37 officials beside the director.

The Executive Departments

Department of Foreign Affairs The Minister of Foreign Affairs administers all the diplomatic affairs of the Empire; organizes the protection of the Empire's commercial interests and resident Japanese subjects in foreign countries; and directs and supervises Japanese diplomats and consuls. The Department of Foreign Affairs is subdivided into five bureaux, namely, (1) East Asiatic, (2) European and Asiatic, (3) American, (4) Commercial, and (5) Treaties.

The East Asiatic Bureau is divided into three sections; The First Section handles diplomatic matters related to China, HongKong and Macao; the Second Section those concerning Siam and protection and control of Japanese residences in those countries; and the Third Section those concerning Manchoukuo.

The European and Asiatic Bureau is divided into two sections; the First Section handles diplomatic matters related to the U.S.S.R., Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Turkey, Poland, Persia and Afghanistan; the Second Section those of all the European and other countries not coming under the control of any other bureau or section.

The American Bureau is divided into three sections; the First Section handles diplomatic matters concerning Canada, the United States of America and her territories; the

Second Section, the Central and South American countries; the Third Section handles matters concerning emigrants and passports.

The Commercial Bureau is divided into three sections; the First Section handles matters concerning institutions and policies of trade and navigation; the Second Section control, promotion and protection of trade and navigation; the Third Section commercial affairs and reports.

The Bureau of Treaties is divided into three sections; the First Section handles matters concerning drafting, interpretation, sanction, publication and revision of treaties with foreign countries; the Second Section international judicial matters; the Third Section the League of Nations.

There are other three offices of importance. The Information Bureau is divided into three sections. The First Section handles matters concerning news in daily papers and broadcasting; the Second Section books, magazines, publication, foreign news agencies, propaganda, international meetings; the Third Section distribution of diplomatic knowledge.

The Investigation Bureau is divided into five sections and their duties are as follows; The First Section general business and study of diplomatic facts; the Second Section keeping of records and materials; the Third Section investigations on diplomatic and commercial situations in Asia and the Near East; the Fourth Section investigations on Europe and Oceania; the Fifth Section political and diplomatic investigations on North and South American countries.

The Cultural Works Bureau handles matters concerning the cultural works for China which mainly consist of promotion and assistance of cultural investigations and enterprises on China.

To take the place of the paragraphs entitled "Minister of War, Senjuro Hayashi," P. 137 and "Minister of Communications, Takéjiro Tokonami," P. 138.

General Senjuro Hayashi, Minister of War, tendered resignation to the Throne on September 4, 1935, taking responsibility in connection with the assassination of Major-General Tetsuzan Nagata (promoted to Lieutenant-General after death) by Lieutenant-Colonel Saburo Aizawa on August 12, 1935. General Yoshiyuki Kawashima was appointed Minister of War on September 5, 1935.

Minister of War, Yoshiyuki Kawashima, born 1878; appointed Second-Lieutenant, 1899; was successively Commander of the 1st Infantry Brigade, Chief of the Bureau of Military Supplies, Chief of the Bureau of Military Affairs, Ministry of War, Commander of the 19th Division, Commander of the 3rd Division, Director of the General Affairs Bureau of the Department of Military Training, Commander of the Chosen Army. Appointed General and Member of the High Military Council, 1934.

Mr. Takéjiro Tokonami, Minister of Communications, died from heart trouble on September 8, 1935, and Mr. Keisuké Mochizuki was appointed to the portfolio on September 12. The Prime Minister served as ad interim Minister of Communications to tide over the gap.

Minister of Communications, Keisuké Mochizuki, was born in 1867; elected 11 times member of the House of Representatives since 1898; was Minister of Communications, 1927-28; Minister for Home Affairs, 1928-29; and appointed Member of the Cabinet Advisory Board, 1935.

Second Section, the Central and South American countries; the Third Section handles matters concerning emigrants and passports.

The Commercial Bureau is divided into three sections; the First Section handles matters concerning institutions and policies of trade and navigation; the Second Section control, promotion and protection of trade and navigation; the Third Section commercial affairs and reports.

The Bureau of Treaties is divided into three sections; the First Section handles matters concerning drafting, interpretation, sanction, publication and revision of treaties with foreign countries; the Second Section international judicial matters; the Third Section the League of Nations.

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The Cultural Works Bureau handles matters concerning the cultural works for China which mainly consist of promotion and assistance of cultural investigations and enterprises on China.

Japanese Embassies, etc. Japanese embassies are established in the following places:

Country	Situation of Embassies
China	Peiping
Great Britain	London
The U.S.A.	Washington
France	Paris
Germany	Berlin
Belgium	Brussels
Italy	Rome
The U.S.S.R.	Moscow
Brazil	Rio de Janeiro
Turkey	Stamboul
Manchoukuo	Hsinking

Japanese Legations are established in the following places:

Country	Situation of Legations
Canada	Ottawa
Sweden	Stockholm
Poland	Warsaw
Czechoslovakia	Prague
Rumania	Bucharest
Austria	Vienna
Greece	Athens
Persia	Teheran
Latvia	Riga
Switzerland	Berne
Holland	The Hague
Spain	Madrid
Portugal	Lisbon
Siam	Bangkok
Mexico	Mexico
Argentina	Buenos Aires
Chile	Santiago
Peru	Lima
Cuba	Havana
Colombia	Bogota

(The list of the envoys to and from foreign countries is given in Chapter VI with the full addresses of embassies and legations.)

Department of Home Affairs The Minister of Home Affairs is in charge of national shrines, prefectural administration, national and local political elections, police, public undertakings, public health, town planning, publication and copyrights, etc. It is also his function to supervise the Chief of the Metropolitan Police Board and the prefectural governors. The Ministry of Home Affairs has in recent years become the most important Government office politically, inasmuch as

it supervises elections and administers local public works. The Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister, a vice-minister and a counsellor. The department has five bureaux, respectively in charge of the following affairs:— (1) Shrines, (2) Local Affairs, (3) Public Order, (4) Public Works and (5) Public Hygiene. The Bureau of Social Affairs is affiliated to the Ministry and responsible to the Minister.

The Bureau of Local Affairs has a vast field to supervise. It has to be in close touch with (1) all matters affecting elections, (2) all the work concerning local public associations and other general administration, (3) financial and economic matters of various local public associations, (4) all matters concerning conscription and requisition to be executed by the prefectural governments, (5) all matters concerning forests, reclamation and settlement in Hokkaido and other matters in Hokkaido which do not come within the scope of any other bureaux.

The Bureau of Public Order is the depository of the highest authority over ordinary as well as political police matters, and the publication of books and other printed matter.

The Bureau of Public Works is in charge of all public undertakings, not only those under the direct control of the Home Department but also those of all the prefectural governments. All matters regarding the expenditure for public works of all sorts directly undertaken by the Department of Home Affairs and the subsidies to be granted for prefectural public works are handled by this Bureau.

The Bureau of Public Hygiene is in charge of measures for the prevention of the spread of epidemics. The Bureau is also in charge of quarantine work, and supervises the medical, pharmaceutical and dental

professions, including the issue of licences to practice, and the sale of medical goods. All matters concerning hygienic associations and local hospitals come also under the supervision of this Bureau.

The Bureau of Social Affairs handles all matters concerning:— (1) labour, (2) enforcement of the factory law, (3) miners, as prescribed in the mining law, (4) application of the minimum-age-for-factory-employment law, (5) arbitration of labour disputes, (6) social insurance, (7) the prevention of unemployment and relief of the unemployed, (8) international labour arrangements, (9) protection of children, (10) military relief work, and (11) other social works.

The Department of Home Affairs has the following other bureaux under its control:— (a) The Reconstruction Bureau, which is still working for the improvement of the streets and buildings of Tokyo and Yokohama as part of the plan of reconstruction of the cities damaged by the Great Earthquake of 1923. (b) The Japanese section of the International Labour Office, which is located at Geneva for the management of international activities of labour organs of Japan. (c) The Labour Exchange Bureau, which handles matters pertaining to the unity and interrelation of the work of labour exchanges throughout the country.

The following institutions also come under the control of the Minister of Home Affairs:— the Asylum for Disabled Soldiers, the National Shrines Building Office, the Police Educational Institute, the National House of Correction for the Improvement of the Juvenile Criminals, the Hygiene Laboratory, the Aliment Investigation Laboratory and the National Leper-House. Twelve special committees advise the Minister on the following mat-

ters, respectively:— (1) Investigation of a Proper System of Shinto Shrines, (2) Examination of Medical Practitioners, (3) Examination of Dentists, (4) Examination of Pharmacists, (5) Central Hygiene, (6) Sanitary Investigation, (7) Town Planning, (8) Labour Insurance, (9) Labour Exchanges, (10) Unemployment Prevention, and (11) Opium.

The Department of Finance The Minister of Finance is in charge of accounting, payments and receipts of public money, taxation, government bonds, coins, money in deposit and custody, negotiable instruments owned by or in custody of the Government and all matters concerning banking, trust business, "ko" (an oriental mutual loan association), and sale of negotiable instruments. He also supervises the finances of prefectural governments and other local public bodies.

The Finance Department has the following four bureaux:— (1) The Accounts Bureau, which handles all matters concerning the national budget and settlement of accounts, special accounts, co-ordination of treasury business, control of accounting officials, etc. (2) The Bureau of Taxation, which handles matters pertaining to the levying of national taxes, supervision of taxation business, the land register, and customs and excise tariffs. (3) The Bureau of Fund Employment, which is in charge of matters concerning the employment of national funds, the administration of national treasury money, the coinage, general circulation of money, national loans, accident and relief funds, deposits and negotiable securities, annuities, and public loans floated by public associations. (4) The Banking Bureau, which takes charge of matters concerning special, ordinary and savings banks, other matters pertaining to banks, the central chest

of the industrial unions and credit unions in the cities.

The following other bureaux and institutions are attached to the Department of Finance and under the direct jurisdiction of the Minister:— (1) The Deposits Bureau, which handles a huge amount of deposits from the middle and lower classes of the people, special importance being always attached to the question of how to utilize this money. (2) The National Property Bureau, which is in charge of all national properties, and makes arrangements for their disposal or acquirement. (3) The Mint Bureau, located in Osaka, which is in charge of the minting and melting down of all coins, the casting of national medals or decorations, and laboratory work on metals. (4) The Customs Bureau, which not only handles matters concerning the collection of import duties but also takes charge of the control of ships going in and out of the trade ports, examination of the health of passengers, plants and animals, and registration of epidemics in accordance with the epidemics or tuberculosis prevention laws for men and animals. Custom Houses under this Bureau are located at the six trade ports, namely, Yokohama, Kōbe, Osaka, Nagasaki, Moji and Hakodate. (5) The Revenue Superintending Bureau, which handles matters concerning tax collection. (6) The Monopoly Bureau, which administers the three government monopolies, salt, camphor and tobacco.

One laboratory and 7 committees are under the direct control of the Minister of Finance, namely, the Brewing Laboratory and the Committees on Tariff Petition Examination, the National Property Survey, Grants of National land to Buddhist Temples (temporary), Building Central Offices of the Government, Tariff Investigation, Special Accom-

modation for the examination of the matters pertaining to the grant of special accommodation to the Bank of Japan, and Special Accommodation Loss Examination.

The Department of War The function of the Minister of War is to direct the military administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Army and supervises all branches of the Army. Though the War Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister and a counsellor they have nothing to do officially with military secrets and military orders (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

The Department of Marine The Minister of Marine is responsible for all naval administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Navy and supervises all branches of the Navy. The parliamentary vice-minister and counsellor have nothing to do with the naval secrets and naval commands (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

The Department of Justice The Minister of Justice supervises courts and procurators' offices; and controls all judicial proceedings. The Department contains three bureaux, dealing respectively with civil affairs, criminal affairs, and prisons.

Judicial procedure is divided into three instances. The courts of first instance are the District and Local Courts. In the District Court are tried civil cases of minor importance and those involving sums not exceeding one thousand yen. The court also deals with criminal cases which are not felonies and those which do not require preliminary examination. The District Court handles cases of bankruptcy and those concerning personal status and arbitration. In rent and commercial disagreements, an arbitration committee, composed

of one judge and two laymen experienced in the matters involved in the dispute, may be appointed. The jurisdiction of a local court covers an average area of 2,587 square miles and a population of about 218,209.

The Local Court conducts trials of first instance of cases beyond the jurisdiction of the District Court and preliminary examinations of criminal cases of a complicated character.

The Local and Appeal Courts are the courts of second instance. The former handles cases on appeal from the District Courts, and the latter appeals against the first instance decisions of the Local Courts.

The court of third instance is the Supreme Court, which tries all civil and criminal cases which are brought before it, and conducts preliminary trials for (1) serious offences against the Imperial House, (2) high treason, and (3) offences committed by members of the Imperial Family.

There is one Supreme Court, and there are seven Courts of Appeal, 51 Local Courts and 291 District Courts.

Attached to each of these courts is a procurators' office, its functions being to conduct investigations, institute prosecutions, supervise the execution of sentences in criminal cases, and act as representative of the public interest in civil cases (For further details, see Chapter XXVII).

The Department of Education All matters relating to education, art, science, literature, and religion are under the direction and supervision of the Minister of Education. There are six bureaux and one division in the Department, i. e. (1) Bureau of Semmon (College) Education, (2) Bureau of Common Education, (3) Bureau of Technical Education, (4) Bureau of Social Education, (5) Bureau of Books, and (6) Bureau of

Religion. There is also a Division of Student Control.

Six imperial universities, 2 commercial colleges, 7 medical colleges, 2 technical colleges, 2 normal colleges, 4 higher normal schools, and 76 colleges and special educational institutions come under the direct administration of the Department (see Chapter XXVIII).

The following institutions are also established and controlled by this Department:—the Epidemic Laboratory; the Aeronautics Laboratory; the Tokyo Astronomical Observatory; the Seismological Observatory; the Chemical Laboratory; the Mineral Laboratory; the Imperial Library; the Meteorological Observatories; the Latitude Observatory; the Tokyo Science Museum; the Physical Education Laboratory; the Navigation Institute; the Geodesy Committee; the Examining Committee for Teachers' Licences; the Physical Sciences Literature Committee, for preparing a national list of books on physical sciences, as a branch of the International Committee for the same purpose; the Imperial Academy, which is composed of one hundred scholars appointed by the Emperor and is established for the promotion of science and culture; the Imperial Academy of Arts, which is composed of 30 members under a president, its main work being organization of the annual exhibition for the promotion of fine arts; the Text Book Committee; the Science Council; the National Language Committee; the Aeronautics Council; the School Hygiene Committee; the Earthquake Disaster Prevention Committee; the Religious System Investigation Committee; the National Treasure Preservation Committee; and the Temporary Committee on Romanization, which investigates the question of

Roman spelling of the Japanese Language.

The Department of Commerce and Industry The Minister of Commerce and Industry is assisted in administration of the Department by a parliamentary vice-minister, vice-minister and counsellor.

There are four bureaux in this Department, dealing respectively with commerce, industry, mining and foreign trade. All matters concerning insurance are handled in the affiliated Insurance Division. Examination and control of weights and measures is under the Central Weights and Measures Office. Other affiliated offices of importance are the Patent Bureau, the Mine Supervision Bureau and the Temporary Rationalization of the Industry Bureau.

