

SUGAR

Soft
Cube
Alcohol



Granulated
Plantation White
Centrifugal

DAI-NIPPON SEITO KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(The Dai-Nippon Sugar Mfg. Co., Ltd.)

Established in 1895

Aiichiro Fujiyama, President

Authorized Capital ¥ 96,170,000

Paid-up Capital ¥ 85,082,500

Branch Subdivision:

Showa Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo, Japan

Cable Address: "Sugar" Tokyo

Codes Used: A. B. C. 6th Edition & Bentley's

Branches: Nagoya & Keijo

Refineries: Moji & Heijo

Mills: Formosa, Korea, Java, & Daitojima

CHAPTER XXII

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

Wheat Flour

Before the Russo-Japanese War it was not until after the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5) that the wheat flour industry made any progress in Japan. Prior to the war there was a fairly large consumption, but manufacturing was only in the infant stage, most of the production being with the help of water-wheels. The daily output by this method was only 10 to 50 or 60 bags; the quality was poor and not uniform and, being packed in straw bags, the product was not at all satisfactory. It was only in the year 1895 that wheat flour was first produced on a modern basis by machinery. In that year, the Nippon Seifun Kaisha, Ltd., began to operate mills with a capacity of 200 koku per day, and gradually, mills with a capacity of 50 to 100 koku a day were established, but progress was very slow. However, the demand for flour increased and as production could not keep pace with it imports naturally increased. In 1895, imports were 280,000 bags, valued at ¥400,000, ten years later imports increased to 4,990,000 bags, valued at ¥9,950,000. Imported and water-mill produced domestic flour together satisfied practically the whole of home consumption, while domestic flour made by machinery formed but a very small part of the supply. The imported flour coming chiefly from the United States of America, was of a far superior quality to the home product.

After the Russo-Japanese War many flour mills were established on a modern basis during the time of the great boom which followed the Russo-Japanese War, and production capacity was greatly expanded, but a contraction was brought about by the closing down of many of the newly established mills when the reaction later set in. In 1914, when the World War started the capacity of production by machinery was 8,000 barrels and this, by 1922, had in-

creased to over 20,000 barrels. During those seven years the industry experienced unprecedented prosperity, and with this development on modern lines, domestic producers who made flour in the old-fashioned way lost nearly all their customers and, further, imported flour was practically shut out of the country.

The Industry at Present After 1918 the demand for wheat flour, keeping pace with the advance in the standard of living, greatly increased. The extended westernization of the country in recent years largely accounts for this and has brought about a consequent heavy demand for wheat. Home production has not increased to meet the demand, the result being, as the following tables show, a heavy annual importation of wheat. An attempt, therefore, has been made by the Government to increase domestic production through tariff and increase of wheat acreage, in which they were highly successful. The production increased very much in 1933 in proportion to the increased acreage, which was further accelerated in 1935, when an all-time record high was established. The production in 1936 decreased by 7.2 per cent as compared with the preceding year. But, 1937 production recorded highest in the history with 9,996,048 koku. In 1938, it decreased to 8,971,000 koku, but the following year again established a new record.

PRODUCTION OF DOMESTIC WHEAT AND ITS ACREAGE

Year	Production koku	Acreage cho
1936	8,961,329	688,959
1937	9,996,048	724,602
1938	8,971,563	725,100
1939	12,113,058	746,000
1940	13,083,500	841,200
1941	10,665,000	826,000

QUANTITIES OF WHEAT IMPORTED

(Quantities in piculs)

Year	Countries from Which Imported					Total Including Others	Value (In ¥1,000)
	China	U.S.A.	Canada	Australia	Manchou-kuo		
1935	3,000	45,994	881,786	5,558,084	—	7,417,300	43,199
1936	321,947	61,818	164,000	2,812,246	236,149	5,171,076	33,050
1937	25,202	18,860	65,500	1,679,998	205,988	3,114,102	29,604
1938	53,665	—	—	510,235	298,172	1,104,416	9,557
1939	279,500	—	13,863	40,100	—	539,090	4,090

EXPORTS OF WHEAT FLOUR

(Quantities in piculs)

Year	Countries to Which Exported					Value (In 1,000 yen)
	Manchoukuo	China	Kwantung L.T.	Dutch East Indies	Others and Total	
1935	2,035,048	29,123	2,366,348	10,323	4,819,629	33,699
1936	736,488	89,965	1,065,858	19,500	2,165,330	17,621
1937	231,900	1,283,384	1,047,577	9,700	2,683,066	30,745
1938	1,198,597	1,880,771	1,679,180	200	4,758,869	60,715
1939	1,460,500	436,600	1,554,400	—	—	54,227

FLOUR PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, ETC.

(In bags)

Year	Production	Import	Export	Home Consumption and in Stock
1935	49,700,000	93,000	13,026,000	36,767,000
1936	38,993,000	104,000	5,852,000	33,242,000
1937	38,335,000	410,000	7,251,000	31,159,000
1938	42,964,000	19,000	12,862,000	30,121,000
1939	37,957,000	122,000	9,328,000	28,951,000

Note: A bag=37 lbs. Figures for production are based on the investigation of the Nisshin Flour Company.

Sugar

History and Development The art of making sugar was introduced from China about two hundred years ago, but no great progress is recorded in sugar manufacture until after the Restoration, and even then it remained as a farmers' sideline until the end of the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, when Taiwan, well-known for its sugar production, was ceded to Japan by China. This marked a new era in the sugar industry. In 1896, a sugar refining company was organized in Osaka and from that time the industry began to develop.

The Government undertook to levy a duty on raw sugar in 1899, and, by successive steps, this duty has reached the present rate. In 1911, a tariff of a

similar nature was imposed, for the first time, on refined sugar.

In view of the fact that Taiwan is ideal both in temperature and rainfall for cane growing, the Government decided to encourage the establishment of sugar mills in the Island. With this in view it established the Temporary Sugar Bureau as a branch of the Government of Taiwan. The Bureau subsidized sugar companies in establishing sugar mills and purchasing the required machinery. It imported cane seedlings and distributed them to cane growers. It gave, too, subsidies for the purchase of fertilizers, and in various other ways succeeded in dispensing as subsidies, up to 1924, a sum amounting to more than thirteen

million yen. As the result of these subsidies, the industry has developed to the present stage. In 1902, the production of raw sugar in Taiwan was only about 600,000 piculs, but by 1931 this had increased to over 13,000,000 piculs.

In 1901, the Taiwan Sugar Co., Ltd., was organized. Raw sugar mills with all new machines were established and war was declared against the old-fashioned machines which were only able to produce raw brown sugar. Development was destined to be slow, for the plantations and mills were subject to

attacks from the native savages, but this difficulty was gradually overcome and during the prosperity that visited Japan after the Russo-Japanese War, many new companies were organized and the industry developed rapidly.

Present State The sugar industry in Shikoku, Kyushu, and the Loochoo Islands is making no headway, but that in Taiwan and the South Sea Islands is rapidly progressing, and at present it is the Taiwan sugar that controls the sugar market in Japan. Refining is making good progress in Japan proper.

PRODUCTION OF SUGAR

(Unit: 1,000 piculs)

Year	Taiwan	Japan Proper	Hokkaido (Beet)	Chosen	South Sea Islands	Total
1931-1932	16,484	1,651	405	29	696	19,266
1932-1933	10,561	1,712	402	—	729	13,406
1933-1934	10,783	1,551	383	—	750	13,469
1934-1935	16,094	1,752	587	—	1,135	19,568
1935-1936	15,034	1,981	515	—	819	18,351
1936-1937	16,789	1,559	678	—	961	20,037
1937-1938	16,496	1,715	694	—	1,241	20,210
1938-1939	23,645	2,390	681	—	1,170	27,951
1939-1940	18,879	1,823	415	58	1,025	22,200
1940-1941	13,625	1,412	429	—	988	16,454
1941-1942	18,357	1,173	522	—	786	20,838

Source: The report of the Japan Sugar Association.

EXPORTS OF REFINED SUGAR BY DESTINATION

(In piculs)

Year	China	Manchou-kuo	Kwan-tung	Total including Others
1931	1,895,667	88,922	370,810	2,622,211
1932	466,877	54,790	799,840	1,389,507
1933	901,525	96,703	1,015,941	2,172,317
1934	1,041,527	162,255	715,093	2,019,868
1935	1,481,898	227,389	792,578	2,699,213
1936	905,171	193,222	1,780,225	2,978,643
1937	1,159,358	216,087	1,001,814	2,482,145
1938	701,882	293,775	1,271,668	2,267,853
1939	986,500	236,800	637,400	1,860,800
1940 (Jan.-Sept.)	79,700	2,500	3,300	474,700

IMPORTS OF REFINED SUGAR BY ORIGINS

(In piculs)

Year	Java	Total including Others
1931	3,304,251	3,305,275
1932	644,927	671,299
1933	2,184,499	2,210,124
1934	1,727,188	1,732,188
1935	2,323,117	2,341,841
1936	3,396,964	3,900,079
1937	2,698,347	2,845,068
1938	635,183	639,858
1939	13,100	13,600
1940 (Jan.-Sept.)	400	1,700

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SUGAR IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Taiwan Government-General)

(In 1,000 piculs)

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Production in Japan proper	2,118.7	1,946.1	2,316.8	2,505.2	2,237.4	2,410.3
Imports from foreign countries	2,210.1	1,732.1	2,341.8	3,600.0	2,845.0	639.8

	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Imports from territories	10,541.1	11,816.3	15,152.5	13,076.6	13,043.4	12,411.8
Exports to foreign countries	2,172.3	2,019.8	2,669.2	2,978.6	2,482.1	2,267.8
Exports to territories	162.3	211.4	227.9	241.2	236.5	245.0
Consumption in Japan proper	12,535.3	13,063.3	16,914.0	15,962.0	15,407.2	12,949.1
Consumption per capita (Unit: kin)	18.56	19.06	24.30	22.61	21.52	17.85

Note: Readers are referred to Chapter XLI, Taiwan, where the conditions of the sugar manufacturing industry in that island are mentioned in detail.

Brewing

Beer

History Beer was brewed in Japan about 85 years ago by a certain scholar, Ko Kawamoto, who, as he learned how to brew it when he visited Admiral Perry's fleet, on the latter's visit to Japan, tried to brew on his own private account. In 1870, beer was brewed for the first time on a modern industrial basis by an American, Gobland, at Amanuma, Yokohama. Four years later, Marquis K. Kuroda saw that the soil of Hokkaido was particularly suitable for barley, so he established a brewery in Sapporo, and soon others were built in Meguro, Tokyo, in Suita, Osaka, in Hodogaya, Yokohama, and other places, and the industry has so developed that at present Japan has 4 brewery companies and fifteen breweries with a total capacity of about 2,000,000 koku. But

in recent years curtailment is required by the Government in connection with the national provision control policy. The consumption of beer in Japan proper in 1938 amounted to 1,180,000 koku.

Year	Brewery Production Value	
	In koku	In ¥1,000
1935	14	1,047,213
1936	15	1,312,496
1937	15	1,275,055
1938	15	1,472,408
1939 (estimate)	15	1,784,427
1940 (")	15	1,465,602
1941 (")	15	1,465,995

Exports of Beer The exports of beer in 1939 amounted to 179,192 koku. Exports to the yen bloc area greatly decreased, while those to third countries increased largely because of trade control.

EXPORTS OF BEER

(Quantity in koku and value in ¥1,000)

Destination	1936		1937		1938		1939	
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Manchoukuo	28,497	1,158	7,507	308	12,246	525	8,350	364
Kwantung L. T.	41,466	1,750	52,680	1,980	41,481	1,646	26,398	1,096
China	12,679	555	23,523	944	149,811	6,034	106,865	5,148
Hongkong	2,841	149	2,121	106	1,696	56	1,407	71
British India	13,928	850	16,959	763	12,986	639	15,468	787
Straits Stmts.	2,880	140	2,973	141	1,493	63	1,645	99
Dutch Indies	3,108	164	2,481	126	1,338	62	2,119	119
Others and total	132,503	5,912	134,977	5,686	240,488	10,019	179,192	8,602

Japanese Saké

History Japanese saké, brewed from rice, has been the principal alcoholic liquor of the Japanese from olden times. It is brewed everywhere in the country, but the most famous places are the "Nada Gogo," or five villages in Hyogo prefecture, the climatic conditions of which are peculiarly suited for its production. In recent years, Hiroshima and

Fukuoka prefectures have also begun to brew saké of superior grade. The best rice for saké brewing is raised in Kumamoto, Hyogo and Okayama prefectures.

As saké has been the chief drink of the people for many centuries it has been heavily taxed all along. In 1879, a tax of ¥2 per koku was levied and since then the rate has been gradually increased until it now amounts to ¥45

per koku and brings in an annual revenue to the Government of ¥200,000,000.

No study of brewing saké on a scientific basis was started until as late as 1895. In 1904, a Brewery Experimental Station was established by the Government, at Oji, Tokyo, various experiments were made, and many good experts trained. The art of brewing has now

advanced a great deal and the quality of saké brewed has become practically uniform. The quantity now brewed annually is about 5,000,000 koku nearly all of which is consumed at home, only 90,000 koku being exported to China and several other countries.

Present Condition Production of various kinds of saké in recent years is as follows:

PRODUCTION OF SAKE BY KINDS

(In 1,000 koku)

Year (Oct.-Sept.)	No. of Brew- eries (Sept.)	Refined Saké	Unrefined Saké	White Saké	Sweet Saké	Distilled Saké	Total
1930-31	9,905	3,851	6	6	70	455	4,121
1931-32	9,570	3,284	5	6	87	445	3,829
1932-33	9,236	3,807	5	6	100	509	4,429
1933-34	8,971	4,012	6	6	92	528	4,646
1934-35	8,745	3,772	5	6	87	499	4,371
1935-36	8,580	3,784	5	6	97	534	4,426
1936-37	8,428	3,983	5	5	105	542	4,641
1937-38	8,260	4,069	5	5	92	556	4,729

Supply and Demand According to the report of the Japan Saké Brewers' Association the shipment of refined saké in recent years were as follows:

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SAKE (Saké Brewers' Association figures)

(In koku)

Saké Year (October-September)	Production	Shipped	Stock
1933-34	4,314,096	3,857,112	2,526,894
1934-35	4,068,794	3,852,846	2,407,572
1935-36	4,282,610	4,098,128	2,366,661
1936-37	4,378,687	3,998,369	2,314,734
1937-38	3,966,915	4,274,244	1,803,502
1938-39	2,458,059	2,888,679	1,255,579

Wine The following are the annual figures for the production of wine in recent years:

PRODUCTION OF WINE

Year (March-Feb.)	No. of Wineries	Production in koku
1933-34	10,124	13,613
1934-35	11,710	18,424
1935-36	12,190	19,066
1936-37	12,408	19,276
1937-38	12,316	31,449

According to the "Factory Statistics" published by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry the value of all kinds of spirits produced in recent years was as follows, refined saké comprising over 62 per cent of the total.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF ALL KINDS OF SPIRITS

Year	Value in yen
1934	384,199,683
1935	404,133,245
1936	435,661,300
1937	492,830,805
1938	568,385,820

Flavors

Oriental flavors are produced in considerable quantities as indispensable for Japanese cooking. The production of soy, or Japanese sauce made of wheat, in factories amounted to 5,566,815 hectoliters valued at ¥94,097,842 in 1938, that of miso, or bean-mash, 243,145 metric tons valued at ¥35,278,295. Saké- lees is used as soup or a soft drink, the production in the same year amounting to ¥9,522,194. The production of vinegar amounted to 661,758 hectoliters valued at ¥2,274,350.

**VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF
SOY, MISO, ETC.**

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Year	Soy	Miso	Vinegar	Saké- tees	Sauce and Ketchup
1933	61,257	16,535	1,953	6,558	3,165
1934	65,477	18,201	2,026	6,114	3,548
1935	65,767	20,124	2,214	6,748	4,163
1936	71,025	22,582	2,051	6,706	4,801
1937	82,118	26,619	2,403	8,371	5,756
1938	94,097	35,278	2,274	9,522	5,123

Soft Drinks

As Japan is geologically blessed with mineral springs, the people were not slow to study their medicinal effects, and hot springs were used as baths from the olden times. As to the utilization of mineral spring water for drinking purposes, mineral water from Rokko Mountain in Hyogo prefecture was the first of its kind that was put on the market.

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF SOFT DRINKS

(In yen)

	Cider	Ramune	Syrup	Others	Total
1931	8,509,936	1,803,975	970,528	2,668,945	13,953,384
1932	6,976,626	1,076,215	1,073,595	3,721,403	13,447,839
1933	14,132,015	1,424,789	1,182,207	2,950,569	19,689,580
1934	7,801,890	1,600,975	1,848,819	5,495,852	16,747,536
1935	10,365,531	1,611,915	1,615,720	4,023,263	17,616,429
1936	8,741,824	1,724,488	2,118,519	6,394,987	18,979,818
1937	10,703,174	2,108,597	2,625,136	6,367,072	21,803,979
1938	22,776,769	3,330,277	3,447,235	8,290,442	37,844,723

Canning

The canning industry in Japan was started as early as 1870, but the real impetus to its development was given by the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars as they created a great demand for canned provisions for the Army and Navy. The Treaty of Portsmouth also served to further encourage this industry by giving Japan fishing rights in Kamchatka and the Maritime Province of Siberia, and together with the development of can manufacturing and floating canneries, the above have been the cause of the great progress in the canning industry as a whole.

Present Conditions At present, the packing industry in Japan is in a fairly developed state in all of its branches.

This was as late as 1833, and the drink was named "Mitsuya Hiranosu." Three years later, some Englishmen taught the making of artificially aerated water and with the importation of Cood's bottles and syphon-bottles the manufacture of sweetened aerated water originated. These drinks soon became very popular and the industry made rapid development. After the Russo-Japanese War, "Champion" cider was put on the market to be soon followed by lemonade, citron, and different kinds of syrup, etc.

At present the total production of soft drinks amounts to 710,000 koku a year, of which sweetened drinks account for 93%, the rest being ordinary unflavored aerated water or soda-water. Producers of soft drinks may be roughly divided into two classes. The first of these is composed of those who manufacture the drinks along with beer. These have good equipment and produce on a large scale. The second class is made up of those many who produce on a small scale and sell their products locally.

Canned meats have reached a stage where the quantity of production cannot be increased. The demand for meat in Japan has expanded so far that supply cannot keep pace with demand, a shortage of cattle is being felt and a plentiful supply for canning is not forthcoming. On the other hand, canned vegetables, such as canned bamboo shoots, are finding good markets in the U.S.A. and China. Of all the fruits procurable in cans pineapples are the most popular with the Japanese. They are produced in Taiwan, and of the 450,000 cases or more that are packed in that island about 400,000 cases are consumed in Japan proper while a greater part of the balance is sold in Taiwan, and only

a few thousand cases are exported to foreign countries. As to canned fish and shellfish, the production of canned crab and salmon dominates all others. In no other places are canned crabs produced in such large quantities as in Japan, and most of this production is exported to the U.S.A., annual exports being valued at about ¥10,000,000. Red

and silver salmon are finding a good market in Great Britain. The variety of canned provisions has greatly increased in recent few years, mainly for exports, the value of which reached 132 million yen in 1939, placing canned provisions among the major articles of Japan's foreign trade.

PRODUCTION OF CANNED PROVISIONS

(Compiled by The Canned Foods Association of Japan)

	Quantity (In 1,000 Cases)			Value (In ¥1,000)		
	1936	1937	1938	1936	1937	1938
Live-stock products:						
Meat	85	120	225	1,513	2,148	4,950
Meat-vegetable	30	75	175	345	870	2,275
Pork	65	70	75	875	966	1,238
Condensed milk	853	946	1,230	12,828	14,414	22,146
Total including others	1,065	1,246	1,770	14,076	18,965	31,778
Fishery products:						
Salmon and trout	2,400	2,524	2,438	47,293	50,953	58,663
Crab ("Taraba")	341	438	524	16,476	21,976	27,485
Other crabs	37	70	75	1,040	2,448	2,656
Tunny	580	682	392	5,174	8,019	5,510
Mackerel	270	527	181	110	3,825	1,577
Bonito	90	285	225	630	2,280	2,250
Sardine	—	2,067	1,550	—	13,463	10,357
Clam and "Asari"	44	49	229	360	322	1,944
Total including others	5,485	7,735	6,681	85,835	118,034	125,192
Fruit:						
Pineapple	1,181	1,100	1,631	8,622	7,650	12,721
Peach	95	85	155	758	808	1,628
Pear	15	35	165	138	333	1,568
Mandarin orange	920	1,224	1,941	4,876	7,346	11,644
Fruits-salad	17	25	70	255	400	1,120
"Mitsu-mame"	25	105	165	263	1,155	1,865
Jam	92	105	115	1,270	1,523	1,783
Total including others	2,512	2,879	4,586	17,689	20,620	35,917
Vegetable:						
"Fukushin zuké"	90	120	150	873	1,260	1,575
Asparagus	27	42	69	500	798	1,318
Peas	100	116	128	750	881	1,048
Red-peas	45	135	380	518	1,553	4,484
Bamboo-shoots	698	532	757	5,581	4,310	6,131
Total including others	1,130	1,298	2,154	10,000	12,400	21,492
Grand total	10,192	13,159	15,191	127,600	170,019	214,379

Note: In regard to canned fish and shell-fish, see Chapter XV, Fisheries.

EXPORTS OF CANNED PROVISIONS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Finance)

(In ¥1,000)

Kind	1936	1937	1938	1939
Meats	260	563	2,029	1,462
Crabs	17,200	19,874	15,244	30,323
Salmon and trout	26,939	27,492	38,463	35,999

Kind	1936	1937	1938	1939
Other fish and shell-fish	15,272	24,149	17,045	22,964
Vegetable	1,517	1,995	3,298	7,248
Fruit	6,219	8,130	9,880	22,193
Total value including others in ¥1,000	71,077	86,905	92,819	132,000
Total quantity in picul	1,914,622	2,446,910	2,526,234	3,035,679

Note: In regard to the exports by destination, see Chapter XI, Foreign Trade. Imports of canned foods were 35,933 piculs valued ¥1,341,000 in 1937, 9,073 piculs valued at ¥372,000 in 1938 and 2,550 piculs valued at ¥122,000 in 1939.

Other Important Foodstuffs Manufactured in Factories

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF BREAD AND SWEETMEAT

Year	(In yen)		
	Confec- tionaries (including sweet bread)	Bread (including Mizu-amé (wheat- gluten)	Mizu-amé (wheat- gluten)
1934	95,088,745	5,870,740	14,020,795
1935	113,597,091	7,845,029	16,453,729
1936	119,285,645	10,261,173	20,173,231
1937	147,992,513	13,227,103	21,115,889
1938	178,775,867	13,799,966	24,881,545

VALUE OF MILK PRODUCTS

Year	(In yen)			Total including Others
	Condensed milk	Butter		
1934	9,393,650	2,827,081		21,210,448
1935	10,981,471	3,353,572		22,277,166
1936	10,662,310	3,054,820		24,036,598
1937	14,273,479	4,376,013		32,604,489
1938	13,609,870	6,702,072		38,406,972

VALUE OF PRODUCTION OF ARTIFICIAL BUTTER, ETC.

Year	(In yen)				
	Ham and Bacon	Artificial Butter	Salt	Vermicelli, Buckwheat- vermicelli, etc.	Starch
1934	1,185,868	575,985	4,121,651	5,492,733	9,633,397
1935	1,288,078	619,655	4,268,815	6,545,790	12,624,831
1936	1,781,196	928,591	4,168,491	7,716,469	17,018,911
1937	2,570,197	1,403,233	4,720,265	9,256,749	28,298,060
1938	2,678,296	1,136,134	7,410,145	9,448,266	40,769,900

PRODUCTION OF TEA

(Quantity in metric ton, Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Green Tea (Superior)		Green Tea (Common)		Japanese Black Tea		Black Tea		Total including Others
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	
1934	115	419	22,741	11,891	1,998	756	1,414	842	15,122
1935	194	567	24,788	13,035	2,451	793	1,324	706	16,576
1936	220	555	26,845	15,697	4,641	1,535	552	1,190	19,990
1937	218	459	29,332	20,998	3,258	1,419	4,099	3,741	29,217
1938	433	391	24,996	14,372	10,635	5,015	3,887	2,743	31,407

The above table is made from the "Factory Statistics" figures, and include only production by the tea makers who

employ more than 5 operatives. Figures of the production by all tea makers are given in Chapter XIII, Agriculture, Tea.

VALUE OF TOTAL OUTPUT OF THE FOODSTUFFS MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

Year	Value in yen	Year	Value in yen
1930	949,929,039	1935	1,159,491,963
1931	834,687,469	1936	1,245,961,247
1932	886,272,905	1937	1,467,587,385
1933	1,017,580,798	1938	1,752,659,634
1934	1,040,681,846	1939	2,331,900,000

Note: Figures are from the "Factory Statistics" which is compiled on the basis of reports of private factories in Japan proper under the Factory Law, and gives ¥102,362,910 as the amount of production of canned foods in 1938 instead of ¥214,379,000 mentioned above.

Cement

History In 1871, cement works were established by the Government in Fukagawa, Tokyo. This was the origin of the cement industry in Japan. For ten years the works gradually expanded so that by 1891, the total capital invested in the industry was ¥1,000,000, the works numbered ten and the capacity was about 300,000 barrels a year.

In 1898, there were sixteen works with an aggregate capacity of 1,000,000 bbls. and imports were entirely excluded. In 1912, there were nineteen companies and twenty three mills. The total capital invested amounted to ¥18,000,000 while the capacity increased to 4,000,000 bbls.

During the World War, the industry enjoyed unprecedented prosperity and expanded rapidly. New companies were formed and new mills added. At the end of 1926, companies numbered twenty-one with thirty-four mills, the total authorized capital was ¥118,000,000 of which ¥85,000,000 was paid up, and the total production capacity increased to 17,500,000 bbls.

During the last twenty years, demand for cement increased every year with few exceptions, there was a 2% decrease in 1912 and a 10% in 1915 and 1919. The average rate of increase was about 11%. But in 1930, domestic consumption suddenly decreased by 12%, the first time that any such sharp decrease had ever been experienced. The decrease was due to the general depression and the economic retrenchment policy of the Government following the removal of the gold

embargo in January 1930. In 1931, there was a further decrease, but in 1932, with general activity in industry being felt, there was some recovery over the previous two years.

The Industry in Recent Years For some years in the past, the interest of cement industry in Japan centered on the question of the adjustment of over-extended capacity of production. The result is a large curtailment of production.

In 1925 capacity was about 50 per cent larger than the output, which became almost 100 per cent in 1934. In recent years the greatest consumption of cement, including domestic consumption and export, was 480,000 tons in May 1934, while the production capacity at the end of November of the same year was 1,020,000 tons a month. For almost a year 57 per cent of the Cement Associations (Cement Rengokai) capacity has been curtailed.

The cause of this abnormal condition of the industry is found in the fact that in fixing production curtailment ratio of the member companies of the Rengokai, it has been based on the capacities of production of the members. This led the member companies to expand capacities to get larger shares of business. The situation culminated in the latter part of 1934 in forcing the Ministry of Commerce and Industry to apply the Major Industries Control Law to the cement industry. The curtailment ratio in 1939 was 64 per cent.

PRODUCTION OF CEMENT

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Portland Cement		Others		Total value in yen
	Barrels	Value in yen	Barrels	Value in yen	
1931	15,885,398	51,779,580	3,052,971	9,837,362	61,616,942

Year	Portland Cement		Others		Total value in yen
	Barrels	Value in yen	Barrels	Value in yen	
1932	17,215,073	67,782,953	142,599	450,254	68,233,207
1933	21,789,392	84,566,744	153,926	515,065	85,081,509
1934	26,689,637	90,814,136	39,002	1,389,466	92,203,602
1935	30,854,313	99,146,671	706,233	1,693,554	100,840,225
1936	32,375,874	95,591,214	2,085,229	5,706,847	101,298,061
1937	33,215,239	102,552,588	2,879,613	7,546,948	101,090,536
1938	30,492,078	104,243,268	2,497,217	6,717,419	110,950,687

CONSUMPTION OF CEMENT CLASSIFIED BY USES

(In 1,000 metric tons)

Uses	1937			1938			1939		
	Qty	Value	Value	Qty	Value	Value	Qty	Value	Value
Railways	284.7	241.5	182.7	284.7	241.5	182.7	284.7	241.5	182.7
Electric works	421.4	510.6	387.3	421.4	510.6	387.3	421.4	510.6	387.3
Harbors	109.0	97.0	81.3	109.0	97.0	81.3	109.0	97.0	81.3
Roads and bridges	239.8	187.4	158.4	239.8	187.4	158.4	239.8	187.4	158.4
Other public works	374.6	345.7	392.8	374.6	345.7	392.8	374.6	345.7	392.8
Buildings	1,148.9	1,045.8	1,017.5	1,148.9	1,045.8	1,017.5	1,148.9	1,045.8	1,017.5
Uses									
Mining				101.5	124.1	124.7			
Retails				1,300.7	1,151.0	1,082.6			
Cement products				162.1	152.9	211.2			
Miscellaneous				20.3	27.5	45.4			
Total				4,163.4	3,884.0	3,684.9			

EXPORTS OF CEMENT

(Quantity in metric tons and value in ¥1,000)

Descriptions	1936		1937		1938		1939	
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Manchoukuo	3,971	58	222	13	34,354	625	134,829	2,757
Kwantung L. T.	107,198	1,874	13,227	286	45,791	904	188,593	3,341
China	22,550	250	13,249	138	75,659	911	125,275	1,923
Hongkong	54,910	581	15,887	151	9	1	1,239	22
British India	13,497	170	15,558	184	5,380	65	2,688	54
Straits Settlements	90,299	994	81,830	877	34,150	352	34,829	528
Dutch East Indies	48,978	606	84,480	1,044	88,817	1,150	78,044	1,044
Philippines	2,534	35	8,060	102	60,864	658	11,550	146
Others	298,224	3,429	353,795	4,039	146,408	1,749	121,522	1,745
Total	702,164	8,001	586,312	6,836	491,432	6,411	698,565	11,540

1939 Cement Industry The total production of cement in 1939 reached 5,074,454 metric tons decreasing 445,000 metric tons from the previous year, owing mainly to the halt in construction activities due to the State economic control, and the decrease of demand for Japanese cement in foreign markets.

The restoration of peace and order in Chinese areas occupied by the Japa-

nese forces recovered the exports to China amounting to 125,274 metric tons, an increase of 65 per cent as compared with the previous year.

According to the report of the Warehouse Association the amount of stocks of cement which was 216,099 metric tons in December 1938 increased to 248,749 metric tons in January 1939, and decreased to 109,513 at the end of the year.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF CEMENT

(Compiled by the Cement Manufacturers' Association)

(In metric tons)

Year	Production Capacity		Shipments to Japan Proper		Production Capacity		Shipments to Japan Proper	
	Clinker	Cement	Clinker	Cement	Clinker	Cement	Clinker	Cement
1934	4,729,994	4,603,113	3,886,870	3,886,870	4,650,393	4,666,478	4,163,462	4,163,462
1935	4,500,362	4,490,648	3,515,224	3,515,224	4,288,564	4,384,022	4,884,000	4,884,000
1936	4,264,475	4,359,188	3,730,192	3,730,192	4,162,600	4,001,300	3,685,800	3,685,800

Year	Exports to Foreign Countries	New Contracts	Outstanding Contracts	Stocks
1934	319,954	4,558,200	479,800	241,500
1935	432,599	4,488,300	675,700	296,000
1936	503,900	4,488,300	797,300	382,400
1937	446,800	4,943,600	1,015,700	316,400
1938	278,400	4,309,600	12,083,209	525,300
1939	237,000	4,751,000	15,284,000	242,800

Note: Figures are confined to the member companies of the Association only.