In May, 1932, an ordinance was issued empowering the Minister of Commerce and Industry to establish two industrial laboratories, in Tokyo and Osaka respectively. These laboratories are open for the examination, analysis, and appraising of industrial commodities for the benefit of interested parties. Other institutions under the Department are as follows: the Fancy Mat Conditioning Houses, the Silk Experimental Stations, the Earthenware and Porcelain Experimental House, the Silk Goods Export Conditioning House, the Industrial Advice and Information Office, the Fuel Laboratory, the Industrial Art Examination Committee, the Unreasonable Low Price Investigation Committee, the Gas Business Committee, and the National Products Promotion Committee.

The Department of Agriculture and Forestry The Minister of Agriculture and Forestry controls all matters concerning agriculture, forestry, marine industry, stock-breeding and the enforcement of the Rice and

Cereals Law. The Department is divided into the following five bureaux:—(1) The Agriculture Bureau, which takes charge of matters concerning agriculture, tea production, subsidiary industry among farmers, industrial unions, the central chest of the industrial unions, and the enforcement of the Rice and Cereals Law. (2) The Forestry Bureau, which deals with all matters concerning forests and meadows. (3) The Fisheries Bureau. (4) The Stock Breeding Bureau, which deals with the improvement and breeding of domestic animals, their hygiene, insurance and hunting. The Silk Bureau handles matters concerning sericulture and the silk industry.

The following institutions are under the direct control of the Minister:—the Agricultural, Horticultural, and Forestry Experimental Stations, the Fisheries Institute and Fisheries Experimental Stations, the National Stock-sheep Pastures, the Animal Disease Examination Institute, the National Bull Pastures, National Poultry Station, the Sericultural Laboratory, the Raw Silk Conditioning Houses, the Tea Experimental Houses, the Rice and Cereals Committee, the Silk Price Committee, the Committee on Subsidies for the maintenance of a proper silk price.

The Department of Communications The Minister of Communications administers the State post, telegraph, telephone and beacon services, and is in charge of all matters relating to electricity, hydraulic power and aviation. All business enterprises of electricity, ship-building, and water transportation together with navigation routes, ships and seamen are under his supervision. He also directs the operations of the Nippon Wireless Telegraph Company.

The Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister, and a

counsellor. The Secretariat, beside the ordinary secretarial work, supervises the training of clerks who are expected to enter the communications service and all matters concerning communications exhibitions. There are seven main bureaux in the Department, i. e., Postal Service Bureau, Telegraph and Telephone Service Bureau, Bureau of Engineering, Bureau of Electricity, Bureau of Mercantile Ships, Aviation Bureau, and Bureau of Accounts and Supplies.

There are in addition the following affiliated offices:— Bureau of Savings, Bureau of Post Office Life Insurance, Lighthouse Bureau, and Communications Bureau. The Savings Bureau handles matters concerning the Post Office savings, and their transfer to the national deposit. The Post Office Insurance Bureau handles matters pertaining to insurance and pensions for the working classes.

The following institutions are under the direct supervision of the Minister:— the Electro-Technical Laboratory, the Marine Court of Inquiry, the Marine Labour Exchange Committee, the Post-Office Life Insurance Investigation Committee, and the Post-Office Life Insurance Reserve Fund Utilization Committee.

The Department of Railways The Minister of Railways administers all the affairs relating to the railways operated by the Government and supervises the operations on land of all private railway companies. The Department is divided into seven bureaux, namely, Bureau of Local Railway Administration, Bureau of Traffic and Operation, Bureau of Construction, Bureau of Mechanical Engineering, Bureau of Maintenance and Improvement, Bureau of Electricity, and Bureau of Finance and Purchasing. Recently,

there was operated a special Tourist Industry Bureau for attracting foreign tourists, which is subdivided into the Controlling and Investigating Section and the Promoting Section. The administrative work of the state railways is apportioned to six local regions: Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Moji, Sendai and Sapporo. Each region is in charge of a director who has full powers to conduct all but the most important affairs within his jurisdiction.

The Department of Overseas Affairs The Minister of Overseas Affairs supervises the administrative work of the Chosen Government-General, the Taiwan Government-General, the Kwantung Government, the Karafuto Government, and the Government of the South Sea Islands. He also supervises the business operations of the South Manchuria Railway Company and the Oriental Development Company. He directs all matters concerning emigration excepting those of a diplomatic nature. For the performance of these duties, the Minister is empowered to direct and supervise consuls stationed in foreign countries in consultation with the Foreign Minister. There are, beside the Secretariat, the following four offices in the Department; the Chosen Office, (having a special status and being always under the direction of the vice-minister), Industry Development Bureau, the Supervision Bureau, and the Exploitation Bureau.

The Privy Council

The Privy Council is a consultative body to advise the Emperor on questions of grave importance. The Council is composed of one President, one Vice-President (non-voting) and 24 Councillors. All the Councillors are officials of shinnin (highest) rank. All these members are appointed by the Emperor on

the advice of the Prime Minister. Cabinet Ministers are entitled by virtue of their office to sit in the Privy Council as councillors and have the right to vote. Princes of the Blood who have attained their majority and are resident in Tokyo can sit in the Council under the same conditions.

The questions that are to be submitted to the Privy Council for deliberation cover:

(1) All matters that fall within its jurisdiction according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

(2) All matters concerning interpretation of the provisions of the Constitution and laws and ordinances supplementary thereto.

(3) Proclamation of Martial Law under Article 14 of the Constitution, Imperial ordinances under Article 8 and Article 70, and any other Imperial ordinance which has a disciplinary clause.

(4) Treaties and all other international pledges.

(5) All matters involving an amendment in the organization and procedure regulations of the Privy Council.

(6) Other matters submitted to the Council by the Emperor.

Though the Privy Council is thus the highest consultative organ of the Emperor in important matters of state, it has nothing to do with the actual government administration.

Ministers Outside the Cabinet

There are two important offices of a quasi-administrative character of which the holders are styled "Daijin" (Minister). These "Ministers" are not members of the Cabinet and do not change with the Government.

The Office of Keeper of the Privy Seal is generally regarded as the senior of these offices. Its holder has the duty of keeping the Im-

perial Seal and the Seal of State, and of supervising secretarial work in connection with Imperial Edicts and Rescripts and other documents of the Imperial Court. The other office is that of Minister of the Imperial Household Department. The Minister is in charge of all business concerning the Imperial Household. (Consult the chapter on Imperial Court for fuller information as to their duties.)

The Board of Audit

The Board of Audit is provided for by Article 72 of the Constitution and is on an equal footing with the ministers of state. It is composed of a president, three divisional chiefs and 12 inspectors, who are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister, but cannot be dismissed, transferred or placed on the retired list except by effect of either a criminal or a disciplinary trial.

The function of the Board is to audit accounts of the central government and other corporate bodies, public or private, receiving government subsidies or guarantees.

The Court of Administrative Litigation

The law of 1890 which established this Court is envisaged in Article 61 of the Constitution. The Court is entirely distinct from ordinary judicial courts and its function is to decide on the validity of administrative acts. The Court is not interfered by the Government. According to the law the Court of Administrative Litigation is to be located in Tokyo and no local court established. It is composed of a President and 11 Counsellors. Its members are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister and are not to be removed, suspended from office or

deprived of position, without their consent. This is exactly the same as with ordinary judges (see Chapter XXVII), but the differences are that the former's position is not for life, while the latter's is and that there is no institution of the retiring age for the former. The present head of the Court is Dr. Hyoji Futakami.

The Court passes on cases relating to (1) the levying of taxes and fees except the customs tariff; (2) the disposition for the recovery of taxes in arrears, (3) the prohibition or suspension of business, (4) waterways and public works, and (5) fixing the boundary between the Government and private owned lands.

An appeal is immediately taken by the Court and the decision on it is given by a majority vote of the council of more than 5. The decision is the first, and at the same time, final.

Government Officials

Civil officials are divided into four ranks according to their grade of merits, education and ability, and their salaries differ accordingly. The four ranks are: (1) Shinnin rank, appointed by His Majesty directly, (2) Chokunin rank, appointed by His Majesty's order indirectly, (3) Sonin rank, appointed by His Majesty's approval, and (4) Hannin rank of minor officials appointed by the heads of different offices.

At the end of 1933, civil officials who received salaries from the State Treasury numbered 132,987 in total, their salaries amounting to ¥159,579,259, of which officials of shinnin and chokunin rank numbered 1,535 with an aggregate salary of ¥7,883,000 a year, officials of sonin rank 14,447 with ¥37,581,000, and officials of hannin rank 117,005 with ¥114,115,000. The average salary of

officials of chokunin rank was ¥5,135, a year, that of officials of sonin rank ¥2,601 and that of officials of hannin rank ¥975.

As to the number of officials of chokunin, sonin, and hannin ranks classified according to departments, the Department of Communications had the largest with 27,847, which was followed by 27,441 of the Department of Railways, 13,489 of the Government-General of Chosen and 12,094 of the Department of Finance. Departments other than those given above had less than 10,000 each, viz. the Department of Justice had 8,577, the Department of Education 7,808, the Government-General of Formosa 6,003, the Department of Agriculture and Forestry 3,897, the Home Department 2,429, Department of War 2,153, Government of Kwantung Province 1,831, the Department of Commerce and Industry 1,796, the Department of Marine 1,366, the Government of Saghalien Island 1,117 and the Department of Foreign Affairs 1,107. Other Departments had less than 1,000 each. Among prefectural offices, Hokkaido Office had 2,315, Tokyo Metropolitan Police Office had 1,327 and all other prefectures together 9,220. Each prefectural government office had 200 on the average.

Number and total amount of salaries paid to civil officials of the Government in the past 10 years follow:

Year	Number	Salary
1924	137,566	¥147,130,579
1925	144,925	153,989,715
1926	148,014	161,150,445
1927	154,116	167,096,570
1928	158,792	170,572,037
1929	164,831	173,745,391
1930	170,995	179,326,483
1931	174,537	180,644,349
1932	180,988	187,069,618
1933	182,987	190,579,259

The Imperial Diet

The parliamentary system could not develop in Japan before the Meiji Restoration, because politics were controlled by the Samurai class for hundreds of years. Thus, the Imperial Diet was established solely according to the pattern of Western countries. In accordance with the promise contained in the Charter Oath of the Emperor Meiji, councils or assemblies of various kinds were established at the beginning of the Meiji Era, but their members were not elected by the people and consequently they were of a different nature from the parliaments of the West. In 1881 it was promised to convoke a National Assembly within 10 years, and the Imperial Diet on Western lines was first opened in 1890.

The Diet is much limited in its power and the duration of its sessions, but in its fundamental nature it has much in common with the national assemblies of Western countries. According to Art. 5 of the Constitution, the legislative power belongs to the Emperor and the Diet's function is only to give (or presumably withhold) consent to legislation proposed by the Throne. But this is a formality, and the Diet has almost the same power of legislation, including that of initiative as the parliaments of other civilized nations. At the same time, the Diet, in virtue of its being an assembly of representatives, has been invested with the power of supervising the administrative organs, as represented by the state ministers. It is a bicameral legislature, consisting of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives, and the decisions which are harmoniously made by both Houses are the decisions of the Imperial Diet.

The House of Peers The House of

Peers is composed of the Imperial Princes, Peers, and Imperial nominees, according to the provisions of the House of Peers Ordinance. This Ordinance was promulgated at the same time as the Constitution and has been revised several times since. In 1925, important revisions were made to the effect that the number of the peerage members was lessened and that of the representatives of the wealthy people was increased, together with an addition of representatives of the Imperial Academy. Thus the former majority of peerage members was brought to an end and their number became equal to that of members chosen by Imperial order.

According to the present House of Peers Ordinance, the House is composed of the following members:

(a) all the Imperial Princes above 20 years of age, and the Kōtaishi and Kōtaison if above 18.

(b) all Princes and Marquises above 30 years of age, with the term of office for life.

(c) 18 Counts, 66 Viscounts and 66 Barons elected by the Peers of their respective ranks. They must be above 30 years of age and their term of office is 7 years.

(d) Imperial nominees from among statesmen and scholars who have made valuable contributions to politics or science. They must be above 30 years of age and their term of office is for life. Their number must not exceed 125.

(e) 4 members of the Imperial Academy, elected by the members thereof and nominated by the Emperor. Their term of office is 7 years.

(f) Members elected by and from among the highest tax-payers, in any prefecture, in direct national taxation on land, income and business profits. Each member represents 100 such high tax-payers, his age

must be above 30, and his term of service is 7 years. The number of this class of members must not exceed 66.

The House of Peers, therefore, consists of 150 Counts, Viscounts, and Barons, 195 representatives of statesmen, scholars and wealthy business men, and a certain number of Imperial Princes, Princes and Marquises, the number of the last named not being fixed for obvious reasons. The present (November, 1934) total of the members of the House of Peers is 409, vacancy 3.

The House of Representatives The House of Representatives is composed of members elected by the people in accordance with the provisions of the Electoral Law. This Law was first promulgated simultaneously with the enactment of the Constitution in 1886, and has undergone many minor revisions since. Important revisions were made in 1900, 1919 and 1925. The Law of 1889 required yearly payment of direct national tax of ¥15 as a qualification for both candidates and voters, and prescribed the system of small constituencies and the open ballot. In 1900, the requirement of tax payment was removed in the case of candidates and lowered to 10 yen for voters. Constituencies were divided into two classes municipal and rural, making each city an independent district and each prefecture one district; and the secret ballot was adopted. In 1919, the tax requirement was again lowered to 3 yen and the old small constituency system revived. In 1925, the male universal suffrage system was finally adopted, the division of municipal and rural districts was abolished, and a system of constituencies electing from 3 to 5 representatives each was established.

The universal suffrage of Japan is restricted as yet in comparison

with that of Western countries, as to sex, age, residence and the conditions of eligibility. Women are totally ineligible and the age qualification for male voters is 25. The Electoral Law itself says nothing of the restriction on residence, but the list of voters must be made by Sept. 15 of the year previous to that of the general election and only persons who have lived a minimum period of one year in the same city, town or commune are eligible for inclusion. The Law also contains provisions for withholding the right to vote from criminals, legally disabled persons, such as bankrupts etc., actual holders of peerages, persons engaged in active combative service.

Candidates must be 30 years of age; otherwise their qualifications are the same as those for voters, except that of residence. The present number of the members of the House of Representatives is 440, vacancy 26.

According to the relevant articles of the Constitution, the Diet has power over all affairs of state which belong to the responsibility of the State Ministers. There is, however, a working but not complete separation of the legislative and executive powers between the Diet and the Ministers. There are certain statutory limitations of the Diet's power to control the executive. The Imperial Diet must not interfere with matters pertaining to the Imperial House. Except in regard to matters within the Diet itself, it can neither use the power of administration directly upon the people nor represent the State vis-à-vis of foreign nations.

Fixed Number of Lower House Representatives and Number of Votes at Recent General Elections

Date of election	Representatives	Voters
March, 1904	379	757,768
May, 1906	379	1,582,676
May, 1912	381	1,503,630

Date of election	Representatives	Voters
March, 1915	381	1,546,341
April, 1917	381	1,422,113
May, 1920	464	3,009,787
May, 1924	464	3,238,368
Feb., 1928	466	12,409,078
Feb., 1930	466	12,813,192
Feb., 1932	460	13,095,621

Function of the Diet The Diet has five kinds of function, namely, constituent, legislative, financial, general supervision of the administration, and executive on matters in the Diet itself.

(1) The constituent power of the Diet is confined to deliberation on constitutional amendment initiated by the Throne. Action can only be taken by a two-thirds majority of a quorum of two-thirds of the membership of both Houses, as provided for in Article 73 of the Constitution.

(2) The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet and all laws and legislative ordinances must obtain that consent. Bills may be presented by the Diet itself as well as by the Government. The right of consent of course contains the rights of amendment and rejection. This right is subject only to the condition that the Diet's action does not contravene the Constitution, the Imperial House Law, and international law. Thus the power of legislative "consent" contains within it that of initiative. Legislative ordinances promulgated by the Emperor must be submitted to the Diet at the next session for approval or rejection but not amendment.

The legislative authority of the two Houses is equal in theory, and projects of law may be initiated in either. Naturally, therefore, no legislative enactment is complete without the consent of both Houses to all its provisions.

(3) The national budget must get the consent of the Diet. The

budget is presented by the Government first to the House of Representatives, but consent to it must be accorded by both Houses. Article 70 of the Constitution, however, empowers the Government to take all necessary financial measures by Imperial Ordinance, and Article 71 empowers it, if the Diet has not voted in the budget or if the budget "has not been brought into actual existence" to carry out the budget of the previous year. National loans must obtain the consent of the Diet. All contracts outside the budget which involve state financial liability must also be approved by the Diet. Any disbursement of public money by the Government made without the Diet's consent between sessions must be submitted for approval at the earliest opportunity. The restrictions of the Diet's financial power, other than those mentioned above, are clearly stipulated in Article 67 of the Constitution. It is to be noted that the Budget as a project of administrative action is confined to expenditure. Revenue is determined by law, so that the Diet's control thereof comes within its general legislative competence.

(4) The responsibility of Ministers, collective or individual, to the Diet is not clearly established either in law or custom, but so far as the responsibilities of Ministers are concerned, the Diet clearly has a certain supervisory power. The Government can do what it wishes without the consent of the Diet in its administrative function, but the Houses can express independently of each other their judgement on what the Government had done. They may present written appeals to the Emperor against the actions of State Ministers. They can make proposals by resolution to the Government concerning administration. They may receive petitions from the people

(the only function of the Diet to keep a direct contact with the people), and if these concern administrative matters, they are handed to the Government with the opinion thereon of the House to which they were addressed. The Houses may also pass resolutions on important state matters which are not addressed to the Government directly, but which, being made public as they are, naturally have an effect on the Government's popularity if they contain adverse criticisms. In these ways the Diet subjects the Government to a limited measure of control.

The Diet has the right of investigating the conduct of the administration, although this is very narrowly limited and rarely used. The Diet has the right of making inquiries on the responsibilities of the Ministers, the right of receiving reports from the Government on the income and disbursements of the National Treasury, on the handling of petitions sent in by the people through the Houses, and on serious diplomatic questions, unless they are such as require absolute secrecy.

(5) The Houses of the Diet have the right of self-government as to the regulations of their own Houses, on the procedures of session, on the police system in the Houses. The House of Peers has also the right to be consulted by the Emperor as to the privileges of peers.

The Diet is convoked annually by the Emperor (under Article 41 of the Constitution) for a period of ordinary session of 90 days. This period may be prolonged if necessary by Imperial order. Extraordinary sessions can be convened in the same way. The annual session is usually called at the end of year, although there is no regulation to this effect in the Constitution, and continued to the end of the following March, so that the budget can be

voted before the new fiscal year begins. The Emperor may give orders to open or close the Diet; or suspend the session for a certain number of days for negotiations between the Diet and the Government or the two Houses; or dissolve the House of Representatives. All these actions are taken on the advice of the Prime Minister.

Officials of the Houses Each House has a President and Vice-President. The President not only presides and keeps order during the sessions but also directs the business of the House between sessions. The manner of appointment of the officers differs in the two Houses. In the House of Peers, they are appointed by the Emperor from among its members for a term of 7 years, the House itself having nothing to do with the appointment. In the House of Representatives, the House chooses three candidates for each of these positions and the Emperor makes the appointments from among the candidates. Their term of office is that of the life of the House.

There is an Official Bureau attached to each of the Houses, and officials such as the Chief Secretary, secretaries, stenographers, and the chief sergeant are appointed by the Government although they act under the orders of the respective House Presidents. Several things in the Japanese parliamentary system have been copied from the British and this official bureau is one of them.

The House of Peers has five and the House of Representatives four standing committees, and special committees are appointed when the need arises. Each House may sit as a committee of the whole for which chairmen are elected at the beginning of the session. The procedure of discussions and resolutions is similar to that customary in the English-speaking countries.

Local Government

The units of local government are four: the prefecture, the city, the town, and the commune.

The Prefecture Japan proper, except Hokkaido, is administratively divided into 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures which are administered by governors. The function of the governor is to be the highest local administrative organ of state, and, at the same time, the head of the prefecture as a unit of local self-government. He is directly controlled by the Ministers of State and takes charge of the general national administration within his prefecture. In a prefecture all administrative business is unified under the control of the governor who supervises every kind of administrative work in the district according to the orders of the Premier and Ministers of the central government. Thus, the scope of his function is quite large and complicated. The appointment and dismissal of governors are made by the Minister of Home Affairs.

The system of prefectural government has undergone several changes and the nature of the work done is not necessarily the same in all the prefectures, but it is common, at present, to divide the duties into three divisions, namely, the Home Affairs Division, the Educational Division and the Police Division. Some prefectures have an Engineering Division.

As a unit of local self-government, the prefecture stands between the state and the municipalities. It has a prefectural assembly and a prefectural council as organs for decision, but the right of decision of these organs is much narrower than that of the city assembly and council, while the chief executive is the governor who is officially appointed by the Central Government.

The Prefectural Assembly is elected by universal suffrage, and the number of the members is fixed by the law. Membership of the assembly is honorary and the term of service is four years.

The Prefectural Council is composed of 10 members elected by and from among the assemblymen. The Governor is ex-officio chairman of the council, which is in fact a standing committee of the assembly, although entrusted with certain functions of arbitration which are not specifically devolved from the larger body.

Hokkaido is not divided into prefectural districts, but is itself an administrative unit as a whole, under one procurator, although it covers an area of 88,775.04 square kilometres and is thus many times as large as most of the prefectures. The procurator or chief is controlled by the Minister of Home Affairs directly and his function and duties are mostly the same as those of a prefectural governor. The special features of his function are that he undertakes colonization work, that as there is no national forestry law applied to the district the administration of forestry is left altogether in his power, and that he has to take care of the native Ainu according to the Protection Law for the Hokkaido Natives. The Hokkaido Office is divided into five divisions, namely, Divisions of Home Affairs, Education, Civil Engineering, Colonization and Police. The organization and rights of the Hokkaido Assembly and Council are almost the same as those of similar bodies in the prefectures. (On the governmental system of the Colonies see Chapters XL-XLIII.)

The Municipality (City, Town, Village) In 1932 there were 112 cities, 1,716 towns and 9,946 villages in Japan proper. (A village here means an

administrative unit composed of a village or villages.)

There was some measure of local self-government in old Japan. The heads of villagers were chosen from among the villagers and were asked to rule over them. For some time after the Meiji Restoration, these customs were continued, although the official names of the heads of villages were changed. Moreover, towns and villages were allowed to exercise the right of managing public affairs with their own money as financial units. But it was with the formation of prefectural assemblies according to the new laws issued in July, 1878, that the local self-government of Japan began to assume a modern form. The self-government system of cities, towns and communes has been several times revised, the last revision being that of 1929.

There were formerly several restrictions on citizenship of the local communities, but according to the laws now in force every man is entitled to it in virtue of the male universal suffrage principle. The requirements of citizenship are about the same as those for the right to vote in parliamentary elections. Every male inhabitant of and above 25 years of age who has resided for a minimum period of two years in the same municipality is a citizen of the same and has the right to vote or to be elected and at the same

time owes the duty of accepting any honorary post of service to which he may be elected.

The organs of local self-government are the assemblies of the representatives and the chiefs of the municipalities. The fixed minimum number of representatives in these assemblies is 30 in the cities and 12 in the towns and communes. The cities have also councils of ten members elected by and from among the assemblymen.

The Mayor of a city is a salaried official while the corresponding posts in a town or commune are honorary in principle. Mayors are elected by their respective assemblies for a term of four years. Their function and responsibilities are diverse, for they not only administer the affairs of the municipalities but also handle matters delegated to them by the central and prefectural governments and are entrusted with the supervision of some public bodies. As servants of the central government they take charge of the census register and all the business related to it, the election of the members of the Lower House, several kinds of national investigation, public engineering, public hygiene, relief work, educational supervision and encouragement, and certain work under the Conscription Law. This work is done without consulting the local assemblies, but simply as entrusted by the respective national officials.

CHAPTER V

PARTIES AND POLITICS

Pre-party Cabinet Period

Japan's modern political life fairly started with the promulgation of the Constitution and opening of the Diet. The Imperial Edict for opening the national assembly within ten years was issued (see Chapter III) on October 12, 1881.

Party Formation Upon the issuance of the Imperial Edict parties began to be formed with a view to be prepared for the opening of the Diet. On October 18, 1881, the colleagues and comrades of Taisuké Itagaki drafted the rules of the new Jiyu-to Party and elected Itagaki President and N. Nakajima Vice-President at a preparatory meeting which was held at Asakusa, Tokyo. The governing principle of this party was that of Rousseau's social contract.

The next great party to be organized was the Kaishin-to. It came into being in March, 1882, with Shigenobu Okuma as President. The leading thought of this party was English liberalism, and it aimed at a healthy, mild policy with the educated class of people as its central constituency. It was, therefore, natural that the Kaishin-to won the sympathy of the intelligentsia of the cities, while the Jiyu-to got a hold on the people in the country districts, where the inhabitants were peasants who sympathized with more radical political thought because of their long sufferings under the feudal governments. Nowadays it can no longer be considered that the strength of the Minsei-to lies mainly in urban, and that of the Seiyukai in the rural constituencies, but

until a few years ago this clear difference in spheres of influence was very marked. Many parties were born contemporaneously. It is said that there were formed 40 parties, besides these two, mostly local.

The first Ito Cabinet, which was organized in 1885 was not, of course, connected with any political party.¹

The First Election The Jiyu-to was once dissolved into smaller groups, and the first general election was carried out amid a general confusion of political parties. Its result was as follows so far as the political parties were concerned:

Daido Club 55, Kaishin-to 46, Patriotic Public Party 35, Conservative Party 22, Kyushu Association 21, Jiyu-to 17, Jichi-to 17, Officials 18, neutrals 69, independents 2.

This result presented a grave problem to the political parties, for none had a clear majority in the House of Representatives, so various amalgamations were effected before the opening of the first session of the Imperial Diet, and when it opened the classification of the members became as follows:

The Rikken-Jiyu-to (or Constitutional Liberal Party) 130, the Rikken-Kaishin-to (or Constitutional Progressive Party) 41, Taisei-kai 79, National Liberal Party 5, and outsiders 45. The first two were anti-government parties, while the second two were pro-government. The remaining 45 were neutral.

The first platform of the Constitu-

¹ For the political movement before the issuance of the Imperial Edict see the Japan Year Book, 1933.

tional Liberal Party was: (1) To maintain the sacredness of the Imperial House and to extend the rights of the people, (2) To oppose such policies as might interfere with the free individual life of the people in home affairs, and to conclude treaties on equal terms in foreign affairs, (3) To realize parliamentary government and organize a party cabinet. And with these ideals the party men waged a fight for the establishment of a real parliamentary government. The number of anti-government members in the Lower House far exceeded that of the pro-government, and the bureaucratic Yamagata Cabinet feared for its very existence. Hostilities between the two started with the choice of the President of the House of Representatives and continued over the first budget subjected to the discussion of the House. The budget amounting to ¥83,075,000 was cut down to ¥75,194,300, or about 9% reduction. But the first session of the Imperial Diet was closed in March, 1891, without dissolution.

Itagaki's Party Suffers The party which suffered most from the poison of secret governmental control was the Constitutional Liberal Party, and they held a general meeting at Osaka immediately after the first session of the Diet. At the meeting, Itagaki, who had retired when the party had been once dissolved, was again chosen President, its name was made simpler by cutting away the first word "Constitutional," and the unity of its members was strengthened. The Matsukata Cabinet was formed in May of the same year; its head was as strong a foe to political parties as Yamagata, if not more so. Then there occurred the attack of a murderous fanatic on the Crown Prince of Russia at Otsu near Lake Biwa and a great earthquake wrought fearful destruction in Mino and O-

wari provinces; the Government was unable to cope with these emergencies while it was discredited in its policy against the parties.

Matsukata Cabinet Falls The second session of the Imperial Diet was convoked on Nov. 21, 1891, in a menacing atmosphere from the outset, and was finally dissolved on Dec. 25. The general election of Feb. 15, 1892, was carried out under extreme interference of the Government. Shinsawa, Minister of Home Affairs, ruled the local governors with an iron hand and used every effort for obtaining as many pro-governmental members as possible, the freedom of the vote being completely trodden underfoot. It was reported that 25 persons were killed and 388 were injured in this savage struggle. The result was, however, the victory of the anti-governmental party men, who numbered 163 against 137 of the pro-governmental, and they passed a vote of non-confidence in the third session, although the stubborn Matsukata Cabinet clung to its position in defiance of it.

But the Cabinet fell to pieces from within, and the second Ito Cabinet was formed in August, 1892. It was Ito who drafted the Constitution and stood aloof from the political parties in those days, although he later became the President of the Jiyu-to or the Liberal Party himself. And the Ito Cabinet cleverly managed the fourth session of the Diet. But the Cabinet was taken to task by the Diet over the misbehaviour of some Ministers and the fifth session was dissolved without any reason given on Jan. 30, 1894. At the third general election the Ito Cabinet took a very fair attitude, because Ito was always anxious to be or at least to seem constitutional. Its outcome was again disadvantageous to the Government, and the sixth session,

which was convoked on May 12, 1894, was dissolved on June 2 because of the non-confidence resolution on the last dissolution and the diplomatic inability of the Government. It may be remarked here that Tsuyoshi Inukai, the late Premier, appeared on the surface of the political world for the first time at this session. He was a member of the Lower House from the beginning and had organized a progressive party of his own a little before this, but his motion of wholesale non-confidence was the first occasion that his earnestness and sincerity for the maintenance of parliamentary authority began to show itself.

The Sino-Japanese War The interval between the sixth and seventh sessions was but half a year, yet it was marked by many important political and diplomatic affairs. The Sino-Japanese War, 1894-1895, broke out in July, 1894. The general election was carried out on September 1 of the same year. The seventh session had been expected to witness a repeated collision of the Diet and the Government, but the first international war drew all the attention of the people and the session closed peacefully after lasting but four days instead of a week as fixed, on the 22nd of October, 1894, at Hiroshima, where the Emperor was staying during the war to command the Imperial Army and Navy. All parties were united for the national cause and supported the Government with one accord, and the military emergency budget amounting to ¥150,000,000 was immediately passed without any reduction. All the political conflicts at home were stilled in the face of the international war and the eighth session convoked on Dec. 22, 1894, was quietly carried out. The peace treaty with China was sanctioned on March 20, 1895. But the interference of the Three Powers on the

lease of the Liaotung Peninsula aroused indignation throughout Japan, and this feeling soon centred in an attack on the Government.