Ceramics

Pottery making has an old history in Japan. As far back as can be traced in history some potters appear to have had their secret proprietary methods of production. In the Meiji Era, especially after the Russo-Japanese War, along with the advance in industry in general, pottery making was industrialized, a procedure which was thought difficult of accomplishment, and today annual production amounts to from ¥60,000,000 to ¥100,000,000 in value, while exports amount to ¥50,000,000.

The chief places of production are Nagoya and Seto, both in Aichi prefecture, and the eastern part of Gifu prefecture. The quantity produced in these places amounts to about 70% of the country's total production. Seto is so famous for pottery that the Japanese commonly call chinaware "Seto-mono." Besides the products named above "Kutani" ware of Ishikawa prefecture, "Shimizu" ware of Kyoto prefecture, and "Arita" ware of Saga prefecture, are all famous though produced in small quantities only. Nagoya district is one of the largest pottery producing centers in the world.

Pottery was being made, in a crude

form admittedly, at the time of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, who lived about 650 B.C. At the time of the Emperor Suinin, that is, 66 A.D., a Korean prince was nationalized, and one of his retainers, who knew the potter's art, was able to give instruction on foreign manufacturing methods. Later, at the time of the Emperor Kammu, i.e., 781 A.D., pottery was imported from China, and the art made further progress.

In 1221 A.D., a man named Kagemasa Kato studied the art of pottery making in China. When he returned, he settled in Seto village, Aichi prefecture, and made chinaware of superior quality, the origin of the present "Seto" ware.

After that, many master artisans arose and tea-things, rice bowls, pitchers, incense burners, etc., now of great rarity and value were produced.

In 1938 total production of chinaware amounted to ¥100,007,896, while there were as many as 6,674 factories and 58,116 employees. The value of total production including tiles and drainage pipes reached ¥131,683,095.

The following table shows how this industry has developed recently.

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION OF CERAMICS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Factories	Operatives	Table-ware	Furniture	Building Materials	Insulators	Toys	Total Including Others
(Value in yen)								
1931	6,353	40,320	31,026,007	9,388,264	2,304,914	4,154,698	1,103,012	54,197,884
1932	6,474	43,948	35,733,104	11,593,447	2,934,639	4,742,886	2,595,435	65,262,852
1933	6,586	53,292	45,204,776	14,910,054	6,131,345	5,886,047	2,003,566	85,246,500
1934	6,473	57,172	54,001,916	15,573,166	5,876,879	6,166,129	2,981,099	92,363,691
1935	6,624	61,135	54,616,818	15,504,495	6,754,686	9,245,261	3,471,091	99,368,010
1936	6,686	63,955	58,801,046	16,845,708	7,357,239	10,865,483	3,878,602	108,171,711
1937	6,566	62,231	59,791,085	16,161,223	8,859,706	15,155,087	4,015,185	115,191,376
1938	6,674	58,116	42,252,623	12,070,909	11,037,755	16,609,151	2,763,310	100,007,896

Factories and Production of Tiles and Drainage Pipes

(Value in yen)

Year	Tiles			Drainage Pipes		
	Factories	Operatives	Total Value	Factories	Operatives	Total Value
1931	11,725	38,072	18,345,402	784	2,865	3,814,048
1932	11,445	38,268	18,070,815	827	2,960	3,092,524
1933	11,213	37,628	19,125,574	918	3,310	3,760,772
1934	11,021	38,680	20,740,445	937	3,453	4,228,313
1935	10,800	39,398	21,277,565	944	3,913	4,431,993
1936	10,688	39,576	23,076,803	891	3,593	4,964,409
1937	10,211	35,795	21,571,140	921	4,324	5,510,655
1938	9,407	31,704	22,151,432	838	3,846	6,324,280

Exports of Chinaware Though exports of chinaware amounting to ¥1,300,000 were made as early as 1886, the exports business did not develop to any great extent until the Russo-Japanese War. In 1904, the Nippon Toki Kaisha, Ltd., was organized, to be quickly followed by the Toyo Toki Kaisha, Ltd., and the Nagoya Seito-sho. Each of these companies established large mills with up-to-date equipment and began to produce chinaware on a big scale. Pains-taking studies were made to improve the products and build up an export business, and these, together with other special factors, account for the remarkably large increase in exports. The special factors are:

(1) Japan is able to produce specially thin chinaware that other countries

cannot.

(2) Japanese artisans are especially clever at their work.

(3) The cost of production is reasonable.

Just at the time when the industry was organized on a modern basis, the World War broke out. Pottery works in belligerent countries in Europe were closed down and exports from Japan increased by leaps and bounds. A temporary set-back was experienced when the War ceased, but a recovery was soon made and there was a steady growth until 1929 after which there was a falling off until 1932, when some slight gain was made over the previous year. Exports in 1938 declined on account of the State control of trade.

EXPORTS OF CHINAWARE TO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

(In ¥1,000)

Countries	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Manchoukuo	531,128	1,238	1,222	1,391	2,222	3,821	6,510
China	991	1,387	1,339	1,127	1,145	2,453	5,574
Kwantung L. T.	1,193	2,084	2,162	1,859	2,353	4,643	5,597
British India	3,965	3,204	3,529	3,696	4,240	2,580	2,553
Straits Settlements	900	1,290	763	514	1,174	307	516
Dutch East Indies	3,728	3,269	2,133	2,388	3,109	2,714	2,992
Philippines	959	580	945	1,148	1,431	628	620
Great Britain	1,296	1,161	1,186	1,275	1,171	888	613
Holland	981	761	498	607	542	607	515
U. S. A.	10,180	14,310	15,776	15,530	19,460	8,696	11,115
Canada	1,399	1,508	1,458	2,025	1,038	1,235	1,230
Brazil	370	554	672	461	1,036	576	916
Union of S. Africa	—	—	—	—	1,259	1,009	1,318
Australia	2,707	2,331	2,804	2,291	2,598	2,915	2,264
Others and total	35,634	41,879	43,318	43,548	53,971	40,477	48,624

Domestic Consumption There are no definite figures for the exact amount of domestic consumption, but if we subtract exports from the total production we have an approximate value. Figures shown in the second column of the first table "Factories and Production of Ceramics" give some idea of the amount. Though tile making is growing fast on account of the increase in building of Western style houses, the market had been depressed because of lack of control over production and sales

until 1934 when it began to regain prosperity.

The peculiarity about chinaware intended for domestic use is that it must be made by small factories run on family basis. The reason is that the taste of the Japanese for chinaware is very varied, differing according to each individual as to the form, color, design, etc., thus making it impossible to produce on large scale mass production principles.

Glass and Glass Manufactures

Origin and Development As far as historical record shows, the art of glass manufacturing was developed in the Nara period, that is about 700 A.D. Later, techniques of manufacturing were imported both from the South Sea Islands and China, and put into practice in Osaka, Kyoto and Tokyo, where the industry developed. After the Meiji Restoration, the Government established a model factory to encourage the development of the industry and various attempts were afterwards made to make glass and glassware both by the Government and by individual concerns, but it was not until after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, that the industry made any great progress.

Glass Tableware Glass tableware was early manufactured in Kagoshima and the old province of Satsuma in Kyushu Island. After the Meiji Restoration it was manufactured by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho (Shinagawa Glass Co.) which was under Government control. At present it is manufactured by the Fukushima Glass Co. organized in 1896, Koidé Shoshi Seizosho (Koidé Glass Co.) established in 1898, Marasa Glass Co., organized in 1918, and the Kawai Shoshi Shokki Seizosho (Kawai Table Glassware Co.) organized in 1920, etc. Production by these and other manufacturers is given below.

Other Glass Articles Glass articles for scientific and medical purposes were manufactured as early as 1850. There are many manufacturers of these articles in Tokyo district.

The manufacturing of eye-glasses was first practised as early as 1600. In 1873, a certain Matsugoro Asakura from Tokyo, went to Austria and learned the art of manufacturing eye-glasses on modern principles. His son and several

others are now manufacturing them.

Red glass was manufactured by the Kagoshima clan prior to the Meiji Restoration, and later by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho, which was under Government control. Also a certain Tokijiro Iwashiro succeeded in manufacturing lenses for the use of searchlights, and light-houses. The right of manufacturing these lenses was later transferred to the Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., (The Nippon Optical Science Industrial Co., Ltd.). Iwashiro's son later succeeded in manufacturing cut glass.

Glasses for optical work were mostly imported from Germany before the World War, but when the supply was cut off by the war, it was determined that "lenses for optical science must be produced at home at any cost." The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., to which all the results of studies made by the naval arsenal were transferred in 1914, and the Osaka Industrial Research Institute, which started research work in 1921, continued investigations. The Osaka Institute succeeded in 1925 in discovering a formula for manufacturing lenses, superior to German makes at reasonable cost. The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., also succeeded in finding a way to make these lenses.

Glasses for the chemical industry, that is, hard glasses, are manufactured in several mills in Japan. High grade hard glass which is not in any degree inferior to the best imported is now manufactured by several firms for thermometers, gauges and the chemical industry.

Sheet Glass Though many efforts were previously made to manufacture sheet glass, it was not until 1904 that a Magoichi Shimoda, after two years of experimental manufacture, was successful

in producing a product that could be put on the market.

In 1907, the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd., was organized in Amagasaki, Hyogo prefecture, by the family of the late Baron Yanosuké Iwasaki. An expert and five skilled workmen were brought over from Belgium and commenced to manufacture sheet glass from 1909. The company struggled for 7 years against difficulties in technique and pressure of foreign competition, and in the end succeeded in producing about 120,000 cases a year. In 1914, a patent, which enabled the company to produce sheet glass by a mechanical process was bought from the American Window Glass Co., Ltd., and a factory was established at Makiyama in Tobata, Fukuoka prefecture. On account of the cutting off of imports from

Europe during the World War, the company not only increased production, but exported their products to places far afield as South Africa and London. In 1916, the company established a factory in Tsurumi, Yokohama, and in 1917 another in Yawata, Fukuoka prefecture. In 1923 and 1924, the factories in Makiyama and Tsurumi were extended, and at present the company is capitalized at ¥41,250,000 and has a productive capacity of 846,000,000 sq. feet, besides soda products, calcium chloride, fire brick and Corhart electrocast-brick. Its head office is now at Marunouchi, Tokyo.

At present the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd., the Nippon Sheet Glass Co., Ltd., the Nippon Thick Glass Co., Ltd., and the Tokunaga Sheet Glass Co., Ltd. are manufacturing sheet glasses.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF SHEET GLASS

(Unit: Case which contains 100 sq. feet of sheet glass)

	Production	Imports	Exports	Domestic Consumption
1930	2,045,611	356,752	57,897	2,344,466
1931	2,220,206	300,023	28,080	2,522,149
1932	2,305,626	247,144	51,204	2,501,566
1933	2,802,555	222,896	137,096	2,888,355
1934	2,897,747	179,476	283,183	2,794,040
1935	3,131,212	94,445	253,727	2,971,930
1936	3,487,096	137,740	251,207	3,373,029
1937	4,192,617	78,417	306,121	3,964,913
1938	2,552,129	10,076	262,217	2,299,988
1939 (estimate)	2,514,228	153	432,262	2,082,119

PRODUCTION OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(Value in ¥1,000)

Year	For Decorative Purposes				For Illuminating Purposes		
	Table Ware	Beads & Balls	Arm Rings	Others	Shades & Globes	Others	Bottles
1930	2,870	893	859	79	838	244	14,765
1931	2,455	71	570	68	388	944	10,927
1932	4,193	373	683	357	391	733	11,193
1933	4,143	302	696	159	499	1,280	16,845
1934	5,454	469	853	246	471	1,414	20,349
1935	6,631	239	1,030	291	569	1,119	23,716
1936	6,472	423	1,972	227	1,928	754	25,319
1937	7,023	962	1,161	260	1,014	1,089	31,325
1938	6,531	604	1,163	217	798	1,505	42,895

(Quantity in 1,000; Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Sheet Glass Thickness under 2.2 mm.		Sheet Glass Thickness under 4 mm.		Others		Looking Glasses		Others and Total Value
	Quantity Cases	Value	Quantity Cases	Value	Quantity Cases	Value	Quantity Cases	Value	
1930	1,863	12,915	169	2,291	12	220	44	25	40,583
1931	2,104	13,690	99	1,010	16	332	53	128	34,338
1932	1,757	9,908	337	2,137	210	2,124	80	235	37,233
1933	2,039	15,237	427	3,988	335	3,147	74	288	52,526
1934	2,124	15,335	513	4,449	259	3,641	0.450	433	58,857
1935	1,009	7,642	1,770	14,196	350	5,141	0.270	368	68,173
1936	956	6,699	2,161	17,146	369	8,107	76	497	78,360
1937	3,320	27,465	570	7,779	301	5,444	0.560	721	96,375
1938	1,735	22,908	380	7,222	436	6,960	0.107	421	104,970

EXPORTS OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE

(Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1937		1938		1939	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Window glass in 1,000 sq. ft.	27,866	1,560	23,068	1,364	40,396	2,403
Thermos in 1,000 doz.	410	3,131	262	2,138	241	2,607
Glass bottles in 1,000 doz.	36,225	8,030	29,485	7,001	16,555	4,818
Glass cups in 1,000 doz.	8,942	5,064	6,311	3,583	7,488	4,567
Glass tableware in 1,000 doz.	2,238	2,541	1,831	1,571	1,241	1,351
Watch glasses in gross	146	183	148	172	139	159
Glass beads and balls in 100 kin	26,640	1,432	2,130	1,223	1,619	1,305
Looking glasses in 1,000 pcs.	87,896	3,955	66	2,981	57	3,597
Spectacles in 1,000 pcs.	30,792	3,243	18,183	1,657	13,736	1,260
Other glasses and manufactures	—	6,296	—	4,195	—	4,988
Total	—	33,572	—	25,886	—	27,055

IMPORTS OF GLASS

(Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1937		1938		1939	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Uncolored plate glass under 2.2 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	590	584	54.8	71	0.1	0
Uncolored plate glass under 4 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	18	107	7.7	52	0.5	4
Other uncolored plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	46	609	14.6	566	1.3	96
Other plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	72	292	16.4	71	0.1	28
Plate glass having inlaid metal wire or net in 1,000 sq. m.	19	133	2.1	18	—	—
Dry plates for photography in 100 kin	4	491	2	—	—	—
Others	—	1,770	—	1,723	—	1,259
Total	—	3,989	—	2,501	—	1,387

Matches

The Industry in the Past A factory for making matches was first established in Japan, in Tokyo, in April 1875, by a certain Makoto Shimizu, who had just returned from studying the subject in a French technical school

and a match factory managed by the French Government. In the same year a factory was established in Osaka, and in 1877 another was established in Kobé. In 1878, three years after the first factory was established, matches to the

value of ¥24,000 were exported, and in succession factories were established in Shizuoka, Aichi, Osaka and Hyogo prefectures. By 1889, not only had the importation of matches ceased, but large quantities, in face of strong foreign competition, were being exported to China. In 1887, Hyogo-ken Match Seizogyo Kumiai (Association of Manufacturers of Matches in Hyogo prefecture) was formed and in 1900 the Dogyo Kumiai (Association of Traders in Matches) was organized. The industry experienced great prosperity during the Russo-Japanese War, exports being made not only to China but also to the South Sea Islands, Straits Settlements and India. But from about that time the match industry began to develop in China and by 1908 it had developed to the extent that the market in China was considerably curtailed for the Japanese product, then when India raised her tariff on matches, and the Dutch East Indies imposed a consumption tax on them, exports of matches to countries in the Orient were considerably reduced. Exports for some time became almost negligibly small but in 1933, they suddenly increased to ¥3,248,000 from about ¥938,000 in 1932.