A Political Bloc The Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to, People's Association, Chugoku Progressive Party, Financial Kakushin-to and Ohté Club were united in criticizing the Government's weak diplomacy, and formed a great union called the Central Representative Club. The Liberal Party did not join the Club, because it had come to some understanding with the Government, and had a special connection with Ito, who gradually had drawn nearer to this political party. The tacticians in both the Government and the Liberal Party had succeeded in bringing Ito and the party nearer, and just before the 9th session the Liberal Party took off its mask and openly declared its coalition with the Ito Cabinet. This was the first instance of a political party being publicly united with the Government.

The Progressive Party Ito's policy was a success and the 9th session ended in the victory of the Government by the faithful support of the Liberal Party. The defeated parties recognized the need of a stronger union and on March 1, 1896, the Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to and three other bodies dissolved themselves and organized the Shimpō-to or Progressive Party under Okuma. The platform of the new party was to exalt the sacredness of the Imperial House and to advance the rights and welfare of the people, (1) by establishing a responsible cabinet with the removal of political evils, (2) by enlarging the national power with the renovation of diplomacy, and (3) by developing private enterprises with the readjustment of financial policy.

From now onwards the Liberal Party and the Progressive Party be-

came rivals as the greatest political parties in the country. The members of the Lower House, by party grouping, were as follows at the end of March: the Liberal Party 110, the Progressive Party 100, Peoples' Association 32, Yamaguchi Group 5, Kishu Group 4, unaffiliated 49.

Itagaki Joins Ito After the 9th session, Itagaki of the Liberal Party entered the Ito Cabinet and took the post of Home Minister. The Ito Cabinet was in power three full years and managed numerous political matters of importance, but it collapsed in August, 1896. The Matsukata Cabinet which came next was a coalition of Matsukata's Satsuma clan and Okuma's Progressive Party. This cabinet took a very progressive policy in removing long political evils and financial defects and its activity was welcomed with much expectation. But the Liberal Party, now in opposition, was ready to make attacks against the Cabinet which contained Okuma, their political enemy. The tenth-session which was convoked on Dec. 25, 1896, passed off with little trouble for the Government, although the Liberal Party attacked it on the score of its foreign diplomacy. It is to the credit of the Matsukata Cabinet that it established the gold standard of national currency.

Exit Okuma Okuma, Home Minister, resigned in November, 1897, and the relation between the Cabinet and his party was severed. Matsukata now endeavoured to get the support of the Liberal Party, but in vain, and the Cabinet faced the 11th session of the Diet without any assistance from political parties. A non-confidence resolution was proposed by 38 members in the session and seconded by 150. On Dec. 25, 1897, the Lower House was suddenly dissolved, and the Cabinet itself re-

signed in miserable defeat. Ito was ordered to form a cabinet for the third time, and it was again a transcendental one. The 12th session was begun on May 14, 1898. The Government proposed an increase of taxes on land, saké, and incomes, but was defeated by an absolute majority of 247, and the House was dissolved in revenge. This action of the Government, however, greatly stimulated the development of anti-governmental parties and brought about an extraordinary political phenomenon. It was but a faint herald of the dawn of party government, but it gave a real shock for the first time to the foundations of the clan and bureaucratic forces in Japanese politics. Both the Liberals and the Progressives had had a very hard time in the past to wage war against clan statesmen and bureaucracy, but in most cases they had been treated by the latter like mere instruments for accomplishing their own purposes. Now they came to their senses and saw that their real foes were these same clansmen and bureaucrats who monopolized the government, and that their first aim must be the destruction of them. On June 21, 1898, both parties held final meetings simultaneously and dissolved themselves, and on the 22nd they all met at the Shintomi Theatre, Tsukiji, and amalgamated themselves into a new party, the Kenseikai, or Constitutional Party, to put an end to bureaucratic government and to establish that of a party.

The Kenseikai and Ito All the elder statesmen, clan and bureaucratic bodies were alarmed in the extreme by this organization of the Constitutional Party. A meeting was called before the Emperor on the 24th and a hot discussion on counter measures against the power of the party was continued for several

hours. Ito asserted that there were but three ways for him to meet the situation: either to form a governmental party himself to carry on the government, or to resign first and form a party to support the Government from outside, or lastly to surrender altogether before the Constitutional Party and let them organize a cabinet with Okuma and Itagaki at their head. Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan was firmly opposed to this proposal and declared, "It is against the Japanese Constitution to establish a cabinet upon a party foundation; let us quit the Constitution for the time being if necessary to meet the critical moment!" On June 27, 1898, however, Okuma and Itagaki were finally called to the Imperial Court and ordered to form a cabinet. A coalition cabinet was thus formed on the 30th of that month, all the posts except those of Naval and Military Ministers being filled by party men. Its composition was as follows:

Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs, Okuma (Progressive); Home Minister, Itagaki (Liberal); Minister of Finance, Matsuda (Liberal); Minister of Justice, Daito (Progressive); Minister of Education, Ozaki (Progressive); Minister of Communications, Hayashi (Liberal); Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, Oishi (Progressive); Minister of War, Katsura (Choshu clan); and Minister of the Navy, Saigo (Satsuma clan).

It was, however, a combination of antagonistic forces for convenience' sake, and the partisans soon began to quarrel among themselves, so that the Constitutional Party, which tried to advance too quickly, soon split up again into the former Liberal and Progressive Parties, largely by the tactics of Toru Hoshi, who played an influential part in politics as a

member of the Liberal Party, and was assassinated later in a room of the Tokyo City Hall. So the first party cabinet was compelled to dissolve without meeting a session of the Diet on Oct. 31, 1898, within four months of its formation.

Yamagata Returns Now came the turn of bureaucracy again, under Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan (these two Japanese words indicate the same Nagato province at the south-western end of the Main Island), in November, 1898. Yamagata had had bitter experience with political parties and this time he succeeded in getting the support of the Liberal Party (which called itself Kenseito as yet) and handled the 13th session of the Diet as he wished, many important revisions of the national laws being made, and the military preparations being enlarged by raising the taxes on many important items.

It was during the life of this cabinet that the new treaties which had been concluded with foreign nations at the time of the former Ito Cabinet were put into force, and Japan came to stand on an equal footing with the other civilized countries of the world politically and diplomatically. This was on July 17, 1899. The Yamagata Cabinet accomplished great feats in the administration of complicated and extensive political affairs after the Sino-Japanese War, and laid the foundations for the future development of Japan. But as a representative of the old bureaucracy, a survivor of the discarded clan officials, he left many bureaucratic traces in the law and the governmental system by establishing the rule that the posts of War and Naval Ministers can be held only by officers on the active list, and by enlarging the power of the Privy Council, which hindered the healthy

development of political parties in later days.

Satisfied with his own performance in the enlargement of military preparations, completion of laws and institutions in general, revision of the election law, improvement of local governments, and advancement in the educational system and institutions, Yamagata tendered his resignation to the Throne in September, 1900.

Ito Forms the Seiyukai A little before that, Ito came back from his tour to China and wanted to organize a powerful political party himself, and the Liberal Party was anxious to get him to revive its power after its separation from the Yamagata Cabinet. The party wished to put Ito at its head, while Ito wanted to organize a party purely of his own without the help of any existing party. But the general trend of political affairs at this time finally compelled these two to become united into one, and the Liberal Party was renewed by Ito, assuming a new name, the Constitutional Liberal Party, or Rikken Seiyukai, on Sept. 15, 1900. On Oct. 9, 1900, Ito formed a cabinet for the fourth time, and it was welcomed by the party men and the people at large, but the reactionary movement of the House of Peers shortened its life, and Ito never again had an opportunity for organizing a cabinet, although he had much to do yet for national politics, especially in the field of Korean affairs.

The Katsura Cabinet On June 2, 1901, General Katsura formed his cabinet upon the basis of bureaucracy again. Katsura and the members of his Cabinet were rather young compared with those of the preceding cabinets, and the Elder Statesmen were anxious about their ability, but Katsura was quick to see the unrest in the Seiyukai and immediately took steps to control

it for the convenience of the Government. In this he succeeded fairly well, and the 16th session of the Diet passed off in peace, at the beginning of the year 1902, winning, at the same time, the general applause of the people on the conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance on Feb. 12, 1902. The 7th general election was held on Aug. 10, 1902, in which the number of the Lower House members was enlarged from 300 to 376, and as the result the Seiyukai gained 189 seats, the Kensei-honto 104, the Empire Party 18, the San-shi Club 7, and Independents 58. As is always the case with a bureaucratic cabinet, even this clever and skilled tactician met with strong opposition from the Elder Statesmen and the two great parties over the problem of raising funds for naval expansion by increasing the land tax, and the 17th session was dissolved because of a direct collision between the Lower House and the Katsura Cabinet. It did not end in the victory of the Government, but Katsura again made a painstaking effort to utilize parties, and found a way out in the 18th session by changing his policy from raising the land tax to floating a public loan to obtain the necessary means for the proposed navy extension.

Saionji Succeeds Ito The Katsura Cabinet had been in power over two years already and the general atmosphere suggested a change when the threatening state of affairs in Manchuria was further complicated by the aggressive policy of the Russian Government. Katsura was ordered to stay at his post although he tendered his resignation, largely because of the pressure of Ito, who was a Genro (see the article in Chapter IV, Government, for the meaning of "Genro") and the head of the Seiyukai at the same time. Ac-

ording to the advice of Yamagata and Matsukata, who were also Genro, Ito and Saionji exchanged positions and President Ito of the Seiyukai was appointed President of the Privy Council; while Saionji, President of the Council, succeeded Ito as that of the Seiyukai.

Saionji is the only remaining Genro at present. He was a progressive statesman, and it was his earnest desire to see a pure party cabinet come into existence sooner or later. He had been many times suggested as Premier but had always refused, as he considered it unreasonable and bureaucratic to form a cabinet with no backing in the House of Representatives, so he gladly accepted this proposal of the Seiyukai and made great efforts for the revival of the party, which had shrunk to 120 from its absolute majority of 193 at the beginning of the 18th session largely because of long inner disturbances.

At the same time, the rival party Kensei-honto was also experiencing the same kind of internal troubles because of Katsura's despotic policy for reducing the power of all parties, and it was natural that the two parties should unite to impeach the Katsura Cabinet. The 19th session was convoked at the end of 1903, with Kono, President of the House of Representatives, and Iyesato Tokugawa, that of the House of Peers. But this session was dissolved immediately after its opening meeting because of the resolution impeaching the Government.

War with Russia War was declared against Russia on Feb. 10, 1904. The emergency session of the Diet was convoked on March 18 and the regular one on Dec. 28 of the same year, and in the latter the Diet unanimously passed a budget of ordinary expenses ¥110,000,000 and war disbursement ¥780,000,000. The famous

victories at Port Arthur, Mukden and the Japan Sea finally brought peace, and by the mediation of President Roosevelt the peace treaty was concluded between Japan and Russia on Sept. 5, 1905. On the same day riots broke out in Tokyo and other big cities because of the general dissatisfaction with the terms of the peace treaty, and Tokyo was put under martial law. Ito, President of the Privy Council, went to Korea by Imperial Order in November and that country was made a protectorate of Japan, Ito becoming the first Resident-General, while Komura, who returned from Portsmouth, immediately went to Peking and concluded treaties with China on Japanese rights and privileges to settle the problems arising from the peace treaty.

The Saionji Cabinet The Katsura Cabinet remained in power as long as 4 years and 7 months and accomplished several important enterprises, but taking the responsibility for the riots and for a disturbance in the Tokyo Imperial University, which also occurred in connection with the conclusion of the Peace Treaty, resigned in January, 1906, and Saionji was ordered to form a cabinet; but he failed to organize one of pure party-government because of the great power of bureaucracy behind the national politics. The most important measure in the 22nd session of the Diet was that for the State ownership of all railways. With great difficulty it was passed with an amendment by the House of Peers. The peace-loving Saionji strove for the civilization of Manchuria, transforming the military rule into civil administration. It was an expression of this policy that the South Manchuria Railway Company was established in this year.

While the Seiyukai became prosperous as the government party,

the Kensei-honto had a hard time and Okuma finally left it on Jan. 20, 1907.

The Saionji Cabinet continued for two-and-half years fighting against the forces of bureaucracy, and the Seiyukai obtained an absolute majority of 190 at the 10th election, May, 1908. But Saionji left his position a little after the election partly because of his illness and partly owing to the stubborn pressure of the bureaucrats, who were specially critical of his liberal policy toward the socialists, who had gradually increased in numbers since the Sino-Japanese War.

The Second Katsura Cabinet The second Katsura Cabinet which was formed on July 14, 1908, was of course bureaucratic. One notable phenomenon of the 10th election was the appearance of representatives of business men in the Lower House, prophetic of the rise of the business class who now rode on the universal tide of capitalism. Katsura saw the change of the times and allied himself with business men to realize his policy for a readjustment of the taxation system and consolidation of the public loan. But the Seiyukai having so large a number of seats as 193 in the Lower House at the 25th session, Katsura could do nothing without their agreement. With his usual tactics he came to a full understanding with them and the 25th and 26th sessions passed off very quietly.

The Kensei-honto kept only 65 seats in the Lower House and internal discord caused it to dwindle further. But stimulated by the increase of the Seiyukai, it united with other forces on March 18, 1910, and merged itself into a new party named the Rikken Kokuminto or Constitutional Nationalist Party. This new party had 92 members in

the Lower House and was led by Inukai and Oishi.

During the three years' régime of the second Katsura Cabinet the outstanding events were the first general arrest of socialists and the annexation of Korea. The latter was hastened by the assassination of Ito by a Korean at Harbin station on Oct. 26, 1909. Terauchi, Minister of War, was appointed to the additional post of Resident-General of Korea in May, 1910, and on Aug. 29 of the same year Korea was at last annexed to Japan.

Army Division Increase Question Saionji became Premier for the second time on Aug. 30, 1911. His Cabinet was supported by 214 Seiyukai members in the House of Representatives and this time he could form it without much regard for bureaucracy, although he could not yet wholly get rid of its interference, both public and secret. While he was in power, the Emperor Meiji passed away amid the sorrow and lamentation of the people on July 30, 1912, and the Emperor Taisho came to the Throne. After this national event, bureaucratic forces began to work again and caused through General Uyehara, Minister of War, an increase of two Army divisions proposed. Uyehara resigned his position independently because of the rejection of his proposal by the Cabinet. Saionji asked Yamagata to recommend his successor, but this Elder Statesman, who had himself established the military minister system for military and naval departments, and was the leader of the bureaucratic and military forces, rejected Saionji's request, and the Cabinet collapsed at once.

But this plot of the dark forces stirred up the party men to the extreme, and loud cries arose for the destruction of bureaucracy and pro-

tection of constitutional government, when Katsura appeared for the third time to form his bureaucratic government. Katsura tried every means to still the general antagonism, but in vain. Inukai, Ozaki, Ohoka and other influential party men led the national movement with the backing of public opinion for putting an end to bureaucracy, and the situation became so critical that to push Katsura's policy further meant something like the outbreak of a civil war, consequently he was compelled to resign after but 53 days. This was an epoch-making event in the political history of Japan and real party-government was now at hand, although Katsura was succeeded by Yamamoto, who was one of the foremost navy men at that time.

Yamamoto to Okuma The defeated Katsura sadly realized the power of parties and organized the Rikken Doshikai or Constitutional Comrades Party after his resignation, and the 31st session of the Diet was held at the beginning of 1914, with the classification of members of the Lower House as follows:

Seiyukai	203	Chuseikai	57
Doshikai	93	Independents	7
Kokuminto	40		

The Yamamoto Cabinet was supported by the Seiyukai and had no doubt about passing the Navy Increase Bill. But the unexpected exposure of bribery in high naval circles, the so-called "Commission Scandal", caused the overthrow of the Government at the end of March, 1914. The council of Genro had a hard time in the choice of the person to be recommended for the Premiership, and after considering several candidates Okuma was finally ordered to form a cabinet.

About 15 years had passed since Okuma left his party the Kenseito, and when he once more took the posi-

tion of Premier the public welcomed him with sympathy and he answered to the public goodwill by reducing the power of navy men in politics with the support of the Doshikai which contained many former members of the old Kenseito. It was during his Premiership that Japan entered the World War on Aug. 23, 1914.

It was the Seiyukai's turn to tread the thorny path of opposition. President Saionji had left it in 1913, and Hara had been its practical leader since then, and the number of members was declining when the question of election of the President arose. Opinions were divided and many a member wanted to call Saionji back, but he was too unselfish to accept the proposal and earnestly recommended Hara to be the new President of the Seiyukai.

The new President Hara was a plain untitled man, but a man of rare ability, and the Seiyukai renewed its strength under his leadership.

Okuma's Sweep The 35th session was dissolved because of the rejection of the Army Division Increase Bill by the Seiyukai and the Nationalist party. The general election of March, 1914, ended in victory for the pro-governmental parties, largely because of the aggressive interference of Oura, the Home Minister, the backing of a business clan and the sympathetic campaign conducted by the faculty and students of Waseda University, which had been founded by Okuma. The Doshikai gained 150 seats in the House of Representatives against 104 of the Seiyukai, which was reduced to half its former number. But the latter stubbornly attacked the Government on Oura's interference with the election and other matters, and compelled Oura to leave the Cabinet by bringing a public suit against him.

Okuma once tendered his resignation to the Throne in relation to this matter, but was asked to stay at his post and reorganize the Cabinet on July 30, 1915, thereby prolonging its existence for three months.

The Rice Riots At this time the Kenseikai was organized under Takaaki (Komei) Kato by the combination of the Doshikai Party, the Koyu Club, and the Chuseikai on Oct. 10, 1915, in the expectation of organizing the next cabinet. But Masataké (Seiki) Terauchi was recommended instead, and he again formed a transcendental government, a sort of off-shoot of the old Choshu clan; he soon met with a vote of non-confidence by the Lower House, and the 38th session was instantly dissolved. After the general election the Terauchi Cabinet got the support of the Seiyukai and the Nationalist Party and managed to get through the 39th and 40th sessions without damage to the Government. But the general cost of living shot up to unreasonable heights owing to the vast increase of capitalistic business during the World War, and the artificial rise in the price of rice caused nationwide rice riots in August, 1918, and the riots shook the foundation of the Cabinet, so that Terauchi was forced to resign on Sept. 21.

Formation of Party Government

Among the five Genro, Inouyé and Oyama, who had been the commander of armies at the time of the Russo-Japanese War, had died, and Yamagata, Matsukata and Saionji were the only ones left now, and they chose Saionji, the youngest, to be the next Premier. The Emperor requested Saionji to form a cabinet, but he was clever enough to see the progress of democracy among the people and courteously declined the Imperial appointment and recom-

mended Hara instead. Yamagata finally yielded and gave his consent to this decision, but asked Hara to form a coalition cabinet of the Seiyukai and the bureaucrats.

The First Party Cabinet Hara rejected his suggestion and for the first time in Japanese party history a cabinet was organized by party men only, except for two or three ministers who were mostly pro-Seiyukai.

As was mentioned above, the political parties of Japan were originated by the statesmen of the samurai class and had much of the bureaucratic element in themselves, and the clan statesmen had the confidence of the Imperial Court and wielded real power in general politics as a matter of fact, regardless of the public opinion represented and expressed by the political parties or through the press. Up to the first half of the Taisho Era the political parties could not make much progress as independent bodies, and were almost always made use of by the clan statesmen or military leaders, not having enough power of their own to form a party cabinet, but allowing themselves to become tools of bureaucracy even when the head of the party himself organized a cabinet. But the remarkable development of capitalism and rapid progress of democratic thought among the people at the time of the World War and afterwards caused a decline in the power of the bureaucrats. The coming of Hara, President of the Seiyukai, who was a commoner, into power gave almost the last blow to the old bureaucracy, which gradually faded away by the beginning of the Showa Era.

Hara's Policy The policy of the Hara Cabinet was, in outline, the completion of national defence, the improvement of the educational sys-

tem, the promotion of all business and the adjustment of traffic organs. The establishment of the jury system, the improvement and enlargement of the higher educational organs, and the revision of the Election Law must be counted to the credit of this Cabinet. Hara showed his democratic spirit in revising the military governmental system of Taiwan and Chosen so that a civil official might become the Governor-General of a colony. The 41st session passed without much disturbance. But the Seiyukai had not yet an absolute majority and when the anti-cabinet parties proposed the bill of universal suffrage at the following session, Hara took advantage of it and dissolved the Lower House to get his much-wanted majority. The result of the general election held on May 10, 1920, was as follows:

Seiyukai	279	Kokuminto	29
Kenseikai	108	Neutrals	48

Hara was able to do as he pleased, for he again had the support of the great Seiyukai, and pushing aside all opposition from his political foes he was advancing brilliantly toward the completion of the said policies when he fell a victim to the dagger of a young assassin at Tokyo Station on Nov. 4, 1921. He was succeeded as President of the Seiyukai by Korekiyo Takahashi, who organized his Cabinet after the incident, but it was short-lived and was compelled to resign within 6 months. The Seiyukai had troubles among themselves, while the other great party, the Kenseikai, was rather weak so that bureaucratic cabinets were organized one after another for about three years. When Count Kiyoura formed his bureaucratic Cabinet in Jan., 1924, the Seiyukai was divided into two on the question of supporting or not supporting the new cabinet, and the majority of its members who were

pro-cabinet seceded from the Seiyukai and organized the Seiyu-honto under the leadership of Yamamoto, Motoda, Nakahashi and Tokonami.

The General Election of 1924 The Kiyoura Cabinet dissolved the 48th session of the Imperial Diet and at the general election which was held in May, 1924, the opposition parties, namely, the Kenseikai, and the Kakushin Club stood up against the Government rallying their forces in defence of parliamentarism, and under Premier Kato who was the head of the then largest party, the Kenseikai, a coalition cabinet of the three parties was realized. This was the death-blow to the bureaucracy of Japan; the clan chieftains and bureaucrats entirely lost their power as a political class and the bourgeois parties completely took their place, the final blow being the passing of the Universal Suffrage Law at the 50th session of the Diet.

Universal Suffrage

The 50th session of the Diet was convoked on Dec. 25, 1924, and it became a memorable one by passing the Universal Suffrage Bill. The demand for universal suffrage had a long history, but it seemed impossible to realize it as long as bureaucracy had its iron grip on all such questions. But the time had come for the mass of the people to voice their convictions on politics with freedom. This time the Government itself drafted the bill and it was first subjected to the examination of the Privy Council. The conservative Council advised revisions and the Government sent it to the House of Representatives which passed the original bill of the Government and sent it to the House of Peers. The latter House could not directly oppose it, but passed it with amendments on weighty points pretty nearly to the same degree as

those of the Privy Council. The consultations between the two Houses were repeated, and the Universal Suffrage Bill was passed, to come into force on May 5 of the same year. The antagonistic attitude of the House of Peers toward universal suffrage resulted in a revision of the House of Peers Law to the effect that the number of Kazoku or noblemen among its members was decreased.

Side by side with the accession of the bourgeois parties to power, there broke out many political movements of radicals and proletarians in the form of political parties (see the following articles on these parties). Radicals among the existing parties organized their own party, the Kakushin Club, mentioned above, in Nov., 1922, by the combination of the group of Ozaki, Shimada and their comrades who had left the Kenseikai, with the Nationalists' Party which was led by Inukai, and one other group. But in May, 1925, it broke up, and Inukai and his colleagues joined the Seiyukai. Later the Kakushin Club dwindled into a very small party, although it played an important part in the doings of the Imperial Diet.

There was another movement organized by business men under the leadership of Sanji Muto in April, 1923, but this party was unable to get much sympathy from the general public.

Tanaka to Hamaguchi Viscount Takahashi resigned the Presidency of the Seiyukai and General Baron Tanaka was called from outside to succeed him in April, 1925. This change broke up the unity of the Coalition Cabinet of the three parties mentioned above, and it was forced to give up office. It was followed by a Kenseikai Cabinet under Premier Kato in August of the same year. The Premier fell ill and died, and

Wakatsuki, the new President of the Kenseikai was ordered to form a cabinet in January, 1926. Tokonami, who led the Seiyu-honto, took a very ambiguous attitude toward the other parties, but finally joined Wakatsuki and the two parties became one on June 1, 1927, assuming the new name of Minseito. Of this new party Hamaguchi became President while Wakatsuki and Tokonami were made advisers.

On the other hand, the Seiyukai began to rally its power gradually under the leadership of Tanaka, inviting Inukai and his comrades and a part of the Seiyu-honto to join them and after the collapse of the Wakatsuki Cabinet in April, 1927, the Tanaka Cabinet came into being. But unsatisfied with the result of the first general election by universal suffrage in 1928, they tried hard to collect as many members as possible from among the neutrals and the Minseito. At the same time, Tokonami, who had lost hope of becoming the head of the new Minseito Party, seceded from it in August of the same year, and afterward, when the Hamaguchi Cabinet was formed in July, 1929, he went back to his old home, the Seiyukai.

In July, 1929, Hamaguchi organized the Minseito Cabinet and his party won an absolute majority in the House of Representatives as the result of the second universal suffrage election in the following year. But on Nov. 14, 1930, Hamaguchi was shot at Tokyo Station, and although he lived another year his wound finally proved fatal and hard times again visited the Minseito. Wakatsuki became its President again and formed a Cabinet in April, 1931.

With retrenchment as its war-cry, the Wakatsuki Cabinet carried out a general reduction of the salaries of officials and tried to make

readjustments in the administrative, financial and tax systems, but without success. The Manchurian Incident of Sept. 18, 1931, occurred near Mukden. The Manchurian problem and the relations between Japan and China had been becoming more acute year by year and the Manchurian railway affair called the attention of the world to the impending collision of the two nations. The incident proved a turning-point in the drift of national politics which now headed in a very different direction not only in diplomacy, but also in many home affairs. The Army and Navy took the lead over the Manchurian problem, no doubt, but they could do so only because the people at large sympathized with and supported them. The budget for the fiscal year 1931-1932 could not be made out without floating a national loan or increasing the taxes, which would of course be most unwelcome to the people at large. Rowdiness and riotous struggles in the House of Representatives at the 59th session which was held at the beginning of 1931, greatly lowered the standing of the House in the eyes of the people and the inability of the Imperial Diet to take any decided course of action after the Manchurian Incident brought parliamentary government into discredit with the nation, and this state of affairs much affected the stability of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. In October, 1931, Wakatsuki expressed his wish to resign, and there arose discussions on the wisdom of forming a new cabinet which might combine the forces of the Minseito and Seiyukai. But opinion was divided, and in the end the Wakatsuki Cabinet was forced to resign on December 11.

Inukai and the Embargo Inukai, who became President of the Seiyukai in 1929 after the death of Tanaka, publicly announced his idea of re-

imposing the gold embargo at the general meeting of his party on November 10, and the resignation of the Wakatsuki Cabinet, which came immediately after it, therefore, suggested the possibility of something serious taking place in case the choice of the succeeding government was not well made. Saionji, the Genro, laid the nomination of Inukai to the Premiership before the Throne, and on December 13, 1931, the single Seiyukai Cabinet came into power.

The Inukai Cabinet proclaimed the re-imposition of the gold ban on the day following its installation, as had been expected. This Cabinet had a minority in the Lower House, so they intended to dissolve the Diet at the coming session when suitable occasion arose, to seek for an expression of national confidence at the general election, and hastened to make preparations for it. Hardly had a week passed before it changed most of the local governors to those who were favourable to the Seiyukai, because these officials had direct influence over the general election. The new Cabinet had assumed the post but two weeks before the 60th session of the Diet and had no time for planning a budget of its own, it had, therefore, to borrow that of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. It was, nevertheless, presented to the Diet with some changes or revisions, but it failed to be passed because of the dissolution on January 21, 1932.

Previous to this, an unexpected event endangered the life of the Cabinet. It was nothing less than a bomb thrown at the Emperor's procession near the Sakurada Gate of the Palace Grounds and before the headquarters of the Metropolitan Police. The Emperor and an Imperial Prince narrowly escaped injury. This act of "lèse majesté" compelled the cabinet to resign, but

the Emperor did not ask them to assume responsibility, and encouraged them to continue in office, and Inukai and other members of the Cabinet pledged their patriotism and loyalty to the Throne, in spite of public opinion which was rather against their holding on to the reins of power.

The Seiyukai's Victory The general election of Feb. 20th was carried out amidst the apparent apathy of the people at large because their attention was absorbed by the Manchurian problem and the events in Shanghai which seemed to be impelling the nation towards international discord, with war as a final outcome. But the result was that the Seiyukai, the government party, piled up the grand majority of 304 while the Minseito dwindled to 146.

The Seiyukai Cabinet, which had gained the absolute majority in the House of Representatives, was to call an extraordinary session of the Diet in March to decide upon the emergency military expenses.

The May 15 Affair. In the meantime, the new State of Manchoukuo was born, and the activities of international diplomacy helped to solve the complications in Shanghai, warfare there being terminated by mutual agreement. But Japan's international relations became strained and the world's attitude toward Japan, due to her persistence in military actions, became, reasonably or not, increasingly unfavourable, which reacted badly on the Inukai Government. The financial condition held out little hope for the business world, and the Government was unable to make any positive plans for the present and future of the public welfare. On the other hand, the general social and political unrest, and the discredit brought on parliamentary government helped the rapid growth of national so-

cialistic thought in the minds of the people, and the organization of various Fascist associations among the hot-heads, both young and old. The repeated assassinations disturbed the public mind to the last extreme, and alarming rumours spread from the metropolis to the remotest parts of the Empire. The veteran statesman Inukai, the Premier, was eager to protect parliamentarism by making a thorough improvement of the political parties and realizing an even distribution of political benefits among the people in general instead of a partial accumulation of it in the hands of privileged classes. But the younger elements of the nation were too hasty-tempered to place reliance in his words and idealism, and on the evening of May 15, 1932, a dozen young cadets and officers of the Imperial Army and Navy armed with pistols broke into his official residence at Nagata-cho, Tokyo, and finding him in his Japanese sitting room pointed their weapons at him. "Wait a moment," said Inukai quietly. "Let us talk things over and you will understand my ideas." But without answering a word they fired, and the Premier fell. At the same time another band of young farmers attacked the transformer stations in the suburbs with intent to throw the city into darkness, but they were caught before they could carry it out. (See page 170.)