The development of the match industry during the World War was such as to make the industry a menace to the International Match Company. This company, therefore, commenced negotiations with and was successful in amalgamating the Nippon Match Manufacturing Co., Ltd., which was one of the Mitsui interests, and the Nippon Match Co., came under foreign management for three years, that is, until 1927, when the largest match manufacturer in Japan, the Toyo Match Co., Ltd., seeing the advantages which would accrue from cooperation with the International Match Company agreed to amalgamation. The Daido Match Co., Ltd. was organized with a capital equally subscribed by

Japan and Sweden, and the management was placed in Japanese hands, avoiding in this way competition in foreign markets.

Exports increased along with the development of the industry and as far back as 1913 Japan's match exports totalled some ¥12,000,000 after meeting the domestic demand. During the World War annual exports were between ¥30,000,000 and ¥40,000,000, forming one of the big ten export items of Japan.

Due to the rising importance of Soviet matches in international trade, Japan's shipments to the United States have fallen almost to the vanishing point.

When the Japanese match industry was influenced by Swedish interests the export field was limited to China and part of the South Seas, America, Australia, the Near East, Africa and Europe was monopolized by Swedish interests. After Kreuger's downfall Japanese match exporters took back their old markets. In 1936, the Japan Match Manufacturing and Trading Company was established by the amalgamation of several companies, and the industry and trade in matches became unified.

EXPORTS OF MATCHES

(Value in yen)

	1938	1939
China	2,053,000	2,434,000
Kwantung L. T.	638,000	630,000
Other countries	613,000	1,551,000
Total value	3,304,000	4,615,000
Total quantity in gross	519,000	614,000

Number of Factories The number of match factories in Japan was 153 with 8,110 operatives at the end of 1938.

Production of matches and allied articles in recent years has been as follows:

PRODUCTION OF MATCHES, ETC.

Year	Quantity Produced Gross	Value (In yen)	Match-wood (Value in yen)	
			Match-boxes	Match-wood
1930	16,722,653	7,464,081	645,765	600,047
1931	13,535,353	6,686,245	457,067	701,324
1932	18,234,683	7,306,721	764,905	613,339
1933	20,711,239	9,202,221	1,169,029	710,525
1934	20,597,615	10,033,567	550,947	616,915
1935	27,369,618	12,659,929	607,979	742,767
1936	21,874,973	11,824,397	831,624	1,572,439
1937	23,969,588	12,544,564	807,520	1,576,001
1938	22,869,636	13,303,408	849,920	2,293,793

Lacquer-ware

Industry Inherent Japan is the only country in the world enjoying world-wide renown in the technical art of lacquer-ware manufacture. The various industrial arts of Japan such as the porcelainic and weaving owe their origin to China or Western countries, but as regards lacquer, Japan acknowledges no teacher, from remote antiquity, especially in the technique of relief lacquer, the art has developed without aid from any foreign methods of manufacture or materials. For more than two thousand years the craftsmen of Japan, having striven to improve, finally attained a degree of wonderful skill. The production of lacquer-ware is confined to Oriental countries only,—Japan, China, Korea and India,—where lacquer juice, known as urushi, is obtainable, although there is an evident tendency in Western countries in recent years to manufacture lacquer-ware of industrial art value. The application of mother of pearl, known as nacre work, became common during the Nara period. A large number of ancient examples of lacquer-ware that have served as models for succeeding generations are still kept in the Shosoin, the Imperial Treasure House in Nara. These represent products of the Tempyo era, when even large wooden buildings were lacquered. Among such buildings left standing are the Chuson Temple in Iwate prefecture and the Byodoin Temple in Kyoto prefecture. Embossed lacquer-ware was invented during the Kamakura Age, when tasteful designs of chrysanthemums and other flowers were in vogue.

From Toyotomi Downward A gold-mother of pearl inkstone case in embossed lacquer with a chrysanthemum design is now treasured in the Hachiman Shrine at Kamakura. The pomp and glory of the third Ashikaga Shogun stimulated the art and resulted in the perfecting of embossed lacquer work and the extension of its application to articles of daily necessity. Hideyoshi Toyotomi accomplished his gigantic task

of pacifying the country. Grandeur was a unique feature of his administrative policy and social and other life in those days. The grand Momoyama style, named after his palace, reflected on the industrial arts. Koetsu relief lacquer was supreme and Kodalji relief lacquer was also produced, representative lacquer products of those days. When the third Tokugawa Shogun, Iyemitsu, came into power, he erected the great Nikko mausoleum and Zojoji Temple at Shiba, Tokyo for his grandfather and father respectively, and lacquer was amply applied to these buildings. During the reign of the fifth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, an exquisite technique attained its zenith, defying all the imitative powers of succeeding generations. It was applied to scabbards of swords, miniature medicine-cases (known as Inro) and various articles used by the Daimyo. Notable lacquerers such as Koami Choju, Koma Ikyu, Ogata Korin and others flourished during this period. Since that time the production of lacquer has spread to various localities throughout the country, and unique local color has been freely introduced into the design. Competition ensued as in all industrial articles, and some of the products of those days were exported abroad. Japanese industrial arts were almost wholly neglected during several years following the Meiji Restoration. Lacquered articles of artistic value were sold at ridiculously low prices and these were purchased by foreigners who had eyes for their value and who took them to their own countries. This provided an opportunity to introduce the Japanese lacquer art to foreign countries, but at the same time Japan lost many articles of both aesthetic and monetary value. (Information on the industrial art are given in the Japan Year Book, 1939-40, pp. 546, 547.)

Production

Production of lacquer-ware in recent years was as follows:

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION OF LACQUER-WARE

Year	Factories	Operatives	Tableware	Furniture		Others	Total
				(In yen)	(In yen)		
1932	10,267	28,794	10,851,938	6,918,301	8,862,670	26,632,909	
1933	10,784	30,431	12,139,000	8,012,675	9,419,390	29,571,065	
1934	12,223	37,641	13,366,815	9,437,231	13,507,713	36,311,759	

EARNINGS OF PRINTING HOUSES

Amount in ¥1,000	
Year	Amount
1936	225,705
1937	258,519
1938	264,836

PRODUCTION OF MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

(Not mentioned elsewhere)

Value in ¥1,000

Paper goods:			
	1936	1937	1938
Boxes	14,005	15,608	21,703
Tags	912	940	1,169
Toys	492	925	758
Fans (Sensu)	96	193	129
Fans (Uchiwa)	541	649	682
Lanterns	552	619	682
Note-books	5,415	4,492	7,799
Total including others	58,092	75,456	95,263
Bamboo goods:			
Baskets	9,574	9,935	10,280
Blinds (Sudaré)	1,327	1,247	1,311
Total including others	11,297	11,628	12,038
Wicker goods (Yanagi-gōri)	3,657	3,469	3,570
(Yanagi-gōri)	2,680	2,574	2,474
Cane-work (Cane table and chair)	2,439	2,427	2,124
(Cane table and chair)	1,345	1,358	1,114
Mat (Tatami omoté)	14,705	17,176	21,037
Mat (Goza and Hanamushiro)	9,223	11,524	18,427
Straw, chip and other braids	5,101	7,936	6,046
Leather	45,945	68,883	102,270
Leather goods			
Shoes	27,474	29,742	25,215
Bags			
Bags	4,682	4,820	3,343
Saddlery	1,863	2,935	6,216
Belt	5,233	5,097	6,362
Small bags	2,530	2,504	3,695
Total	41,784	45,101	44,834
Button (shell, ivory, bone)			
Button (shell, ivory, bone)	5,257	7,449	7,509
Imitation pearl	1,343	807	688
Brushes (Tooth brush)	6,511	7,500	8,119
(Tooth brush)	3,245	4,297	4,946
Rope (fibrous)	35,122	48,514	50,759
Foreign style clothes			
Foreign style clothes	29,501	33,994	41,303
Underwears	11,552	19,596	20,269
Japanese socks	42,698	54,675	54,474
Handkerchief	508	1,247	924
Hat:			
Felt	16,853	19,862	13,040
Straw	1,484	1,369	1,083
1936	1937	1938	
Imitation panama	498	764	665
Total including others	22,469	27,148	19,326
Waterproof cloth	3,622	11,229	20,360
Rubber cloth	4,030	3,703	14,175
Imitation leather cloth	6,526	7,678	10,690
Fabric materials for medical treatment			
Fabric materials for medical treatment	8,908	13,654	23,492
Asbestine articles	9,587	12,080	23,261
Metallic foil (Gold-foil)	9,159	9,213	6,462
(Gold-foil)	1,457	566	579
Writing brush (Fudé)	164	237	603
Fountainpen	3,081	2,926	4,190
Pencil	4,631	5,430	5,613
Crayon	1,318	1,324	1,489
Paper umbrella	240	1,504	844
Umbrella	288	652	1,001
Imitation flower	120	200	291
Stone goods	5,214	5,819	3,399

EARNINGS BY WORKERS IN FINISHING, MENDING, ETC.

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	1936	1937	1938
For Spinning and weaving industry	279,789	321,399	338,466
Metallic industry	21,560	34,216	57,231
Machinery industry	95,245	123,257	222,854
Kiln industry	4,412	8,760	5,667
Chemical industry	5,651	9,218	12,392
Wood work	11,992	11,463	12,483
Printing and binding	6,236	7,341	10,684
Foodstuff industry	2,449	3,747	6,741
Miscellaneous industry	21,790	28,848	57,268
Total	449,128	548,254	723,790

CHAPTER XXIII

COMMUNICATIONS



OSAKA DEN-ATSU K.K.

(The Osaka Transformer Co., Ltd.)

Dome Bldg., Osaka, Nippon

TRANSFORMERS WELDING
MACHINES AND WIRELESS
TRANSMITTERS & RECEIVERS

CHAPTER XXIII COMMUNICATIONS

General

The communications of the country are supervised by the Minister of Communications and a special account is established for the management of this business, beginning with the fiscal year 1934-1935. General condition of the business in Japan proper in 1939-1940 may be obtained from the following:

Post, telegraph and telephone officials and operatives (Sept. 30, 1940)	239,930
Post, telegraph and telephone offices (Sept. 30, 1940)	16,420
Ordinary mail routes (Mar. 31, 1940) in km.	100,570
Ordinary mails accepted (1939-40)	4,585,833,852
Ordinary mails delivered (1938-39)	5,137,079,629
Parcel post routes (Mar. 31, 1935) in km.	85,385
Parcels accepted (1939-40)	101,241,070

Parcels delivered (1939-40)	86,597,782
Telegraph routes (Mar. 31, 1940) in km.	49,270
Telegraph lines (Mar. 31, 1940) in km.	375,719
Telegraphs dispatched (1939-40)	88,305,403
Telegraphs received (1939-40)	94,642,947
Telephone subscribers (Sept. 30, 1940)	1,034,387
Telephone routes (Mar. 31, 1940) in km.	88,931
Telephone lines (Mar. 31, 1940) in km.	8,066,490
Telephones (1939-40)	1,345,755
Telephone messages (1939-40)	5,886,071,005
Income from postage (in yen)	
(1938-39)	135,787,000
(1939-40)	152,485,000
Total income (1938-39)	414,640,000
(1939-40)	471,112,000

Postal Service

Historical Survey

The present state postal service system was established in 1871, between Tokyo and Osaka. In August of that year, post offices were opened in Niigata, Hakodate, Kobe, Nagasaki, and Yokohama. In December a new postal route was established between Tokyo and Nagasaki, connecting the two cities in 7 days and 17 hours. In May 1872, the postal service between Yokohama and Tokyo was greatly improved by the establishment of five deliveries a day, and by July the service was extended to all the cities and towns of importance throughout the country, except a part of Hokkaido.

Foreign Mail Opens In March 1872, a foreign mail service was opened at the same time as the establishment of official postal regulations. In those days, foreign mail matter in Japan was handled with the aid of the British, American and French post offices in Yokohama, Kobe and Nagasaki. Soon after

the conclusion of the America-Japan Mail Service Treaty in 1873, the American post offices were withdrawn from this country, and Japan was thus placed on an equal footing with the U.S.A. as regards the mail service between the two countries. In 1877, an arrangement was made with twenty-five countries participating in the International Mail Service Treaty. Thereupon, the British and the French post offices were also withdrawn from this country.

The post offices were at first classified into five grades, and in March 1886, they were classified into three as at present. In view of the development of telephone and telegraph business, the authorities introduced a revision in the system of the Communications Ministry in 1903, and divided post offices into post, telegraph, and telephone offices each of them being classified into 1st, 2nd and 3rd, or 1st and 2nd in the case of telephone offices. With the rapid increase in the amount of mail matter and

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE MESSAGES IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	In the Same Subscription Districts		With Other Districts		
	Messages between Subscribers	Hours of Conversations at Offices and Public Telephones	Requests for Calling out	Hours of Conversation	Requests for Calling out
1933-34	3,564,536,772	36,949,570	43,165	211,604,540	2,003,246
1934-35	3,783,991,019	40,202,841	42,124	236,789,514	2,119,144
1935-36	3,984,266,968	44,791,390	44,494	273,789,863	2,216,326
1936-37	4,412,775,259	51,439,100	61,496	307,733,439	2,357,039
1937-38	4,976,321,936	59,852,742	70,164	342,590,232	2,621,762
1938-39	4,905,000,000	—	84,000	361,600,000	2,820,000
1939-40	5,389,000,000	—	102,000	411,801,000	3,158,000

Wireless Telephone Service

The first experiment with wireless telephony in Japan was made in 1911 by the Communications Ministry with very satisfactory results. It was in 1923, however, that the service was opened for public use between Kobe city and steamers in the harbor. In 1926, this service was extended to Moji. The result being satisfactory, the Government decided further to extend the service and in December 1932, the International Telephone Company, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, was established through the solicitation of the Communications Ministry to build up stations for the use of the Government and private bodies. This was done to facilitate wireless telephone service between Japan and the world, Japan's colonies and ships at sea. The transmitting station of the company is established at Nazaki, Ibaraki prefecture, and the receiving station at Komuro, Saitama prefecture, and these stations are connected with each other and with the Tokyo Central Telephone Office by cables. Wireless telephones are now available between Tokyo, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Kobe, Osaka,

Kyoto, Yokohama, Toyohashi, Nara, Himéji, Shimonoséki, Fukui, Fukuoka, Yawata, Wakamatsu, Nishinomiya, Amagasaki and Suma. The service has been opened between Taiwan and Tokyo, on June 20, 1934.

In 1934-35 international wireless telephone service was successively opened between Japan and Manchoukuo, U. S. A., Canada, Mexico, Cuba, Philippines, Dutch East Indies, Sumatra, England and Germany. The service with other 28 European countries was opened in July 1935, with China in February 1936, with Cape Town and Brazil in April 1936, with Saigon in May 1936, and with Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, French-Indo-China, Thai, and Union of South Africa in 1937.

Rates for the first 3 minutes range from ¥80 to ¥92 for European countries and from ¥72 to ¥95 for the U.S.A., the highest being ¥164 for Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. (See the Appendix.)

Telephotograph Service This service is available between Tokyo, Osaka, Taiwan and Mukden, and between Tokyo and London.

Radio

Radio broadcasting in Japan is under the control of a single organization, the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan, which in turn is supervised by the Ministry of Communications. Programs are subjected to strict censorship and nothing that might harm the interests of the country and its people is allowed to go on the air. Advertising of all sorts is prohibited. Political speeches cannot be included in the daily programs. Even election campaign speeches and Diet proceedings cannot be broadcasted.

The First Program The first radio program in Japan went on the air on March 22, 1925, five years after the world's first regular commercial broadcasting by the station KDKA, East Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The station, using the call letters JOAK, was in Tokyo, and it had a power of only 500 watts. This station, established temporarily at Shibaura, on the water front of Tokyo Harbor, was replaced in July by a 1 kw. station at Atagoyama, a hill in the southern part of Tokyo. In the difficult times following the great earth-

quake and fire of September 1923, which laid waste a greater part of Tokyo, the radio played an important part in comforting and encouraging the citizens who were working hard to rebuild their city and their homes.

Shortly afterwards, small stations were established in Osaka and Nagoya, which form with Tokyo the three largest population centers. The engineers in charge of these stations were sceptical about their success. There was no assurance that the Japanese public would respond by buying radio sets and listening in, or would like the programs once they were heard. These fears, however, were groundless. For a time there were not enough receiving sets in the stores to meet the demand. Instead of a novelty, the radio became a daily necessity. Elated at their success, the promoters worked out a plan to centralize all the broadcasting in the country, which was heartily approved by the Ministry of Communications. Before the end of a year, the stations in Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya were merged, and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was formed to assure nationwide cooperation in meeting the demand for more efficient stations and better programs. The present number of broadcasting stations is 7 with 28 sub-stations.

Program Hours The working hours of each broadcasting station in Japan differ a little according to their local conditions as well as the seasons of the year. According to the report of the JOAK, the average broadcasting hours per day in 1938 were 11 hours and 26 minutes in the general broadcasting and 4 hours and 36 minutes in the broadcasting for cities.

The first program of the day is sent out at 6.00 a.m. (from April to October) and at 6.30 a.m. (from November to March), and the closing announcements of the day's program go on the air at 10.30 p.m.

Overseas Broadcast

The Broadcasting Corporation of Japan inaugurated daily short wave broadcast, under the name of "Overseas Broadcast" on June 1, 1935 with the object of furnishing the residents in foreign countries with accurate information about Japan and of introducing the culture of Japan.

The programs of this broadcast consist of news in Japanese and English, music, entertainment, talk and eyewitness accounts of various sport events and other subjects, specially selected to present a true and interesting glimpse of the real Japan to listeners abroad.

At present, five separate programs are being sent out on five transmissions: namely, (1) Europe, (2) South America, (3) the Eastern Part of North America, (4) the Pacific Coast of North America and Hawaii, and (5) China and the South Seas, Indo-China, Malay Peninsula, India and the East Indies. Furthermore, preparations have now virtually been completed for another extension, that is the setting up of two more transmissions so that two new, separate programs may be sent out,—one directed to Hawaii, the other to the Near East. In the near future, these two new transmissions will be formally opened for overseas broadcasting service.

Short-wave transmissions to the above-mentioned directions are as follows:

For EUROPE

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.) JZJ 11,800 kc/s (25.42 m.)
Time: 4:00—6:00 a.m., Tokyo Time (19:00—21:00 GMT)

For SOUTH AMERICAN COUNTRIES

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.) JZJ 11,800 kc/s (25.42 m.)
Time: 6:30—7:30 a.m., Tokyo Time (21:30—22:30 GMT)

For the EASTERN DISTRICTS of NORTH AMERICA

Call Sign: JLS 2 17,845 kc/s (16.81 m.)
Time: 8:00—9:00 p.m., Previous day (EST) 10:00—11:00 a.m., Tokyo Time (1:00—2:00 GMT)

For the PACIFIC COAST of NORTH AMERICA and HAWAII

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.)
Time: 9:00—10:30 p.m., Previous day (PST) 2:00—3:30 p.m., Tokyo Time (5:00—6:30 GMT)

For CHINA and the SOUTH SEAS

Call Sign: JZK 15,160 kc/s (19.79 m.) JZJ 11,800 kc/s (25.42 m.)
Time: 9:00—11:30 p.m., Tokyo Time (12:00—14:30 GMT)

Listeners

When the Tokyo broadcasting station was opened on March 22, 1925, the total number of listeners for the whole country stood around 5,400. On August 29, 1926, when the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was inaugurated, the number of listeners had reached a figure of over 238,200.

The listening fee of two yen a month which had been calculated to be charged at the time when the broadcasting service was started, was reduced to one yen due to the unexpected increase in the number of listeners. This rate was uniform all over the country.

In September 1928, the number of listeners reached the 500,000 mark. In February 1932, three years and four months later, the number ran into 1,000,000, and in April of the same year, the subscription fee was reduced to seventy-five sen. The so-called "Golden Age" in our broadcasting begins at this period and in June 1933, the number passed the 1,500,000 mark, and keeping up the momentum, it leapt into 2,000,000 in April 1935. In commemoration of this growth, the subscription fee was reduced to the modest sum of 50 sen a month, which is being kept up to this day.

To sum up, it took about seven years for the number of registrations to reach the first 1,000,000; the next 1,000,000 was reached in three years only; while the subscription fee has been reduced to half the original sum during these 10 years,—a rate without parallel elsewhere in the world.

Thereafter, there was a tendency for the number of registrations to go on rapidly increasing, and on December 28, 1939, the number reached 4,866,058, the rate of distribution representing 33.0 per 100 families.

Radio in 1940 On May 29, 1940 the number of listeners passed the 5 million mark. In connection with the increase in the number of registrants, an inactive diffusion of radio sets in agricultural districts as well as mountain and fishery zones remained a serious defect in the past. Since 1937, however, this defect has been greatly remedied. In a period of three years from 1937 to 1939, for example, the number of registered listeners increased by 132 per cent in village districts, the total number having well exceeded 1,000,000. This increase, despite vari-

ous inconveniences in listening in to radio broadcasts in village districts as compared with city zones, is believed to be a direct result of the China Affair. In 1940, the number of listeners in the agricultural community gained by 100,470 while those in the fishery zone gained by 3,118, showing a gain of 29,048 or 41 per cent and 1,462 or 88 per cent, respectively, over the advance of 1939 over 1938. Subscribers among commercial circles increased by 3,330 or 6 per cent from 65,687 in 1939 to 69,073 in 1940 while governmental workers and those engaged in liberal professions increased by 357 or 0.5 per cent from 74,843 in 1939 to 75,205 in 1940. The increase rate in agricultural and fishery professions has tended sharply upward since 1938, while that in commerce has continued downward. The cancellation of registrations by listeners in 1940 was largely attributable to the change of address or traveling. They numbered 38,958 in 1940, rising by 3,994 over 1939. The transfer of radio sets in 1940 numbered 24,754, gaining by 18,703 over 1939 while the cancellations because of troubles of radio sets (21,188 cases in 1940) and overlapped applications (11,879 cases in 1940) were also dominant in 1940.

The registration of listeners in 1940 kept on normally increasing in the first five months, January to May, the monthly licenses newly issued averaging 150,000. With the number of cancellations deducted, the net increase of licensed listeners amounted to 66,000 monthly. Specially, the new licenses issued during May totalled 108,000, far exceeding the 102,000, the past high, registered in January 1939, and establishing a new record since the commencement of radio broadcasting in this country. However, the registration started to decline from June and hit the bottom in October, the number of increased registrations in that month amounting to only 42,000, the lowest since October 1938. With October at the bottom, the upward trend gathered momentum. As a result, the total number of new licenses issued during 1940 came to top the 1,000,000 mark, thus eclipsing the figures for 1939 by more than 98,000. The depression of registration of new listeners in the five months, June to October, may be attributed to a scarcity of radio sets because of the adoption of official prices. In the past, the trend of the registra-

tion of listeners was largely based on economic factors, while, in the future the increased accessibility of radio receiving sets to the general public is expected to affect the registration situation. The new registrations in January 1941 totalled 124,544 while the cancellations in that month aggregated 25,499 with the result that the net increase in registrations amounted to 99,045, the highest record since the beginning of

radio broadcasting in this country and an increase of 21,521 over January 1940. The favorable tone in January was principally due to the steady and smooth supply of radio receiving sets, which was temporarily disturbed in the second half of 1940, because of official restriction of prices, the positive campaigns by the Central Broadcasting Corporation and the general business prosperity.

PREFECTURAL DISTRIBUTION OF REGISTERED RADIO LISTENERS

Prefectures	Registered Listeners		Per 100 Families	
	At end of 1940	At end of June, 1941	At end of 1940	At end of June, 1941
Tokyo	1,111,369	1,163,026	79.1	77.5
Kanagawa	246,724	269,293	63.7	62.7
Saitama	105,639	125,591	37.0	43.0
Chiba	105,928	115,822	35.0	38.6
Ibaragi	67,040	82,325	22.7	27.4
Tochigi	68,695	76,210	31.2	35.4
Gunma	78,125	89,284	33.9	37.8
Yamanashi	45,940	50,791	36.3	39.8
Shizuoka	153,398	163,850	42.1	45.5
Niigata	106,621	116,671	29.4	31.3
Osaka	576,136	621,737	57.8	61.0
Hyogo	294,808	319,322	45.6	46.6
Kyoto	184,110	198,369	49.4	55.0
Nara	48,587	54,934	38.4	44.3
Wakayama	48,640	53,239	25.7	28.3
Shiga	38,105	42,315	24.8	28.3
Tokushima	30,825	35,123	20.8	24.4
Kochi	31,398	38,102	20.1	24.6
Aichi	391,243	314,795	48.3	49.7
Miye	59,665	68,035	24.7	27.8
Gifu	70,079	76,951	28.1	30.4
Fukui	33,393	39,751	24.3	29.6
Ishikawa	41,156	48,349	25.8	31.3
Toyama	49,313	57,376	31.3	36.3
Nagano	107,121	124,335	32.1	37.8
Hiroshima	123,841	151,513	31.2	38.1
Ehime	51,882	63,507	21.1	25.3
Okayama	81,261	94,368	28.4	33.3
Yamaguchi	80,724	93,018	30.3	32.3
Shimane	36,448	42,305	23.0	26.8
Tottori	22,758	26,947	23.8	28.4
Kagawa	39,433	47,691	25.6	32.0
Kumamoto	35,086	99,826	31.7	38.7
Fukuoka	213,042	229,888	37.8	37.9
Nagasaki	56,350	62,669	21.6	23.1
Saga	30,119	33,434	23.6	25.3
Oita	41,456	49,882	20.7	25.4
Miyazaki	31,001	35,405	18.7	21.5
Kagoshima	56,070	60,451	16.6	17.9
Okinawa	1,237	1,523	0.96	1.2
Miyagi	63,121	70,445	30.1	33.8
Fukushima	51,750	62,128	18.4	22.2
Iwate	30,709	36,584	17.2	19.7
Yamagata	37,608	41,431	19.9	22.2
Akita	29,337	33,835	16.2	19.0

COMMUNICATIONS

Prefectures	Registered Listeners		Per 100 Families	
	At end of 1940	At end of June, 1941	At end of 1940	At end of June, 1941
Aomori	32,358	38,602	18.9	22.8
Hokkaido	165,411	184,900	28.8	31.6
Karafuto	14,047	15,776	21.5	21.7
South Seas Mandated Islands	293	305	1.3	1.3
Total	5,369,898	5,922,059	37.9	40.9

YEARLY INCREASE OF LISTENERS

Year	Number of new registrations	Number of discontinuances	Number of Net increases	Total number of listeners at the end of year	Per 100 Families
1935	659,174	216,072	443,102	2,422,111	17.9
1936	728,777	246,128	482,649	2,904,823	21.4
1937	942,550	262,818	679,732	3,584,462	26.4
1938	878,089	296,900	581,189	4,165,729	29.4
1939	716,628	216,299	500,329	4,666,058	33.0
1940	1,064,921	361,355	703,426	5,369,898	37.9

REGISTRATIONS BY CITIES AND RURAL COMMUNITIES

	Total		Cities		Town & Villages	
	Number of licence holders	%	Number of licence holders	%	Number of licence holders	%
1935	2,304,479	100	1,628,059	70.6	676,420	29.4
1936	2,776,189	100	1,915,857	69.0	860,332	31.0
1937	3,402,489	100	2,259,513	66.4	1,142,976	33.5
1938	4,165,729	100	2,632,629	63.1	1,533,100	36.8
1939	4,666,058	100	2,897,837	62.1	1,768,221	37.9
1940 (March)	4,862,137	100	2,992,965	61.5	1,869,172	38.5
1941 (")	5,668,031	100	3,402,087	60.1	2,265,944	39.9

CHAPTER XXIV

LAND AND AIR TRANSPORTATION

K.K. IRISU SHOKAI

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KANSAI KYUKO RAILWAY CO., LTD.

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CHAPTER XXIV

LAND AND AIR TRANSPORTATION

State Railways

Historical Background

Japan's railway projects date from 1869, when the Government formed a plan to lay a trunk line linking Tokyo with Kyoto and Kobe, together with some branches to Yokohama and Tsuruga, a port on the Japan Sea. As the first step, half a million yen was sanctioned for the work between Tokyo (Shimbashi) and Yokohama, but the State Treasury was in no position to find this amount, while private capital declined to venture into this novel field of investment. It was at this time that an Englishman, Horatio Nelson Lay, by name, came forward with a proposal to furnish the required funds. The terms offered by him were accepted and a Japanese loan for one million sterling was placed on the London market. With the arrival of a British engineering corps and materials, the first sod was dug on the 28.962 kilometer Shimbashi-Yokohama section in March 1870, and on the 32.18 kilometer Kobe-Osaka section in November 1870. The gauge adopted for these lines was one of 1.067 meters, which has later become the standard gauge of the Japanese railways.

Tokyo-Yokohama and Other Lines
The work between Shimbashi and Yokohama was completed in September 1872, while the Kobe-Osaka line was opened to traffic in 1874 and it was further extended to Kyoto in 1877. These sections have practically formed the nucleus of what now constitutes the Tokaido Line, one of the main arteries of railway traffic in Japan. In 1880, the Kyoto-Otsu section was completed and in 1884 a further extension with a length of 41.834 kilometers between Tsuruga and Nagahama, a town along Lake Biwa, was completed and opened to traffic in pursuance of the railway idea of linking up the Pacific and the Japan Sea. Meanwhile, a survey was made on the Otaru-Horonai section in Hokkaido, where colonization work was be-

ing strenuously encouraged. Construction of this section was soon undertaken and the 88.495 kilometer length was opened to business in 1882, thus bringing the total length of railway under Government ownership toward the close of 1884 to 185.035 kilometers.

Private Lines About this time the Government was in financial difficulties and the building of State railways practically came to a standstill except for a few extensions. It was at this time that, not being in a position to undertake the work itself, the Government began to encourage private enterprise, the encouragement mostly being in the shape of subsidies. Under these circumstances, many private railways were built in rapid succession, the most notable among them being the Nippon Railway, the Sanyo Railway, the Kyushu Railway and the Hokkaido Colliery Railway. The total length of line thus built by private capital in the ten years between 1881 and 1891 aggregated 1,874.485 kilometers, a length more than double that of the State which did not exceed 886.559 kilometers by the end of 1891.

The Trunk Line Prior to this, the Government decided to lay a trunk line through the Nakasendo, the old mountainous highway of Central Japan, but in view of engineering difficulties along this line it was subsequently abandoned in favor of the level region of the Tokaido. Work on the new route was finished in July 1889, whereby a through service was opened for a distance of 611.42 kilometers between Tokyo and Kobe. Then a branch to Yokosuka was opened and a 160.9 kilometer section between Takasaki and Naoetsu was completed with the exception of 9.654 kilometers over the Usul Pass. This difficult section, for which the Abt rack rail system was adopted, was not opened for service until 1893.