The Saito Cabinet Consequently the Cabinet, having lost its head, immediately tendered its resignation to the Throne. Saionji recommended Viscount Saito to the Throne after a thorough consultation with such experienced statesmen as might well be called vice-Genro. The Saito Cabinet was composed of five bureaucrats, three representatives of the House of Peers, three Seiyukai members, and two Minseito members,

so that it was called a "National Cabinet."

At its second extraordinary session in 1932, the Imperial Diet passed the most important resolutions on the relief of the financial hardship of farmers and the recognition of the new state Manchoukuo. The latter was carried out in spite of obstacles, visible or otherwise, and to carry out the former decision a vast amount of money was needed

in order to give substantial aid to the hard-stricken farmers, with their debt of ¥6,000,000,000.

Strength of Political Parties The present strength of each political party may be roughly shown in the following table, which gives the results of the 18th general election in February 1932, the third since universal manhood suffrage was adopted.

Parties	Candidates	Elected	Before Dissolution	Increase or Decrease
Bourgeois Parties				
1. Seiyukai	342	304	171	+ 133
2. Pro-Seiyu	10	—	—	—
3. Minseito	278	146	249	- 103
4. Pro-Minsei	5	1	—	+ 1
5. Kakushinto	4	—	3	- 1
6. Business Men's Party	—	—	6	- 6
7. Japan Seisanto	1	—	—	—
Proletariat Parties				
1. Social Democrats	15	3	2	+ 1
2. Pro-Social Demo.	1	—	—	—
3. National Labour-Farmer Mass Party	13	2	3	- 1
4. Other Parties	4	—	—	—
Neutral				
1. Adachi Party	12	5	10	- 5
2. Others	23	3	6	- 3
Total	708	466	450	

VOTES OBTAINED

	Votes for the Elected	Votes for the Defeated	Total
Bourgeois	1. 5,340,159	334,472	5,674,631
	2. —	29,579	29,579
	3. 2,077,718	1,305,543	3,383,261
	4. 10,443	9,902	20,345
	5. 29,826	9,562	39,388
	6. —	—	—
	7. —	1,445	1,445
Neut. Prolet.	1. 49,774	72,488	122,262
	2. —	3,496	3,496
	3. 37,829	96,535	134,364
	4. —	18,669	18,669
Total	7,677,882	2,035,487	9,713,319

The Kokumin Domei was organized on Dec. 22, 1932, under President Adachi, and announced itself as a non-governmental party.

The 64th Session of the Diet The

64th session of the Imperial Diet was convened on Dec. 24, 1932, with the following line-up in the Houses:

House of Peers:	
(Number of members, 402, vacancies 4)	
Imperial Princes	18
Kenkyukai	148
Koseikai	69
Dowakai	41
Koyu Club	40
Kayokai	34
Doseikai	15
Independents	37
House of Representatives:	
(Number of members, 459, vacancies 7)	
Seiyukai	298
Minseito	116
Kokumin-Domei	32
Proletarian Parties, etc.	13

This session closed on March 25, 1933. It was a peaceful or rather monotonous one, and passed the

budget of over ¥2,300,000,000 without a single cut, and 51 of the 53 bills proposed by the Government and 7 of the 97 bills proposed by the members of the Diet. Among those passed, there were such important laws as the Farmer-Village Debt Readjustment Law, a law for the relief of the people of Tohoku district who had suffered from the recent earthquake and tidal waves, the Child Ill-treatment Prevention Law, the Juvenile Protection Law, and the revision of the Iron-manufacture Promotion Law which meant the union of all the largest iron-manufacturing works.

Political Movement of the Proletariat

There were frequent outbreaks of rice riots in the days of the Tokugawa Shogunate. But the samurai class was above the farmers and artisans, who had neither political power nor military force.

Labour Movement Takes Shape When modern commerce and industry were introduced to Japan in the Meiji Era and capitalism began to have sway over the working people, labour movements became active as a matter of course.

On the 1st of December, 1897, the Iron Workers' Union was organized in Tokyo with over one thousand members, and this was the first trade union in Japan.

Public Peace Police Law In 1900 the Imperial Diet passed a bill and enacted it into a law. The law was entitled the Public Peace Police Law. It proved to be the death knell to all phases of the labour movement, preventing the working classes from organizing themselves into unions. The law practically prohibited the industrial working classes as well as the tenant farmers from agitating in their own interests and against the employers and

land-owners. And later the law was interpreted to mean that all labour movements were a crime.

In 1901, a socialist party was organized which was called the Social Democratic Party, the original members being S. Kotoku, I. Abé, N. Kinoshita, K. Kawakami, K. Nishikawa, and S. Katayama. It was soon suppressed by the authorities and transformed into a non-political organization, namely, the Socialist Association.

Marxism Introduced It was in 1903 that the socialist theory of Marxism was first introduced to the Japanese radicals, and the theory soon attracted large numbers of students. In 1906, the Socialist Party was organized for the second time, and on Feb. 17th, 1907, the first anniversary meeting of the party was held in Tokyo. The resolution at the meeting announced the aims of the party as follows: a radical and fundamental change of the existing society, universal suffrage, anti-militarism and anti-religion. Later the socialists began conflicts and were divided over the question of socialist tactics into two groups, i.e. Marxists and direct actionists. Secret activities of radical socialists and stern suppression of the same by the Government developed more and more desperate tactics on both sides, and the Government finally came by a chance to destroy the entire socialist movement in the bud. They instituted the famous anarchist trial in 1911, in which Kotoku and twenty-three others were condemned as traitors, and he with eleven others suffered the death penalty.

Marxist propaganda and leadership of strikes and even anarchists' movement did not cease with the trial and execution of Kotoku and his comrades. One of the most conspicuous events in the annals of their movement was the death of S.

Osugi and his colleagues in the midst of the Great Earthquake commotion in Tokyo at the hands of the reactionaries.

But it must be said that Japanese social movement entered into a new era by the stimulus from the Russian Revolution in 1917 and its later development.

The Labour-Farmer Party The suppression of the Nippon Socialist Party in 1907 and the stern policy of the Government against socialist movements made the Japanese proletariat suffer and grope in the dark for the next decade.

In June, 1924, a society was established for the study of politics to prepare for the organization of a proletarian party. And by the proposal of the Japan Farmers' Union the first national proletarian party was organized on Oct. 1st, 1925, and it was called the Farmer-Labour Party. But this party met the Government's order of suppression on the very day of its organization because of its communistic elements. Thereupon, the left-wing elements were expelled and right-wing elements in the shape of the Japan Federation of Labour, were added, and in March, 1926, the Labour-Farmer Party was formed, with Mr. Motojiro Sugiyama as its president.

Schism in Proletarian Parties The Labour-Farmer Party soon became a nest of quarrelling cliques, and the question of opening the door to communistic elements gave a motive for the secession of the Japan Federation of Labour and the right leaders Iso-o Abé, Toyohiko Kagawa, etc., who established the Social Democratic Party with the Federation as its main element and Abé as its President on December 5, 1926. The new party rejected communism and insisted upon parliamentarism as a pure social-democratic party.

Contemporaneous with the forma-

tion of the Social Democrats, the left-wing elements of the Japan Federation of Labour and the right-wing elements of the Japan Farmers' Union organized the Japan Labour-Farmer Party under the leadership of Hisashi Aso-o on December 9, 1926, insisting upon the establishment of a right road for the proletarian movement.

The Labour-Farmer Party, which was stripped of half its force by the continuous secession of the right-wing elements, made Ikuo Ohyama its head and opened its doors to the communistic societies. The result was that it was practically led by the Japan Communists and played the part of a legitimate communistic party; and it was compelled to dissolve on the 10th of April, 1928, being suppressed by the Tanaka Cabinet after the wholesale arrest of the Japan Communists on the 15th of March of the same year.

The old leaders of the dissolved Labour-Farmer Party organized a preparatory society for the establishment of a new party and endeavoured to realize their plan, but always met with the pressure of the authorities, and finally organized the Proletarian People's Party under the theoretical leadership of Hitoshi Yamakawa.

Their Union In the meantime, the right-wing elements of the Japan Union of Farmers organized the Japan Farmer Party with the idea of establishing a representative Japanese party of farmers under the slogan, "Farmers come to the Party of Farmers", on October 17, 1926, and there arose many small local proletarian societies or parties in different districts.

Such rivalry and disunion among proletarian parties naturally called forth a demand for the unification of fighting lines, and the parties, which kept to the middle way, like

the Japan Labour-Farmer Party, the Japan Farmer-Labour Party and the General Proletarian Party, which were the three national proletarian parties, and the Proletarian Constitutional Party, the People's Party in the central district and two other local parties were all united into one and organized the Japan Mass Party.

The General Proletarian Party organized an anti-separation union and protested against the leaders of the Japan Mass Party, but they themselves were soon dissolved into the Tokyo Proletarian Party for the Masses and other local proletarian parties.

The leaders of the former Labour-Farmer Party, who had formed a preparatory society for the establishment of a new party just after the dissolution of their party, continued their movement for its reconstruction, but their project was prohibited half-way, and the preparatory society itself was ordered to close. They were thus compelled to organize a labour-farmer union, an illegitimate body, for obtaining political freedom and did not cease to follow a communistic policy. But they were involved in the wholesale raids on the Japan Communists on March 15, 1928, and April 16, 1929, in which the ablest radical leaders were accused of being members of the Communistic Party and were mostly arrested so that their movement came to an end. The leaders who escaped the raid such as Ikuo Ohyama and Hajimé Kawakami organized a Labour-Farmer Party on November 1, 1929. The purpose of their new movement was to proclaim the need of obtaining the right of public activity as a lawful left-wing party by establishing a standing political organization.

While the left and midway parties had been continually combining and

re-dissolving, the right-wing party of the proletariat or the Social Democratic Party alone developed without a hitch for some time, but in Sept., 1929, the Osaka Union of the Japan Federation of Labour, the main element of the party, separated from the federation and consequently withdrew from the party and established the National Democratic Party on January 15, 1930. But this party was united with the Japan Mass Party on the 20th of July of the same year and formed the National Mass Party.

The N. L. F. Mass Party The movement for the greater union of the proletarian parties was continued and the Society for the Realization of Unity of Proletarian Parties, which was a bloc of those who insisted on the unconditional union among the members of the National Mass Party, the Labour-Farmer Party and the Social Democratic Party, organized the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party on the 6th of July, 1931. In this new party there was no head of the central executive committee, but Hisashi Aso-o, President of the former National Mass Party, was appointed to the chair of the chief secretary, who also served as Acting President. Ikuo Ohyama, President of the former Labour-Farmer Party, retired from all official positions and went abroad. This National Labour-Farmer Mass Party stood between the extreme left and right, but the inner control gradually became loose and Hajimé Kawakami and Kanemitsu Hososeko were expelled along with some other members. These two were arrested as strong sympathizers with the Japan Communists.

Social Mass Party In 1931, the National-Socialist movement suddenly appeared on the surface of the sea of social unrest, and the tide of Fascism began to permeate the

proletarian fighting lines; the right-wing of the legitimate proletarian parties turned toward National Socialism. On the other hand, the left-wing was influenced by the Japan Communists, who never ceased their secret movements in spite of the constant interference of the authorities, and the power of the proletarian parties was greatly reduced. This state of affairs induced another union, and on the 24th of July, 1931, the Social Mass Party was organized by the union of the Social Democratic Party and the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party. This new party elected Iso-o Abé, Chairman of the Central Executive Committee; and Hisashi Aso-o, Chief Secretary. The platform of the party was as follows:

(1) We will fight for the protection of the lives of the labour, farmer, and general working masses.

(2) We aim at the destruction of capitalism and the emancipation of the proletariat.

And this new party is acting as a social democratic party, rejecting both Communism and Fascism.

Universal Suffrage and Proletariat Since the birth of proletarian political parties with the purpose of sending representatives to the Diet, there have been three general elections. The latest campaign was at the third general election which was held on February 20, 1932, under the Inukai Cabinet in consequence of the dissolution of the Diet at the 60th session in the previous month. In this election, the proletarian parties made plans for fighting against capitalistic parties, from their past experiences and on the basis of their characteristic principles and policies, and sending out 36 candidates, fought bravely with public speeches as their only weapon. The result was 5 members elected, with the gain of 290,979 votes. To make a compar-

ison with the former elections, the number of successful candidates on the first occasion was 8 or 3 more, and on the second one it was 5 or the same number as at the last, while in the number of votes they lost at the third election 201,242, compared with the first one, and 207,242, compared with the second one. But the number of the candidates was much smaller than the previous ones, so that the number of votes per capita increased to 8,083 from 5,593 of the first and 5,475 of the second election, or every proletarian candidate at the latest election gained about 3,000 more votes than at the previous two general elections.

Decrease in Candidates The reason of the decrease in the number of candidates at the third general election may be sought in the long financial depression the country over, and especially in the extreme poverty of the farming villages which caused difficulty in raising funds for the campaign. And the reasons of defeat may be counted as follows:

(1) The rivalry among the proletarian parties themselves in the same field of campaign.

(2) The defects in the system of the proletarian parties and the weakness of their influence on their constituencies.

(3) The lack of appeal of the proletarian parties for the unorganized mass of people.

(4) The inconveniences of the existing election laws for the proletarian parties.

The following table shows a comparison of the results of the three campaigns conducted by the proletarian parties:

Feb., 1928	Candidates	Elected	Votes Cast
Social Democratic	19	4	128,756
Japan Labour-Farmer	13	1	85,975
Labour-Farmer	40	2	193,028
Japan Farmer	13	0	46,180

	Candidates	Elected	Votes Cast
Local Proletariat	3	1	87,282
Total	88	8	492,221
Feb., 1930			
Social Democrats	33	2	170,968
Japan Mass	22	2	161,342
Labour-Farmer	15	1	79,729
National Democrats	4	0	19,685
Local Proletariat, etc.	19	0	66,487
Total	91	5	498,221
Feb., 1932			
Social Democrats	15	3	122,262
National Labour-Farmer Mass	13	2	134,864
Japan National Socialist	3	0	15,477
Labour Union, Farmer Union, etc.	5	0	18,876
Total	36	5	200,979

The National Socialists

Orientation to National Socialism
In 1931 the Labour Union established the Japan Labour Club with the purpose of realizing a great union of the right wing. Stimulated by the supremacy of Fascism in Italy and the Fascisti movement of the Nazis in Germany, there appeared a movement for National Socialism among the members of the Social Democratic Party. Besides, after the Manchurian Incident the atmosphere among the Japanese people was very suitable for the growth of nationalism and patriotism, and the national socialistic section of the Party increased their power under the leadership of K. Akamatsu, chief secretary, and R. Hirano.