The Railway Construction Law In view of the industrial progress being

made in the country there was an urgent demand for the speedy construction of more railways. The entire length of Japanese railways at that time amounted to only 2,574.4 kilometers and the bulk of contemplated lines was in remote districts with no prospect of immediate profit, and on that account did not appeal to private enterprise. These circumstances showed both the Government and the public the advisability of state acquisition of private lines and opinion was further strengthened by the financial failure of some of the private concerns. In view of this, in 1892, the Railway Construction Law was passed and the Government set to work constructing important lines. The law embodied a comprehensive program of railway building and contained the guiding principles on which the railway system of Japan was founded. At the same time the matter of consolidating the different lines into one complete system was being studied by a committee of enquiry appointed by the Government. The acquisition of private railways was accomplished in October 1907, the subsidiary businesses being taken over at the same time. Immediately after nationalization the State Railways were organized under a Railway Bureau, which was directly responsible to the Cabinet. But in May 1920, a separate Ministry of State was created to deal with railway affairs and the Minister of Railways was appointed to control it.

Railway Network

The law of 1892 authorized the Government to build certain specified lines within a certain limit of time, and also to buy up such private railways as were judged necessary for the completion of a unified system. Pursuant to this program the State Railways proceeded with the work of construction and in 1906 and 1907 purchased 17 private lines to a total length of 4,547.034 kilometers, thereby bringing under national control all the railway lines in Japan proper, with the exception of feeding lines of local importance. In 1922 after a careful survey of the State lines the Railway Construction Law was modified and some new lines were added to the original program. At the same time it was decided that, pursuant to the new law, such local lines as formed a connecting link between the State lines,

either already projected or considered necessary for completing a unified national railway system be purchased.

Organization and Staff

Prior to the nationalization of the private lines, the State lines were operated on a departmental system based on the principle of centralization. The system worked well because the management of the State lines was a relatively small business, but when the Government assumed the management of all lines it was found unequal to the extra work, and in December 1908, the Imperial Government Railways were removed from the control of the Minister of Communications and assigned to a newly created administrative body, the Railway Board. The administration was then decentralized and remains so today. The existing system of organization of the State Railways was established in May 1920, when the said Railway Board was made, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 143, an independent department of the Central Government. According to the regulations, the Ministry of Railways not only controls the whole of the State lines, but supervises the provincial railways and tramways in Japan proper. It maintains one central and six regional offices. The Central Office is directly governed by the Minister of Railways and manages all matters relating to the State Railways as well as maintaining supervision over provincial railways and tramways. It is composed of eight bureaux according to the kind of business dealt with. They are the Minister's Secretariat; Bureau of Local Railway Administration; Bureau of Traffic and Operation; Bureau of Construction; Bureau of Maintenance and Improvement; Bureau of Mechanical Engineering; Bureau of Electricity; and Bureau of Finance and Purchase. The Central Office also controls Regions, District Construction, District Improvement, District Electric Offices and Tokyo Railway Hospital. On April 23, 1930, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 83, a further bureau, the Board of Tourist Industry was created as a separate bureau of the Ministry of Railways. The bureau is controlled by the Minister of Railways and attends to the business of the tourist industry, its object being to encourage people of other lands, by advertising and in other ways, to visit Japan and

see her incomparable scenic beauty, natural charm and national manners and customs, and to encourage Japanese living at home to take trips to different parts of the Empire.

As stated above, the administration of the State Railways is decentralized into six regions, Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Mōji, Sendai and Sapporo. Each region is a complete unit and is in charge of a director who is vested with power to conduct, at his own discretion, all affairs relative to his jurisdiction, excepting matters of general and large import for which decision of the central administration has to be obtained.

In the State Railways of Japan the members of the staff are either Government officials or employees.

On March 31, 1937 there were altogether 227,689 (8,118 females) servants in the employment of the State Railways as against 218,352 in the preceding year. The total salary for the year 1936-37 was ¥153,812,691 as against ¥147,990,026 in 1935-36. The average annual salary per person in employment was ¥670. As compared with the preceding year, the staff shows an increase of 9,337 during the year, and the annual payment of salaries increased by ¥6,822,665.

Traffic

Earnings of the State Railways from traffic in Japan proper in the past 10 years follow:

Fiscal Years	Working Revenue			Total
	Goods Traffic	Passenger Traffic	Miscellaneous	
	(Unit ¥1,000)			
1931-32	180,365	245,359	7,824	433,540
1932-33	178,717	239,017	8,219	425,954
1933-34	203,189	261,159	9,905	474,254
1934-35	225,246	282,857	10,564	518,668
1935-36	233,397	300,422	10,714	544,534
1936-37	259,773	326,610	11,786	598,171
1937-38	294,133	359,573	16,458	670,164
1938-39	338,963	412,462	17,522	768,947
1939-40	356,383	527,140	—	883,524
1940-41	371,944	623,827	—	995,772

Increase of Car-loadings The number of passengers and the volume of goods carried by the State Railways have increased in these years revealing greater activities of the nation in the execution of various duties required by international wars, car-loadings increased about 48 per cent in July 1942 as compared with July 1937 or at the beginning of the current war against Chungking, as indicated in the following table:

INDICES OF CAR-LOADINGS

(July 1937=100)

Months	1940	1941	1942
January	120.3	138.9	137.8
February	125.6	139.1	133.7
March	126.5	139.0	135.0
April	127.3	139.2	138.0
May	133.3	140.3	142.4
June	132.4	136.4	141.3
July	134.4	137.6	148.8
August	137.1	148.3	—
September	138.3	145.2	—
October	131.3	137.9	—

Months	1940	1941	1942
November	135.4	141.8	—
December	135.2	135.8	—

Length of Open Lines

The total length of State lines open for traffic on March 31, 1938, the end of the fiscal year of 1937, reached 20,501 kilometers as against 17,422 kilometers in 1936-37, showing an increase of 3,079 kilometers. The total length of tracks in 1936-37 reached 27,801,925 kilometers as against 27,299,552 kilometers in 1935-36, indicating an increase of 502,373 kilometers. Of the total length of lines open for traffic 16,253,323 kilometers are covered by single tracks, 1,945,749 by double tracks, 18,800 by triple tracks, 204,332 by quadruple and the rest by multiple tracks.

Finance

By Railway Special Account Law, enforced since 1909, the budget of the State Railways was made separate from the general finances of the State. Furthermore, the law provides that all

capital expenditure for railway construction and improvement should be met from the revenue accruing from all sources of traffic and that the expenditure should, in case the revenue is not sufficient to cover it, be supplemented by the proceeds of public loans issued as a charge on this special account.

The Capital Revenue settled for the fiscal year 1938 was ¥239,926,000 as against ¥248,030,000 of the expenditure settled, being an increase of ¥42,763,000 for the former and of ¥35,244,000 for the latter as compared with the preced-

ing year. The increase in the revenue settled was attributable chiefly to the increase in amount transferred from the railway profit, as well as proceeds of sundry receipts, while the gain in the expenditure settled was due to the increase in the expenditure on the railway construction, and the improvement and the motor routes, as well as the sum appropriated to the redemption of liabilities. The total amount of capital reached ¥4,454,302,327 at the end of March 1939. Below are given returns on this account settled for the past three years:

Item	1936-37	1937-38 (In yen)	1938-39
Capital revenue	172,936,606	195,798,000	238,605,000
Surplus on stores account	425,838	1,376,000	1,321,000
Total revenue	173,362,444	197,174,000	239,926,000
Construction, improvement and motor-car routes	136,405,478	148,255,000	175,164,000
Redemption of debts	22,287,245	22,531,000	22,866,000
Temporary expenses	—	2,000	—
Transfer to general account	—	30,000	—
Transfer to special account of temporary military expenses	—	—	40,000
Supply for stores fund	—	10,000	10,000
Total expenditure	158,692,723	212,786,000	248,030,000

Stores Account The settled amount of Stores Account Revenue for the year 1938-39 was ¥305,543,000 and the expenditure on this item amounted to ¥321,493,000, or an increase of ¥75,211,000 for revenue and of ¥91,063,000 for expenditure as compared with the previous year. The increase in the revenue was accounted for partly by the larger pro-

ceeds of sales of railway stores, and partly by the increase in receipts accruing from repairs of railway stores and from the supply of electric current while the increase in the expenditure is accounted for by the rise in the stores and workshop expenses and the charge for electric current.

Items	1936-37	1937-38 (In yen)	1938-39
Railway stores and workshop receipts	190,814,739	230,332,000	305,543,000
Railway stores and workshop expenses	185,415,437	230,430,000	321,493,000

Revenue Account The total revenue settled during the year amounted to ¥1,096,486,000 and the total expenditure ¥896,043,000 which are respectively ¥198,273,000 and ¥163,979,000 more than in the previous year. The increase in the revenue was attributable to the increase of the traffic and the sundry receipts, as well as receipts on suspense

account and advances, while increase in the expenditure was accounted for by the growth in working expenses and subsidies to local railways, as well as the increase in refunds and advances appropriated for the C.O.D. payments.

The Revenue Account settled for the past three years is as follows:

Items	1936-37	1937-38 (In yen)	1938-39
Revenue:			
Traffic receipts	591,252,994	662,747,000	760,524,000
Sundry receipts	11,809,580	13,473,000	13,729,000
Receipts on suspense account and advance	193,035,911	221,993,000	322,233,000
Total	796,098,485	898,213,000	1,096,486,000
Expenditure:			
Working expenses	362,542,819	412,050,000	477,455,000
Interest charges	83,206,220	83,793,000	84,133,000
Refunds and advances	198,005,869	229,546,000	327,560,000
Secret service fund	27,440	27,000	25,000
Subsidies to local railway	6,854,027	6,647,000	6,870,000
Total	650,636,455	732,064,000	896,043,000

Fixed assets of the State Railways for the last 10 years follow:

(In ¥1,000)			
End of March		End of March	
1930	3,246,724	1935	3,728,485
1931	3,374,392	1936	3,850,507
1932	3,413,786	1937	3,987,210
1933	3,503,893	1938	4,127,200
1934	3,613,169	1939	4,283,600

BUSINESS INCOME AND EXPENSES

(In ¥1,000)

Fiscal Years	Income	Expenses	Profit	Fiscal Years	Income	Expenses	Profit
1929-30	518,016	399,026	118,989	1934-35	518,668	314,126	204,541
1930-31	458,140	382,552	75,587	1935-36	544,534	329,537	215,997
1931-32	433,540	365,088	68,451	1936-37	598,171	354,420	243,751
1932-33	425,954	364,874	61,079	1937-38	670,164	406,692	263,472
1933-34	474,254	282,199	192,054	1938-39	768,947	470,007	298,940

Note: Figures include those for businesses other than railway traffic.

Private Railways

General At the end of 1938 the number of local railways in Japan proper was 297. The aggregate amount of capital reached ¥1,519,002,170, reserve funds ¥86,114,556, net profit ¥63,410,103 and dividend ¥50,291,647. The total open kilometerage in March 1938 was 6,793 km., a decrease of 2.25 km.

WORKING RESULTS OF LOCAL RAILWAYS IN JAPAN PROPER

(1933-34 to 1937-38)

Items	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38
Number of railways	266	260	257	250	246
Kilometerage opened	7,184.55	7,088.22	7,097.56	7,018.77	6,793.00
Earnings from passenger traffic (yen)	59,062,591	62,262,808	64,172,467	68,929,859	73,543,000
Earnings from goods traffic (yen)	19,307,870	26,303,665	21,420,598	22,308,862	23,630,000

N.B.—The above table does not include the lines belonging to private individuals for their exclusive use.

Tramcar Service The tramways in Japan date back from 1880, when an application was tendered for the construction of the Tokyo Horse Tram Co.'s line which was completed and opened to traffic in 1883. As provided by the Tramway Law now in force, all the tramways in Japan are constructed as a rule on highways. The street railways, a certain number of suburban railways

and others laid in provinces are placed under the control of the Law. Such public bodies as cities, towns and villages may take the management of tramways without restriction. Steam and electricity are mostly employed as motive power except a few local tramways where gasoline, horse or human power is used for the purpose.

WORKING RESULTS OF TRAMWAYS

	Number of Companies		Open Kilometerages		Income from Traffic (In ¥1,000)		
	Electric	Steam	Electric	Steam	Passage	Freight	Total
1933-34	92	33	2,059	339	101,864	1,130	102,994
1934-35	89	32	2,062	337	104,744	1,268	106,012
1935-36	85	28	2,038	298	108,126	1,109	109,235
1936-37	86	26	2,055	272	113,794	1,108	114,902
1937-38	85	25	2,036	235	120,176	1,117	121,293

Railways in Chosen, Taiwan and Karafuto

Chosen

The first railway enterprise in Chosen dates back to 1890, when a railway linking Kéijo (Seoul) with Jinsen (Chemulpo), 29,485 kilometers in length, was laid and opened to traffic by the Kéi-Jin Railway Company. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War caused the military authorities of Japan to build the Kéijo-Fusan, Kéijo-Shingishu and Masan lines which were opened to traffic in 1905 and 1906 respectively. In 1906 the Imperial Government of Japan nationalized the Kéijo-Fusan Line and also took over the Kéijo-Shingishu and the Masan Lines from the War Office of Japan, placing all these lines under direct control of the Railway Bureau of the Korean Residency-General. Meanwhile the work of construction was steadily pushed on and in 1910 the Héijo-Chinnampo line was completed. On the spanning of the Yalu River with a swing bridge in 1911 the peninsular railway was brought into connection with the South Manchuria Railway. In 1914 the Taiden-Mokpo and Kéijo-Gensan lines were completed, while in 1915 part of the Gensan-Kainéi line was opened. In 1928 the Kankyo line which connects Kainéi to Gensan was completed, and in 1933 the Tomon line which connects Kainéi to Yuki was opened to traffic. The latter is connected with the Keito line of S.M.R.C. at Kainéi, thus preparing a new eastern transportation

facility between Chosen and Manchukuo. On March 31, 1940, the State Lines in Chosen open to business totalled 4,089.5 km. as against 3,831.1 km. in 1939 showing an increase of 258.4 km.

The aggregate length of private railways open to traffic at the end of March 1940 amounted to 1,854.6 kilometers. The number of private companies which are already operating railways in Chosen numbered 17, viz., Chosen Railway Company, Chosen Kéinan Railway Company, Kongosan Electric Railway Company, Shinko Railway Company, Kéishun Railway Company, West Chosen Central Railway Company, Chosen Kéito Railway Company, Chosen Helan Railway Company, Chosen Coal Industry Company, South Manchurian Railway Company, East Manchurian Railway Company, South Chosen Union Electric Company, Helhoku Railway Company, Sansho Railway Company, Hokusen Takushoku Railway Company, Tanho Railway Company, and Tashito Railway Company. Besides there were 5 tramcar companies for city traffic. The above mentioned companies, if their aims are general transportation, receive regular subsidies from the Government. The aggregate capital of the railway companies amounted to ¥188,633,251. The total length of tramways operated in Chosen came to 8.23 kilometers indicating a gain of 1.4 kilometers over the previous year. The power used is mostly

electricity. (See Chapter XL for fuller information.)

Taiwan

It was not until the cession of the Island of Taiwan (Formosa) by the Chinese Government to Japan that the island began to enjoy railway facilities, for, prior to that time, the only railroad existing was a small light railway between Keelung and Shinchiku built at the time of the Ching Dynasty. Soon after the cession, the Taiwan Government-General brought forward a plan, with the approval of the Diet, to build a railway connecting Takao with Keelung at the expense of ¥28,800,000. Work was started in 1889 from both termini and finished in April 1909. This line now forms the trunk line in the island's communication system. The construction of this pioneer line was followed by other lines, that is, the Kyukyodo-Hello section completed in 1912, the Tai-to line in 1917 and the Giran line in 1924. The length of lines open to traffic on March 31, 1939, was 881.9 kilometers, being the same as the preceding year. The working route kilometerage of the Government lines was, in 1939-40, 885.1 kilometers. Earnings from passenger traffic amounted to ¥15,170,660, from hauling goods ¥20,221,171, making a total of ¥35,391,830, an increase of ¥4,284,803 or 13.7 per cent over the previous year.