Their Platform At the same time, National Socialism began to make its mark among the members of the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party, which kept to the middle way, and especially it gained power among the members who belonged to the National Labour Union, the strongest supporter of the party. Some powerful leaders of the National Labour Union moved for the establishment of a National Socialistic Party, but their motion was rejected by the party and they seceded from it

in one body. The seceders met with those from the Social Democrats, and, on the 29th of May, they established the Japan National Socialist Party with K. Akamatsu at its head.

Activities of the Old Nationalists

The rise of the nationalistic tide, which coaxed the proletarian partisans away, correlatively gave inspiration to the activities of the old nationalists, and their leading principles began to take national socialistic colour in compliance with the change of the social state of affairs.

The Production Party The Great Nippon Production Party, an extreme right-wing party, which had hailed Japanese nationalism but vaguely, showed a sudden activity and absorbed the Nippon Nationalists, the Radical Patriots and other parties of similar nature at the end of 1931. Their aims are the reconstruction of anti-nationalistic institutions, according to the fundamental national spirit of Japan.

The Jimmu-kai On February 11, 1932, the anniversary of the Foundation of the Empire, the Jimmu-kai, a strong nationalists' society, was organized. The central element of the society was the Ko-chi Sha of Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, who had intimate connections with military men, and the new party was also helped by Hiroichiro Ishihara, a business man, Daisaku Komoto, a colonel, and the like. At the general election of 1932, rallying the young members of the Ko-chi Sha, the Great Nippon Production Party and other Nationalistic bodies, they sent out bands on a canvassing tour over the whole country for the propaganda of Nipponism, and put advertisements denouncing the existing political parties in all the leading newspapers. It is said that they gained over 50,000 new members in

a month or so of the campaign.

Super-legal Movements of the Rights
In addition to the national commotion arising from the Manchurian Incident, the failure of the crops in the north-eastern districts dealt a heavy blow to the poor villagers groaning under financial depression, and the problem of finding some means of relieving the people in the emergency became so acute that no time was to be lost. This nation-wide suffering and anxiety urged the right-wing movement to proceed to extremities, and they passed far beyond the limits of lawful action. In the midst of the election campaign, on February 9, 1932, Junnosuke Inoué, ex-Minister of Finance, was shot to death by a young man, Konuma, of the Blood Brotherhood League headed by Nissho Inoué, a priest of the Nichiren sect. On March 5, Takuma Dan, Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Mitsui Company and one of the ablest contemporary business men, was assassinated by Hishinuma, a member of the same secret association. At 5:30 in the afternoon of the 15th of May, Premier Inukai, was killed. This was the so-called "5:15 Affair" as it occurred on the fifteenth of the fifth month, 1932. The after-claps of the event appeared in the secret plots of Dr. Imamaki, adviser to the Jimmu-Kai, in the middle of August, and of the Tenko-Kai and the Independent Young Men's Association in November, and finally at the arrest of Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, head of the Jimmu-Kai and the Far Eastern Economic Research Bureau. With the May 15 Affair, Japanese Fascism reached its climax.

Later investigations showed that those directly connected with the affair were 10 young Navy officers, 11 students of the Military Academy and 21 farmers and scholars. After the arrest of members of the Blood

Brotherhood League formed by Nissho Inoué, who entertained a plan to kill representative men one by one, his comrades undertook the continuation of the work. Lieutenant Hitoshi Fujii a leader, had died in the battle at Shanghai on February 5, 1932, but had left a strong influence among his friends. Second lieutenants Kiyoshi Koga and Yoshio Nakamura, who belonged to the Kasumigaura airship corps, began to form bands with a view to bringing about a new government with the military as the central force, in plunging Tokyo into a state of siege by their sudden attack upon the capital. In the plot they were soon united by Kozaburo Tachibana, head of the Aikyo Juku (Village Loving School) of Ibaraki prefecture, and a leader of agricultural movement. Dr. Shumei Okawa, Hidezo Toyama, head of the Tenko-kai, and Kenichiro Homma also came to their help and, moreover, supplied them with necessary funds and arms. At 5:30 p. m. May 15, 1932, four bands composed of military officers and cadets armed with pistols, attacked several points of the capital and killed Inukai and others as mentioned above, while another band of farmers attempted to break into the transformer stations to throw the capital into darkness. Most of them were arrested on the day and the sentences for all of them (except one farmer who died in the meantime) were passed by February, 1934, the heaviest penalty given being imprisonment for life for Kozaburo Tachibana, but none of them were sentenced to death.

The Farmer-Central Movement As a result of the May 15 Affair the Saito Cabinet was organized. The new Government called the second Emergency Session of the Diet in June and the third one in August, and the Diet passed the "Resolution

for the Relief of the Economical Depression", for the purpose of relieving the impoverished villages of the farmers. The motive power of this action of the Imperial Diet was the Farmer-Central Movement of the Self-governing Farmers' Council and its sympathizers which became an incentive to the petition movement for the rescue of the peasant villages from the ruin which threatened them.

The Self-governing Farmers' Council is led by the farmer-central idea of Mr. N. Gondo, and rejecting both the strikes of farmers and national socialism, it endeavours to realize a farmer-central government with the harmonious co-operation of the ruling class and the people, putting the landowners, the landed farmers and the tenant farmers into one. The Council was organized by the association of the Nagano-Prefecture Japan Farmers' Association, the Emancipation Society, Mr. K. Tachibana, the head of the Aikyo Juku, (Village Loving School) and Mr. R. Nagano of the Japan Village Government Union, which was established in 1931, with him as its moving spirit.

Communist Movements

The fundamental idea of the socialistic movement in Japan is Marxism.

The Nippon Communist Society was apparently broken up by the wholesale raids of 1914 and 1915, and the members who then escaped arrest hid themselves deep in the bottom of society, and secretly continued their endeavours to reconstruct it. But the leaders of the new society, which they organized in 1927, were all arrested on the 16th April, 1928, and the remaining members had a hard time to accomplish the work under the constant oppression of the authorities, and the so-

ciety showed its activity before the public at the general election of 1931. It was for the third time scattered by the iron hand of the Government after February, 1931, but it continued its secret activities by the order of the International Headquarters with the side or sub-divisions of the communists.

The Japan Communist Society Its activities are carried on secretly and the Government prohibits its propaganda whether by speeches or the press, so it is difficult to know of its real nature. But it is understood that its power and influence are on the increase in spite of the constant arrest of its members. Its slogan of 1932 was "the reconstruction and enlargement of the Society and its popularization." It aims at and works for the abolition of parliamentary government, the destruction or revision of capitalistic control of industry and reactionary labour laws, the relief of international unemployment, the improvement of all labour managements, the betterment of the conditions and privileges of women, the abolition or lightening of the penalties imposed upon communists, and its propaganda among the factory workers and the people at large.

The Kopf¹ This federation of proletarian artists was organized in November, 1932, and it works for the education of labourers, farmers and other workers in politics and economy, the improvement of the labourer's living, the establishment of proletarian civilization on Lenin-Marxism, the freedom of speech, publication, exhibition, drama, movies, and broadcasting, the creation of cultural institutions for labourers and all workers.

¹ Federacio de Proletaĵ Kultur Organizaĵo Japanaĵ.

Political Affairs in 1933-34

On January 8th Admiral Okada, Minister of Marine, resigned and the portfolio was given to Admiral Minéo Osumi.

The 64th session of the Diet came to an end on March 25, after passing the 1933-34 budget, of over ¥2,300,000,000, and 58 bills. Among the latter there were such important laws as the Farmer-Village Debt Readjustment Law, the Relief Law for Tohoku district, the Child Ill-treatment Prevention Law, the Juvenile Protection Law, the Rice Control Law and the Iron-Manufacture Promotion Law.

In the meantime, Shibata, Chief Secretary of the Cabinet, resigned and was succeeded by Zenjirō Horikiri. Ikki, Minister of the Imperial Household, also resigned and was succeeded by Kurahei Yuasa.

On March 27 Japan served notice to withdraw from the League of Nations to which she had made valuable contributions for over 12 years (see Chapter VI).

Immediately after the close of the Diet the Saito Cabinet was confronted with the question of "red" judges in the Court, and a committee on thought problems was organized in the Government.

Another difficulty arose in connection with the expressed desire of Takahashi to resign from his post as Finance Minister. The difficulty was increased by the manœuvres of the Seiyukai to come into power. But the disquieting rumour about the probable appearance of a Fascisti government, was put in order by Saito's success in keeping Takahashi to his Cabinet.

The year also witnessed a decided decline of the left wing socialistic parties, especially the communists, many of the leaders leaving the camp and dropping their activities.

In September Uchida, Minister of Foreign Affairs, retired and Koki Hirota was called to fill the position.

The Government met unusual difficulties in making out the Budget for 1934-35, because of military expenses and the farmer relief funds, and was compelled to face the 65th session of the Diet, with a very unsatisfactory Budget of over ¥2,120,000,000.

The happiest event of the year was the birth of the Crown Prince Akihito on December 23. (For international events of the year consult the last pages of Chapter VI.)

65th Session On December 23, 1933, the 65th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened and after the customary recess for the New Year's holiday, resumed its work on January 23, 1934.

Foreign Policy Foreign Minister Hirota enlarged upon a firm policy to be followed for the strengthening of the world peace, referring in this to Japan's withdrawal from the League of Nations and the Imperial Rescript issued on that occasion. He dwelt on the intimate relations between Japan and Manchoukuo, expressed the great necessity for China to work out her own salvation and hopes for the quick rectification of the relations between Japan and China. On the relation with the U.S.S.R. he regretted that its unwarranted criticism was directed against Japan, but maintained hope that the Soviet Union would soon come to appreciate the true intentions of Japan and the North Manchuria Railway negotiations would be resumed. On the relation with the United States of America he said that there was no question existing between the two nations which was intrinsically difficult of solution, and earnestly desired that they would continue in cultivating their historical friendship and good understanding, which

is too tenacious to be broken even by such a question as the Manchurian Incident. Concerning England and Japan, Hirota stated that the traditional amity between them remained unshaken and that the Japanese Government were seeking to readjust whatever conflict of interests there might arise between the two countries relating to questions of trade. He did not deny the fact that Japan's foreign relations were beset with serious problems, but expressed his firm conviction that things would amend in time. Finally he stated that Japan's national defence was solely for defensive and self-protective purposes.

The Budget Finance Minister Takahashi presented the 1934-35 budget, which amounted to ¥2,112,000,000 (¥8,000,000 less than the previous year), of which ¥1,248,000,000 was to be met with by the ordinary income, ¥19,000,000 to be covered by the balance of the previous year, and ¥785,000,000 to be obtained from loans. Of the ¥785,000,000 loan, ¥606,000,000 was for covering the deficit. (See Chapter VIII.)

Then the following four days were spent for interpellations. Contrary to the general expectation that the political parties would be quiet as they had been in the last session, their attitude toward the Government and the Military Ministers was rather aggressive. Takejiro Tokonami of the Seiyukai and Chuji Machida of the Minseito emphasized the importance of the constitutional and parliamentary political system and criticized the Fascist treason reported to exist in certain quarters. Open attacks against the tendency of military men to meddle with politics drew out earnest explanations from military authorities. It was patent, however, that neither the enquirers nor the explainers had no ulterior motives, but they

were actuated by a spirit of patriotism.

Discussions on the 1934-35 Budget continued from January 26 to February 4, and on February 13 the House of Representatives passed it by unanimous vote without amendments. The discussion mainly turned upon the issuance of Government loans, the military expenses, the need of establishing a definite financial plan for the future, and the increase of taxes. As to the last point, Takahashi disclosed his decision to increase taxes at a most convenient time.

The problems of farmers, smaller merchants and industrials were discussed by many members, who urged the Government to take more definite and positive measures for the control of rice (last year's crop reaching the excessive amount of 78,000,000 koku), and silk business.

Dissatisfaction with the outcome of the Simla Conference was expressed and acquiesced in by the Foreign Minister, but, as a whole, his answers gained confidence in the Government's policy.

On March 14 the Budget passed the House of Peers without amendment. (See Chapter VIII.) But the amount of the expenses voted for the relief of the farmers was meager and by the request of the Diet, the Government presented an additional budget for the purpose amounting to ¥20,990,000 for Japan proper and ¥8,200,000 for Korea, which passed the Diet as a matter of course.

Difficulties arose on the Revision of the Election Law because of the amendments made by the House of Representatives, and after a joint session of the two Houses, it was finally passed with important amendments on March 25.

On March 26 the 65th Session of the Diet adjourned, passing the bud-

get for the fiscal year 1934-35 and 50 laws.

Political Affairs in 1934-35

The Privy Council President Changes
On May 2, 1934, Prince Saionji, the Genro, entered his Tokyo residence at Surugadai and the political world grew tense with expectancy and the general public expected something important to take place. Seiyukai and Minseito were reconciled as preparation for regaining their long-lost power in anticipation of the resignation of the Saito Cabinet.

But the irony was that the nomination of Baron Kitokuro Ikki to the Presidency of the Privy Council took place on the following day, which re-inforced the Cabinet rather than weakened it. The prevailing custom was to promote the vice-president at the resignation of the President of the Privy Council and thus Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma was naturally expected to succeed Kuratomi, who tendered his resignation on April 25. But fact belied the expectation and Ikki, an outsider, was nominated to the post.

The first reason of Ikki's choice was evidently the fact that Hiranuma was connected with Kokuhonsha, a nationalistic group. Another reason has evidently to do with the function of Genro. Prince Saionji, the only Genro living, nearly 90 years old and a break in the office of the Genro must not be allowed to take place. The Lord Keeper of the Imperial Seals, the Minister of the Imperial Household and the President of Privy Council, who are most intimately related to the Throne are most likely persons to be in position to advise the Throne in the matter of forming a cabinet and the choice of Ikki was evidently made by keeping this point in mind.

The Saito Cabinet Resigns The de-

tention on May 19 of Hideo Kuroda, the Vice-minister of Finance, on charges connected with the Teikoku Rayon scandal was sufficient reason for the resignation of the Saito Cabinet. This was a matter of political common sense. But on the other hand, the charge partook somewhat of a political nature and it was considered unwise to tender resignation hurriedly. So the resignation was delayed, but the development of the case and outburst of other cases to the disadvantage of the Cabinet finally compelled Premier Saito to tender resignation to the Emperor on July 3, 1934. The new cabinet with Admiral Keisuké Okada as Premier came to power on the 8th of the same month.

The Okada Cabinet The Okada Cabinet is virtually the continuation of the Saito Cabinet. It is a non-party cabinet, as was the Saito Cabinet, and has likewise the tiding-over of the crisis years as its objective. The first plan of the cabinet making was to exclude party men, but later it was changed, due to difficulties which such cabinet would probably meet. Thus it was finally composed of seven men out of officialdom and five party men (2 from the Minseito and 3 from the Seiyukai). The Seiyukai had turned down Okada's invitation to join his cabinet and three of its members became ministers in the new Cabinet, it forthwith announced their expulsion from the Seiyukai.

Farm-village Problem By the end of October, 1934, the National Treasury disbursed approximately ¥300,000,000 for the relief of farm-villages. This means that the yearly disbursement is approximately ¥100,000,000, and, when left alone, it will necessitate increased taxation. The relief of farm-villages has thus assumed the position of an important factor in national finance.

The impending questions which have to be solved are how to dispose of the stock of rice and how to restrict the over production so as to increase farmers' income by higher prices. The solution of the questions is complicated by the fact that over a half of the farmers can hardly afford to consume rice which they themselves raised because of the high price. A famine of rice, therefore, takes place.

In order to cope with the situation, though partially, it was decided at the 65th session of the Diet to increase the fund for purchasing surplus rice, and also the Government promised to find out more effective means to meet the situation. Under the Okada Cabinet a committee was appointed for the study of the problem from among the members of both Houses and also private persons. The Seiyukai and Minseitō were also united in organizing a committee for drafting a more effective law dealing with the problems.

Three possible ways of solving the question are in view: the governmental control, self-control and monopoly by the Government. Each plan, however, has its own obstacle and in order to carry any one of them out is no easy matter.

Extraordinary Session and After The Okada Cabinet at first took a lukewarm attitude towards convening an extraordinary session of the Diet in spite of the resolution passed at the last session under the Saito administration and the strong demand on the part of the Seiyukai, which is essentially a farm party. But an unexpected event compelled the Government to give heed to the above demand. A damage greatest since 1923 was sustained in the Kansai district and central Japan by the typhoon of September 21, 1934. The year 1934 was also a very unfavourable one for farmers. An un-

timely cold weather checked the growth of rice plants in the north-eastern districts and Hokkaido, precipitation was scanty in Shikoku and Kyushu islands, and the south-western half of the country was visited by the typhoon just mentioned. An immediate relief of farmers thus became a national necessity, and on September 29 the Government decided to convene an extraordinary session by December.

The 66th Session An extraordinary session of the Diet was, therefore, convened on November 27 and closed on December 10. The main objective of the session was the relief of the sufferers in a variety of natural calamities in the year. The budget for the relief was as follows:

Year of disbursement	Amount (in ¥1,000)
1934-5	70,664
1935-6	68,318
1936-and after	74,957
Total	213,940

The budget passed both Houses without amendment, though it was attacked as being too small to meet the need, specially by the Seiyukai. Among other things which gave rise to hot discussions were the War Ministry's pamphlet, entitled "On the True National Defence and its Reenforcement," the disturbance among the Kwantung Government officials in connection with the organization of Japanese military and civil organs in Manchoukuo, and the charge on maltreatment of the suspected persons in relation to the Teikoku Rayon scandal.

The session, however, closed without giving any material harm to the Government, except the so-called "Bakudan Dōgi", or "bomb" motion, thrown on December 5 by T. Azuma of the Seiyukai demanding an increase of ¥180,000,000 in the relief appropriation.

The "bomb" took the Government

and the people by surprise and the dissolution of the Diet was seriously talked about. But Okada's vague promise to give consideration to the increase when the Government thought it necessary, settled the matter for the time being, leaving the final solution to the regular session of the Diet.

Naturally the interval between the 66th and 67th sessions was a period of much political speculation and gossip was rather rampant in regard to the relations between the Government and the Seiyukai, and also to the possibility of dissolution. The two Houses were composed of the following:

THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES (November 25, 1934)

Seiyukai	264
Minseitō	118
Kokumin Domei	31
Tokonami and followers, Proletariats and others	27
Vacant seats	26
Total	466

THE HOUSE OF PEERS (November 25, 1934)

Princes of the Blood	18
Kayōkai	41
Kenkyukai	155
Doseikai	23
Dowakai	32
Koseikai	66
Kōyū Club	38
Unaffiliated	36
Vacant seats	3
Total	412

The 67th Session The regular session of the Diet was convened on December 24, 1934, and closed on March 26, 1935. Notwithstanding the expectation generally entertained of a collision between the Government and the Seiyukai on the various questions pending, both sides were, in the final analysis, willing

to come down the wall half way and the session was carried on in peace. The peace was, however, an armed peace and the Seiyukai took care that a number of important government bills were killed. The promise which the Government made at the last session in regard to the relief appropriation was made good to the amount of ¥15,000,000, instead of ¥180,000,000, as was originally demanded by the Seiyukai.

The Government, beside the Budget for 1935-1936 (given in full in the chapter on Public Finance and passed without amendment) proposed over 50 bills to the Diet. Of the over 50 bills only 5 passed the Diet and among those shelved there were important bills as Rice Control Law, Cocoon Distribution Law, Manure Control Law, Iron and Steel Tariff Law, and the Regulations of Fishing in the Northern Seas.

The session was enlivened unexpectedly with a discussion in regard to the interpretation of the Constitution. It was in February that a criticism on the exposition of the Constitution by Dr. Tatsukichi Minobé, Emeritus Professor at the Tokyo Imperial University and Professor at the Commercial University, was raised. Dr. Minobé's theory is that the Tennō, the Emperor, is the highest institution of the Empire and against this the assailants stated that the Tennō is the absolute Sovereignty and origin of all laws. The discussion was ended, at least so far as the Houses and the session were concerned, by the promise given by the Government at the initiative of the House of Peers that it would do all to clarify the specific nature of the Japanese State.

CHAPTER VI

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Earlier Contacts with Foreign Countries

China and Korea China and Korea were the first foreign nations to come into contact with Japan. To these two countries the ancient Japanese were indebted in a large measure for various institutions of civilization. It was, however, not until about the middle of the fourth century A. D., when the Empress Jingo sent an expedition to South Korea and established a resident Japanese government in Silla, one of the three Korean kingdoms, that the Japanese began systematically introducing Chinese culture and learning through Korea. After this, Chinese civilization continued to influence the Japanese to an increasing extent, and in 593 the Prince Regent Shōtoku began the construction of an imposing Buddhist temple and pagoda at Tennoji (now a section of Osaka). This was intended to help propagate Buddhism among the Japanese as well as to impress the Chinese envoys and traders who, in those days, were in the habit of coming to this country by small sailing craft and landing at what is now known as Osaka.

Other contacts with China and Korea occurred on the occasion of the Korean resistance against the encroachment of the Chinese under the Tang dynasty in the seventh century, when the Emperor Tenchi sent assistance to Korea, and at the time of the invasion of the northern shores of the island of Kyushu by an expeditionary force under Kublai Khan in the thirteenth century,

which was the first and last instance of the security of Japan being menaced by foreign invasion. The Mongolian expedition was finally repulsed by the Japanese with the help of a hurricane which wrecked practically all the Mongolian fleet.

Another major event in Japan's earlier foreign relations was the expedition sent to Korea by Hideyoshi Toyotomi in 1592. This expedition was recalled without any decisive results shortly after the death of Toyotomi. It is regarded as probable that the failure of this military action was partly due to the assistance given to Korea by China, which claimed sovereignty over the Korean peninsula.

Chinese civilization was also brought to Japan by the Chinese refugees who emigrated when the Manchus invaded and subjugated China proper in the middle of the seventeenth century.

Spain and Portugal Japan's first contact with Western countries occurred in the middle of the sixteenth century, when Portuguese and Spanish traders first visited the shores of this country. These traders were instrumental in introducing Christianity.

Britain and the Netherlands Shortly afterwards, Dutch and English traders arrived in Japan and were granted every facility for the conduct of business. In the meantime, the Jesuit and Franciscan missionaries had erected churches in various parts of the country, and their activities came to be regarded with grave apprehension as it was believed that they had political motives. Con-

sequently, the Shogunate Government ordered all missionaries to leave Japan and strictly prohibited Christianity in 1597. The Shogunate Government later went so far as to close the country entirely against communications with foreign countries, issuing a decree to this effect in May, 1636. After this, only a limited number of Chinese and Dutch traders were allowed to reside at Deshima in Nagasaki, and all contact with foreigners was made through them.

Russia Over one and a half centuries of complete seclusion followed until 1792, when Russia sought the opening of the Japanese ports to trade through her representative. In 1806, two Russian ships attacked the coast of Saghalien, plundering a Japanese town and carrying off a number of its inhabitants.

Great Britain during the Napoleonic wars attempted to supplant the Dutch merchants at Deshima by British nationals. These British ventures were followed by the arrival of Americans in Japan. Arriving in the Bay of Yedo in 1837, aboard a ship called the Morrison, these Americans tried to convince the leaders of the Tokugawa Shogunate of the inevitability of Japan entering into relations with the Western powers. A similar attempt was made by King William II of the Netherlands who, in February, 1844, sent a friendly communication to the Shogunate Government urging Japan to enter into treaty-relations with Western countries. It was not, however, until 1853, when the American fleet commanded by Commodore Perry arrived at Uraga, that the leaders of the Tokugawa régime came to consider seriously the question of regular foreign contacts.

The United States As a result of Commodore Perry's visit, Japan con-

cluded her first treaty of amity with the United States on March 1, 1854, providing for the opening of the ports of Shimoda and Hakodaté to American citizens and for the extension of reciprocal aid to vessels in distress. Russia, Great Britain, France and other Western countries soon concluded treaties of a similar nature.

The conclusion of these treaties, for which no Imperial sanction was sought immediately, gave rise to a strong anti-foreign sentiment and several resident foreigners were murdered. A British squadron avenged these outrages by bombarding the city of Kagoshima at the southern tip of the Island of Kyushu in 1863. A similar attack was made on Shimonoseki the following year by a combined fleet of British, American, French and Dutch warships.

The international engagements entered into by the Shogunate Government were sanctioned in 1865 by the Throne, which reassumed its civil and military powers from the Shogunate Government in 1868 after having left *de facto* power in other hands for nearly seven centuries.

The Meiji Era

The "Maria Luz" Incident The first noteworthy incident in Japan's foreign relations in the Meiji Era was what is known as the Maria Luz incident which took place in 1872, when the Japanese Government successfully helped in releasing 200 Chinese slaves from the Peruvian ship Maria Luz at Yokohama. This action was upheld by an international tribunal presided over by Emperor Alexander II of Russia and was instrumental in strengthening the position of Japan as an independent nation in international politics.

Saghalien and the Loochoo In 1872, the Japanese Government proposed to buy the Island of Saghalien for

¥2,000,000, but the negotiations for this purchase were broken off on the advice of Count Kuroda, who contended that the island was worthless. Three years later Japan gave up all claim to Saghalien in exchange for Russia's recognition of Japan's sovereignty over the Kurile Islands.

The Loochoo Islands, a group lying between Kyushu and Taiwan, were formally incorporated in the Japanese Empire in 1871, when, inviting the King of Loochoo to Tokyo and creating him a peer, the Japanese Government organized the archipelago into a prefecture called "Okinawa-ken."

The Bonin Island Dispute The Bonin Islands, called in Japanese "Ogasawara-jima," were officially recognized as a territory of Japan in 1875 by the United States following a dispute as to sovereignty therein between the two nations.

Expedition to Formosa When a group of shipwrecked Loochooan sailors were massacred by the savages of Formosa (now known as Taiwan) in 1872, the Japanese Government sent a punitive expedition to the island, and a strong protest was received from China. The situation threatened to become very tense, but through the intervention of the British Minister at Peking, the trouble was settled, Japan evacuating the island and China consenting to pay an indemnity to the families of the victims of the outrage.

Treaty Revision Revision of Japan's unequal treaties with the foreign Powers was accomplished in 1894, after a series of unsuccessful attempts, which had led to the collapse of several of the most powerful Cabinets. The treaties of commerce and navigation concluded by the Shogunate Government with the Western Powers provided for the opening of the ports of Yokohama,

Kobé, Osaka, Nagasaki, Niigata and Hakodaté, together with Tokyo, to commerce and residence, with extraterritorial privileges for foreign residents. These treaties also required Japan to maintain a very low scale of import duties.

It was for the purpose of seeking revision of the treaties, on the basis of a provision therein that revisions could be made after 1871, that Prince Tomomi Iwakura's mission was sent to America and Europe in 1871. The great difficulty standing in the way of the proposed revision was the agreement among the eighteen nations concerned to the effect that they would act conjointly in their negotiations with Japan. The United States alone consented to conclude a separate treaty, but a proviso in it that it should not be put into force until after the conclusion of similar treaties with the other nations deprived the document of its practical effect.

In 1882, Count Kaoru Inouyé made overtures to the British Government and a preliminary conference followed to discuss the basis of negotiations, at which elaborate preparations were made for a great conference, in which every treaty Power should be represented. Great Britain and Germany showed their willingness to make liberal concessions and for a time it looked as if Count Inouyé's efforts would be crowned with success. However, the conditions of the proposed new treaties leaked out and, feeling indignant over what they described as a humiliation to Japan, the vernacular newspapers started vigorous campaign against the proposed revision. This coincided with the sinking of a British steamer in which all the Japanese passengers perished, and this incident poured oil on the fire of the anti-foreign agitation then prevailing throughout the

country. The situation was so threatening that the Japanese Government found it advisable to postpone the negotiations for revision.

The next foreign minister to take up this onerous task was Count Shigenobu Okuma, who started fresh negotiations in 1888. Before officially starting negotiations, however, he adopted a high-handed policy towards the foreign residents in this country with a view to convincing them of the advisability of revising the treaties. In approaching the foreign Powers concerned, Count Okuma preferred to negotiate with them individually instead of collectively and first of all made overtures to Mexico, offering to allow the presence of foreign legal assessors in the Japanese Supreme Court in cases involving foreigners during a space of at least three years after the enactment of the new legal codes on Western lines. This offer was accepted. After the signing of this treaty, the United States, Germany and Russia soon expressed willingness to make agreement on similar lines, it having been agreed that the new treaties should take effect in 1890. Before the signing of similar treaties by the other Powers, however, a vehement agitation broke out in Japan against the appointment of foreign assessors, and an attempt was made on the life of Count Okuma, in which he was seriously injured.

The treaty revision negotiations, which were thus interrupted, were resumed by Viscount Shuzo Aoki, who succeeded Count Okuma as Foreign Minister. Viscount Aoki's seven proposals did not provide for the presence of foreign assessors on Japanese tribunals, and there seemed to be a good chance of these proposals being accepted by Great Britain, when, owing to an attempt made on the life of the Crown Prince

of Russia then visiting Japan, Count Aoki had to resign and was succeeded by Viscount Buyo Enomoto.

Viscount Enomoto continued efforts to complete the desired revision of the treaties, but soon had to resign when the Government was defeated on the budget. In 1892, Count Munemitsu Mutsu assumed the foreign portfolio and immediately reopened negotiations with Britain. A new difficulty was added in 1893 when the House of Representatives submitted a petition to the Throne urging the abolition of consular jurisdiction, restoration of tariff autonomy and prohibition of coastal trade. To make the situation worse still, the people agitated against foreigners being allowed unrestricted right of residence and against foreign ownership of property in Japan. The Government, however, dissolved the Diet and concluded a new treaty with Great Britain on July 16, 1894, at London, signed by Lord Kimberley and Viscount Aoki, thereby finally settling the long pending question. Similar treaties were concluded with Austria, France, Germany, Italy, Russia and the United States in 1897.

The Sino-Japanese War The war with China, which arose from a complicated dispute over the independence of Korea, resulted in enhancing the prestige of Japan in the eyes of the entire world. The question whether or not Korea was an independent nation was of long standing and an open clash of interests between Japan and China led to the inevitable war.

In 1880 Japan opened a legation in Seoul, but peaceful relations between Japan and Korea were often disturbed as the result of intrigues, if not active interference, by the Chinese. In 1882, a Korean mob attacked and burned the Japanese Legation, and the legation officials