Most of the private railways existing in Taiwan were originally constructed by sugar refining companies for transporting sugar and other materials, transportation business being conducted only as a side work. At the end of 1939, there were the total working km. of 2,651.2. The earnings of the companies through the railway business amounted to ¥3,158,663.

The tramways which form an important factor in the island communi-

cation system have made a marked development in recent years. The total length of lines in operation on March 31, 1940, was 700.6 km., and the total receipts ¥1,163,725.

Karafuto Railway

The first railway in Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien) was constructed by the Military Department in 1906 between Otomari, formerly known as Korsakovsa, and Toyohara, formerly Vladimolocka, 41.53 km. in length. It was a light railway with a gauge of 0.61 meter and exclusively used for military purposes. With the withdrawal of the military Government in April 1907, the railway was transferred to the control of the Karafuto Administration and opened to public traffic in August of the same year. As traffic went on increasing the gauge was widened to 1.07 meters, some time in 1910, while construction of sections further north of Toyohara was started. Late in 1911 the work on the Toyohara-Sakaehama section being completed, the Otomari-Sakaehama section, 94.13 km. which now forms the trunk line in the island's communication, was opened to traffic. Construction work has been continued since and a branch line linking the Kawakami Mine with Konuma, and the Honto-Noda section on the west coast were completed and opened to business in 1914 and 1920 respectively. In addition, the construction of a branch line which connects Toyohara, the capital of the island, with Maoka on the west coast, was started in 1921 and opened to business in 1928.

In 1939-40 the earnings of the government railways were ¥1,531,770 from passengers and ¥2,263,364 from goods, making a total of ¥3,795,134.

There are altogether three local railway companies that have run railway business in Karafuto.

Motor Transport and Its Development

Behind Japan's motor transport system there is no such history of experimentation and endeavor as characterizes the arrival of the motor car in the West. The first car seen in Japan was one imported from America by a foreign resident of Yokohama in 1897, and then for the next ten years there was no great increase in the number. In 1907 there were only 16 cars in the whole country. Then came

a change. In 1912 there were 520 vehicles and a year later 1,000. In 1921, passenger cars numbered 4,683 and business cars numbered 7,439. The great earthquake and fire which destroyed Tokyo and Yokohama in 1923 brought about a great demand for motor cars because rail traffic was interrupted at various places and the help of motor cars was badly needed. In 1924, the number increased to 40,070, of which

27,959 were passenger cars and 12,097 were trucks. The rate of increase for the five years 1921-26 for passenger cars was 100.49 per cent and for trucks 1,200.6 per cent. This rapid development of motor car transport has driven rikshas, electric cars and provincial railways into the background. Motor-car passengers are increasing year after year, while passenger receipts on pro-

vincial railways are quickly decreasing. To the present, except in the vicinity of large cities, Japan has not been blessed with good roads, but the construction of first-class motor roads is being pushed ahead in all parts of the country and traffic is bound to make a phenomenal increase as the roads are completed.

NUMBER OF MOTOR CARS IN JAPAN PROPER

At the end of	Ordinary Cars		Trucks	Special Cars	Small Cars	Total
	Private	Taxicabs				
1933	7,723	59,010	38,199	5,187	25,124	135,234
1934	7,970	62,511	42,059	4,938	39,095	156,573
1935	9,213	64,795	46,918	5,065	49,913	175,904
1936	— 74,910 —		51,338	4,978	63,348	194,574

Number of Cars in Principal Prefectures in 1936

	Ordinary Cars	Trucks	Special Cars	Small Cars	Total
Tokyo	17,991	10,905	1,095	16,347	46,338
Osaka	6,019	4,039	477	11,517	22,052
Hyogo	2,620	3,405	226	3,761	10,012
Kanagawa	2,430	2,363	128	2,186	7,107
Aichi	3,008	2,704	416	4,587	10,715
Shizuoka	2,348	1,811	113	1,569	5,835
Fukuoka	3,353	1,047	217	1,807	6,424
Kyoto	2,540	1,419	180	2,125	6,264

Note: Conditions of motor transportation are not made public since 1937.

Aviation

History of Development

The Early Period During the Satsuma Rebellion in 1877, two balloons were built. In 1891, Chuhachi Ninomiya made a model of an aeroplane shaped like a bird from his own design, and, in 1894, another shaped like an insect. In 1897, Isaburo Yamada obtained a patent for a kite balloon of his own invention. Two of these kite balloons were used in the siege of Port Arthur during the Russo-Japanese War. In 1907, a balloon corps was organized in the Telegraph Corps at Nakano, and, in June 1909, a special military balloon investigation association was established. In March 1910, a gliding test of aeroplane No. 1 of the Hino type was made at Toyamagahara, Tokyo, and, in October that year, a flying test of an aeroplane of the Narahara type was made. On December 19 of the same year, Lieutenant Tokugawa (now Lieutenant-General) flew 3,000 meters in four minutes in a Farman aeroplane at Yoyo-

gi, and Captain Hino flew in a Gladys aeroplane. This was the first time that an aeroplane flight was carried out in Japan.

The First Civilian Flight In the spring of 1911, airship No. 2 of the Yamada type was taken out of the hangar at Osaka, Tokyo, and made a successful cross-country flight. In March and April of the same year, an American flyer carried out an exhibition flight in Osaka and Tokyo; on April 8, Shinzo Morita, who had studied flying in France, flew in a 45 h.p. monoplane over the Joto parade-ground in Osaka, this being the first flight by a civilian flyer in this country; and, in April that year, the aerodrome and flying ground at Tokorozawa were completed. In June 1912, Atwater, an American flyer, conducted a series of exhibition flights by hydroplane on the sea off Nishinomiyama near Osaka; and, in July that year, five officers were selected from each army division to be trained as flying officers. This marks the beginning of instruc-

tion in flying to military officers in this country. In the autumn of 1912, a number of aeroplanes and airships participated in the grand military manoeuvres. In February 1913, the Teikoku Hiko Kyokai (Imperial Aeronautical Association) was established; on May 4 that year, Mr. Koha Takéishi, a civilian flyer, started on a Naruo-Osaka-Kyoto flight, but, when landing in the Fukakusa parade-ground in Kyoto, he met with disaster and died as the first victim of civilian aviation in Japan.

Contest of Civilian Aviators In 1914, a contest by civilian aviators was held at Naruo, near Osaka, under the auspices of the Imperial Aeronautical Association, and, during the Tsingtao campaign Japanese military aeroplanes took part in actual fighting for the first time and displayed their ability in scouting, in bombing the enemy fortress and in an aerial combat with enemy planes. In 1915, a meet of civilian flyers was held in Osaka, and a military flying battalion was formed. Between January and April 1916, American aviators visited Japan and performed stunt flying at Naruo and other places; and, on April 27 that year, night flying was successfully carried out for the first time in this country. In 1917, the flying battalion was enlarged into the first and second battalions and a balloon corps. In April that year, Art Smith, an American flyer, again visited Japan and carried out a series of high-class exhibition flights in Osaka and Tokyo. In April 1918, Masao Goto, a private flyer, succeeded in making a non-stop flight between Tokorozawa and Osaka for the first time.

Military Flying School In April 1919, the Military Aeronautical Department and the Military Flying School were established; and, on October 22 that year, the first mail transport flight between Tokyo and Osaka was carried out with success. In 1920, the Aeronautical Institute was established at Tsukishima, Tokyo; and in May that year, two Italian aviators paid a visit to Japan by air. In March 1921, the regulations for the control of aviation were put in force. In the autumn of 1922, the Japan Aerial Transport Institute started a regular flying service between Sakai and Shikoku by hydroplanes. In 1923, the military air force was made an independent arm. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun started a regular air service between Tokyo and

Osaka in January and the Japan Aerial Navigation Co., Ltd., opened one between Osaka and Beppu in July that year. In March 1924 the dirigible S. S. No. 3 exploded and, in September of that year, the trial flight of the newly built airship Astra was carried out.

Air Mail Traffic In April 1925, air mail traffic was started between Tokyo and Osaka; and, on July 25 that year, an aeroplane of the Asahi Shimbun took off from the Yoyogi parade-ground in Tokyo and, on October 27, reached Rome after a flight of 16,000 kilometers (in stages) via Moscow, Paris and London. In 1926, the Japanese Navy purchased from Italy the dirigible S-No. 3, which was one with a semi-rigid envelope, introduced into Japan for the first time. In June 1927, the Aviation Law came into effect. In May, the Coast Defense Association successfully carried out a flight round the mainland, and, in October that year, the airship S-No. 3 exploded, while participating in the grand naval manoeuvres. In April 1928, Habuto, a civilian aviator, established a new record by flying 2,000 kilometers in 13 hours and 23 minutes; and, in July that year, aerial defense manoeuvres were conducted in Osaka.

The Air Transport Co. In 1929, the Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd., was established and inaugurated a regular air passenger service between Tokyo, Osaka and Fukuoka, later extending it to Seoul and Dairen; and two Army scouting planes of the 88 type flew between Tachikawa and Hailo without stopping, making a record of aerial connection between the mainland and Taiwan. On their homeward flight, one of the planes flew for 15 hours and 15 minutes, thus establishing a new record of staying in the air in this country. In 1930, the Japan Students' Aviation League was formed and associations for the study of aviation were established one after another in different universities and colleges in Tokyo and Osaka. Yoshihara, a civilian flyer, flew from Berlin to Tokyo via Siberia in 11 days and simultaneously, Azuma, also a civilian flyer, reached Tokyo from Los Angeles via New York, London, Berlin and Siberia. In March 1931, the airship No. 8 which had been made in Japan and belonged to the naval air force at Kasumigaura took off and stayed in the air for a record length of time of 60 hours and one minute.

In May, the Aeronautical Institute which ranks as the best research station in the world was completed six years after the starting of its construction. In the same month, the aeroplane "Young Japan" belonging to Hoséi University, a member of the Students' Aviation League, set off for Europe from the flying ground at Hanéda near Tokyo and, at the end of August, reached its destination, Rome. After the outbreak of the Manchurian trouble in September that year, our military planes participated in actual warfare for the first time since the Tsingtao campaign. In October of the same year, the aeroplane (Fokker No. 3-M) of the Japan Air Transport Company succeeded in flying between Taiwan and the mainland.

The Dai-Nippon Airways Company Under the auspices of the Ministry of Communications a new airway company was incorporated on December 1, 1938, through a merger between the Japan Air Transport Company and the International Air Transportation Company. It is called the Dai-Nippon Kōkū Kabushiki Kaisha or the Dai-Nippon Airways Company. The establishment of the company was contemplated by the Ministry of Communications for the development of civil aviation in 1938 and the merger of the two companies was the first step for the realization of a monopolistic half-governmental airway company. The Bill for the establishment of the Dai-Nippon Airways Company was prepared by the Ministry and submitted to the Imperial Diet. Through the adoption of the bill by the 74th session which met in the early months of 1939, the Dai-Nippon Airways Company's capitalization was fixed at ¥100,000,000. The company has the right of monopolizing the national and international civil airway transportation business of the country, receiving subsidies from the National Treasury and is authorized to issue debentures not exceeding twice the amount of paid-up capital.

Of the total amount of the capital, ¥37,250,000 shall be invested by the Government in cash and fixed assets; the number of shares shall be 510,000 (face value ¥50) representing ¥25,500,000, the amount to be paid-up being ¥17,625,000 according to the provisions of the law and the Imperial Ordinance for the establishment of the company.

The present major air routes in Japan are Tokyo—Dairen, Fukuoka—Taihoku, Tokyo—Sapporo, Tokyo—Hsinking, Tokyo—Peking, Fukuoka—Nanking, Taihoku—Canton, Tokyo—Bangkok and Tokyo—Palau, the last three being opened in 1938 and 1939. The aggregate length of the routes extends as long as 30,000 kilometers in 1940.

Tokyo-Bangkok Regular Air Route Opens. Because of the successful results of three test flights made in the past, the Dai Nippon Airways Company decided to inaugurate the Tokyo-Bangkok regular air service. The Matsukaze (Mitsubishi-Type I transport plane) hopped off from Tokyo for Bangkok on its maiden flight on June 10, 1940, and landed safely at Bangkok on June 22 by way of Canton and Indo-China, thus stabilizing a regular air service between Japan and Thailand. Later, as a result of the improvement of Franco-Japanese relations, the air-liner has come to take a direct route via Hanoi and across French Indo-China from July 15, 1940.

South-Sea Line Announced. A regular air service linking Yokohama, Saipan and Palau is being conducted as a fortnightly return trip. The distance between Yokohama and Palau is being covered by a Kawanisi four-engined flying boat in two days, which is uncomparably faster than the regular steamship service which takes two full weeks or more to cover the distance.

Certainly, it is a matter of great joy for residents in the South Sea islands to be able to read Japanese papers from Tokyo on the same day of publication and to enjoy looking at Japanese native flowers fresh from the garden.

CHAPTER XXV

SEA TRANSPORTATION

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CHAPTER XXV

SEA TRANSPORTATION

Historical Background

The dawn of Japan's history is associated with maritime activities. The national mythology is rich in stories of sea adventures. Later authentic records fully demonstrate the energy and spirit of the early Japanese, who had to fight their way through stormy seas in the primitive craft of those days. The period covered by the latter half of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth century marks the golden age of marine activity in Old Japan. This was in a great measure due to the stimulus received by the natives through the appearance of Portuguese and other foreign ships in Japanese waters. Japanese vessels not only were in evidence in South China and the South Sea Islands, but cruised the Pacific as far as Mexico and fought their way through the Indian Ocean and round the Cape of Good Hope to Europe. Military rulers encouraged maritime enterprises and many large vessels were built. Thus the shipping trade between Japan and the South Seas and India, carried on under letters patent and numbering no less than 200 ships at one time, engaged in commerce with 20 different countries, which were eventually dotted with regular Japanese colonies.

Ban on Shipping Activities Unfortunately, while the maritime prosperity of Japan was thus making progress by leaps and bounds, the Tokugawa Shogunate took the drastic measure of excluding the country and forbidding all foreign intercourse. Its first act was to place a strict ban on the propagation of Christianity in 1613. Subsequently, in 1634, all commercial relations with foreign countries were stopped, and in 1636 the construction of large ocean-going vessels was forbidden. For a period of more than two centuries thereafter the ocean trade of Japan was forcibly suspended.

The Well-timed Visit Commodore Perry's visit in 1853 was opportune, inasmuch as by this time many Japanese

amongst the intelligent classes were dimly aware of conditions outside Japan, and the Shogun's Government, amid much confusion of opinion, took a firm step and signed the treaty. This event was followed in 1854 by the conclusion of similar treaties with the leading nations of Europe. Commercial intercourse with foreign countries was thus resumed, and the time-worn restrictions on navigation and ship-building were withdrawn. Then was formed the nucleus of the present mercantile marine of Japan. The Shogun's Government, finding the old Japanese methods of ship-building and navigation utterly out-of-date, promptly decided upon introducing the ideas of the outside world. For this purpose, students were sent abroad, while foreign experts were engaged to work in Japan. A shipbuilding yard was established in Yokosuka, and a naval school in Nagasaki.

After the Meiji Restoration

The First Steamship Co. In the third year of Meiji the Government promulgated the Mercantile Marine Regulations. In the same year, the pioneer steamship concern was inaugurated and a new leaf in the history of the Japanese mercantile marine was turned. The first company to be incorporated was the Kwai-so Kaisha, or Forwarding and Transport Company, which was later renamed the Teikoku Yusen Joki Kaisha (Imperial Mail Steamship Co.) Mamiya Kimura was one of the chief promoters. A regular service was maintained between Tokyo and Yokohama and between Osaka and Kobe. Yataro Iwasaki, founder of the Mitsubishi interests, incorporated a shipping company called the Tsukumo Shokai, later renamed the Mitsubishi Shokai, in 1870 and inaugurated a regular passenger service between Tokyo and Kochi in Shikoku, from which place Iwasaki hailed. Three steamers formerly owned by Lord Yamanouchi, former feudal lord of Tosa, were employed in the service. When the Japanese Government sent a punitive force against

Formosa in 1874, all foreign steamship companies interested in the Far Eastern shipping trade declared neutrality and rejected the Government's offer to charter their ships. Perplexed at this, the Government ordered the Mitsubishi Shokai and Teikoku Joki to offer their ships, and thus the transportation of troops was smoothly effected.

The N. Y. K. Comes into Existence Shigenobu Okuma, then Minister of Finance, and Toshimichi Okubo, then Home Minister, made efforts to organize the Yubin Kisen Mitsubishi Kaisha after the termination of the expedition. The two above-mentioned firms were dissolved and the Government's ships were handed over to the new company. The Mitsubishi interests made large profits under Government protection. Ikaoru Inouye and Admiral Tsugumichi Saigo, who were Okuma's political opponents, organized a corporation to rival the Mitsubishi's as a means of overthrowing Okuma and ordered, in 1882, Eichi Shibusawa, Takashi Masuda and others to form a semi-Government shipping company under the name of the Kyodo Unyu Kaisha. Keen competition later ensued between the two and threatened to lead them to ruin. Consequently, the Government ordered them to effect a merger. In 1885 the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was incorporated through the investment of ¥5,000,000 by the Mitsubishi and ¥6,000,000 by the Kyodo Unyu. At the time of founding, the company owned 58 steamers with an aggregate of 68,700 tons. The Pacific Mail Steamship Company of America was then operating a regular line between Yokohama and Shanghai with the s. s. Golden Age, the Costa Rica and two other ships, all of which were purchased by the Japanese Government in 1874 for the transportation of Japanese soldiers on the expedition to Formosa. Iwasaki waged a freight war with the Pacific Mail at that time and finally purchased these four ships for \$8,000,000. This price included the Shanghai wharf now owned by the Nippon Yusen Kaisha at Whampoo.

The O. S. K. About this time the Osaka Shosen Kaisha was established in Osaka. It was then a small concern maintaining services in the Inland Sea of Japan, but later developed into a large company. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha, while maintaining the services originally inaugurated by its predeces-

sors, opened new lines to Korea and North China, and one between Shanghai and Vladivostok; and in 1891, it inaugurated the service between Kobe and Manila and commenced to despatch occasional ships to Australia. In 1892, the N. Y. K. Japan-Bombay service was opened, the first regular Japanese steamship connection with a far-away foreign country. The rapid progress of Japanese shipping is attested by the fact that in the beginning of 1891 the total tonnage owned in Japan was 100,000, and one year later this figure had increased by 10,000.

The Sino-Japanese War During the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, when the greater part of Japanese shipping space was requisitioned for transport purposes, a large number of steamers were purchased or chartered by Japanese owners and Japan, having complete command of the sea, was able to maintain its established oversea services. At the close of the war Japan found that its merchant marine had grown by 100 per cent compared with the pre-war figure. Meanwhile the Nippon Yusen Kaisha has no time in consolidating its established lines and in 1896 it inaugurated three trunk lines, viz., the Yokohama-London-Antwerp line, the Hongkong-Japan-Seattle line and the Yokohama-Manila-Australia line. In 1898 the Tokyo Kisen Kaisha was established, and it maintained a regular fast service between Hongkong and San Francisco via Japanese ports with three fine new passenger ships. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha opened a new line on the Yangtze-kiang in 1898. In the following year, this company opened a line from Taiwan to Hongkong, via Amoy and Swatow. The increase in Japanese tonnage at that time was remarkable. Whereas, at the end of 1897, it amounted to only 270,000 tons, it suddenly increased at the end of 1898 to 477,000 tons, the ratio of growth continuing, until the gross tonnage of steamers of 1,000 tons and over at the end of 1903 amounted to 521,000.

Foreigners' Services Mention must not be omitted of the valuable contribution made by foreign experts to the development of the Japanese mercantile marine. Through the remarkable foresight of Iwasaki, not only foreign captains, officers, engineers and pilots were freely engaged afloat, but numerous experts, business and technical, were employed on shore to conduct the

business of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. A large number of these foreigners remained in the company's service for a considerable time after its formation. Foremost among them were A. R. Brown, Alexander Macmillan, T. H. James, J. W. Ekstrand, W. H. Haswell and Hector Frazer, whose names are still familiar to old timers in the Far Eastern shipping trade.

One noteworthy fact in connection with the development of the shipping business is the advance made by Japanese mariners. Japan imported the science of navigation from the West and early in the Meiji Era the captains, chief engineers and mates were mostly foreigners. When the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was first organized in 1884 the company owned 57 steamers with a total tonnage of 60,000 and employed about 175 foreigners, the number being increased to 224 during the Sino-Japanese War. During the Russo-Japanese War Japanese mariners were the recipients of much praise, and their credit was greatly raised. After the war, in 1907, the number of foreigners was reduced to 87 and by 1920 there was not a single foreign officer in a Japanese ship.

The Russo-Japanese War The Russo-Japanese War broke out early in 1904, and Japan found herself compelled to undertake transport work of the biggest magnitude ever known in her history. This situation naturally created the necessity of purchasing additional tonnage, with the result that at the end of 1906 the total merchant marine reached a little more than one million gross tons, and Japan thus ranked sixth among the great maritime Powers of the world. Through the expansion of trade after the war, sufficient employment was found for these steamers. The Toyo Kisen Kaisha opened its South American service before the war terminated. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha started in 1909 its Far East-Puget Sound service. Elsewhere the expansion was also pronounced, for in 1907 four large Japanese companies trading on the Yangtze-kiang pooled their interests and formed the Nishin Kisen Kaisha (Japan-China Steamship Company) and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha in the meantime inaugurated the Tsuruga-Vladivostok and the Osaka-Kobe-Moji-Dairen lines. The general slump in the shipping trade which prevailed all over the world dur-

ing this period was felt in Japan, but the country was not so badly hit as to prevent the further growth of its shipping. For, at the end of the year when the World War broke out, the total gross tonnage of ships flying the Japanese flag was 1,590,000, of which 1,310,000 tons represented ships of more than 1,000 gross tons each. Turning to the share which Japanese merchant shipping contributed to its foreign commerce, it was found that, whereas, prior to the Sino-Japanese war (1894-5), only 10 per cent of imports and exports were carried by Japanese ships, the proportion increased to 40 per cent after the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), and just before the commencement of the World War, it had grown to 48 per cent.

The World War An extensive dearth of tonnage and the consequent pressing demand for space all over the world, caused by the World War, created a unique situation for Japanese merchant shipping, so much so that the total gross tonnage suddenly swelled by a million tons within a brief period and the yearly shipbuilding capacity increased from 50,000 tons to a half million gross tons. The share contributed by Japanese vessels to the transportation of imports and exports increased to nearly 80 per cent, the remaining 20 per cent being carried by foreign ships. Many new shipping services to all corners of the globe were opened one after another, and, besides rendering distinguished service to the cause of the Allies, the Japanese mercantile marine maintained a regular fortnightly Japan-England mail service, and despatched extra ships to European waters during the war. Furthermore, in response to the call of the United States after that country entered the War a group of Japanese shipowners delivered a number of steamers aggregating 150,000 tons to the United States Government on charter at rates considerably lower than those which shipowners at that time could have obtained in the open market.

The inevitable aftermath of the war abnormalities—shipping depression—set in early in 1920, and this is still being felt all over the world. Japanese shipping in common with that of all other nations is undergoing a severe test of its perseverance and fortitude. Despite this Japanese shipping has considerably increased. The Toyo Kisen Kaisha transferred all of its Pacific ships to the

Nippon Yusen Kaisha, by which the latter became one of the greatest shipping companies of the world.

Present Conditions

At the end of 1938 there were 328 companies engaged in sea transportation business, with an aggregate amount of

capital of 711 million yen and reserve funds 176 million yen, raising profits of 80 million yen in that year. The number of companies engaged in shipbuilding was 181 capitalized at 372 million yen, with reserve funds amounting to 78 million yen, and they raised annual profits of 42.5 million yen.

LIST OF LARGE N.Y.K. VESSELS

(In 1940)

	Gross Tonnage	Passenger Accommodation			
		1st Class	Cabin Class	2nd Class	Tourist Cabin
M.S. Kamakura Maru	17,526	240	—	95	—
S.S. Nitta Maru	17,163	127	—	88	—
S.S. Yawata Maru	17,000*	127	—	88	—
M.S. Asama Maru	16,975	239	—	96	—
M.S. Tatuta Maru	16,975	239	—	96	—
S.S. Taiyo Maru	14,458	—	91	—	241
M.S. Terukuni Maru	11,931	121	—	68	—
M.S. Yasukuni Maru	11,933	116	—	68	—
M.S. Hikawa Maru	11,622	—	76	—	69
M.S. Hié Maru	11,621	—	76	—	69
M.S. Heian Maru	11,615	—	76	—	69
S.S. Husimi Maru	10,936	86	—	38	—
S.S. Suwa Maru	10,672	83	—	38	—
S.S. Haruna Maru	10,421	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakone Maru	10,420	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakozaki Maru	10,413	83	—	40	—
S.S. Hakusan Maru	10,380	85	—	40	—
S.S. Kasima Maru	9,908	74	—	34	—
S.S. Katori Maru	9,849	42	—	110	—
M.S. Helyō Maru	9,816	42	—	—	80
S.S. Yamato Maru	9,656	61	—	217	—
S.S. Rakuyō Maru	9,419	42	—	—	51
S.S. Asahi Maru	9,327	63	—	220	—
S.S. Anyō Maru	9,257	—	24	—	47
S.S. Huzi Maru	9,130	38	—	165	—
S.S. Yosino Maru	8,990	18	—	177	—
S.S. Ginyō Maru	8,613	—	20	—	37
S.S. Atuta Maru	7,983	55	—	14	—
S.S. Kamo Maru	7,955	51	—	—	—
S.S. Kitano Maru	7,952	55	—	14	—

Ships under Construction

S.S. Kasiwara Maru	28,000*	220	—	120	—
S.S. Izumo Maru	28,000*	220	—	120	—
S.S. Kasuga Maru	17,000*	127	—	88	—
M.S. Miike Maru	11,400*	60	—	—	—
M.S. Misima Maru	11,400*	60	—	—	—

Note: (*) indicates approximate tonnage.

LIST OF LARGE O.S.K. SHIPS

(In 1940)

	Gross Tonnage	Nominal Horse Power	Year Constructed
S.S. Arizona Maru	9,684	5,500	1920
M.S. Rio de Janeiro Maru	9,627	5,000	1929
M.S. Buenos Aires Maru	9,626	5,000	"
M.S. La Plata Maru	7,267	3,800	1925
M.S. Santos Maru	7,267	3,800	1925
M.S. Montevideo Maru	7,267	3,800	1926
S.S. Arable Maru	9,480	5,500	1918
S.S. Africa Maru	9,476	5,500	"
S.S. Manila Maru	9,486	5,800	1915
S.S. Hawaii Maru	9,467	4,800	1915
S.S. Horai Maru	9,192	7,400	1912
S.S. Mizuho Maru	8,506	6,400	"
S.S. Takachihō Maru	8,154	7,100	1933
M.S. Argentina Maru	13,000	10,500	1939
M.S. Brasil Maru	13,000	10,500	1939
M.S. Hokoku Maru	10,500	10,000	1940
S.S. Sela Maru	6,659	4,200	1939
M.S. Nana Maru	6,757	4,200	1940
M.S. Toa Maru	6,732	3,300	1939
M.S. Hokai Maru	8,416	5,700	1932
M.S. Nankai Maru	8,416	5,700	1932
M.S. Sanyo Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
M.S. Kinai Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
M.S. Hokuriku Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
M.S. Tokai Maru	8,360	5,000	1930
S.S. Takasago Maru	9,347	8,600	1936
M.S. Aikoku Maru	10,500	10,000	1940
M.S. Kokoku Maru	10,500	10,000	1940
S.S. Nekka Maru	6,785	6,400	1934
S.S. Ural Maru	6,374	5,000	1928
S.S. Kokuryu Maru	7,369	6,100	1937
S.S. Oryoku Maru	7,363	6,100	1937
S.S. Kiturin Maru	6,783	6,400	1934

LIST OF KOKUSAI LINERS

(In 1940)

	Deadweight Capacity Tons	Main Diesel Engine B.H.P.	Maximum Speed Knots
M.V. Kagu Maru	9,206	7,000	19.503
M.V. Kano Maru	9,731	7,600	19.016
M.V. Kasli Maru	9,400	7,000	19.435
M.V. Katuragi Maru	9,581	6,000	17.082
M.V. Kinka Maru	10,096	9,200	21.554
M.V. Kinryu Maru	10,142	9,200	20.004
M.V. Kinugasa Maru	9,485	7,000	19.175
M.V. Kirisima Maru	9,781	6,000	18.029
M.V. Kiyosumi Maru	9,849	7,600	19.165
M.V. Komaki Maru	9,779	7,600	19.583
M.V. Kongo Maru	9,801	7,600	19.636
M.V. Kurama Maru	10,294	4,050	15.978

Sea Transportation in 1941-42

In order to cope with the stringency of bottoms the Central Shipping Control Association was created in November 1940 with the purpose of making and executing plans for the transportation of important goods. The control of shipping business was entrusted to the association during early part of 1941. But the aggressive commercial measures of Britain and the United States against Japan and the dangers of voyage increased with the development of the submarine warfare in the Atlantic Ocean demanded a thoroughgoing change in the sea transportation business. No competition among shipping companies was allowed any more, but all of them had to serve the country in accordance with the general economic policy of the Government and later to use majority of their ships for military purposes. The selection of routes of regular liners and a well planned placement of tramp ships became inevitable. The Government decided to move all Japanese ships under one unified program, to call all mariners to serve for the country and to make plans for a speedy and great increase of bottoms, encouraging all shipbuilding undertakings in the construction of required number of vessels. The Cabinet meeting held on August 19, 1941, adopted the proposed plan for the State management of the sea transportation business during the time of war. The control of shipping in Japan developed from the original autonomous control by shipowners which was centered on freight rates and valuation of ships to the semi-Governmental control which was mainly concerned with the placement of ships, then to the final stage of the complete State administration of all matters of shipping in conformity to the national general mobilization system. The State administration of shipping means in part the creation of a strong juridical person under Article 18 of the National General Mobilization Law (see Chapter on National Defense) from whom shipowners will receive a fixed charterage and commission for their services as actual managers of the shipping business. In order to attain the aim of the State administration the Bureau of Mercantile Ships in the Ministry of Communications was to be made an independent office and become the Board of Shipping toward the end of 1941 when war against the United States and the British Empire

was declared. Shipping had necessarily to assume war organization with all other national activities to serve the country in the first line of defense and aggression. The organization of the Board of Shipping was speeded up and it came into being on December 19, 1941, with a Vice-Admiral as president, suggesting a close connection of shipping with the navy in the emergency. The existing Central Shipping Control Association was strengthened in its organization, while the State compensation system for losses in shipping through the war area was revised.

In regard to shipbuilding there were different ideas between the Japan Shipowners' Association and the Board of Shipping, the former proposing a larger type as most convenient for conveyance of South Seas products in quantities against the latter's scheme of building much smaller cargo boats, oil ships and ships for carrying mineral ores. But the Board of Shipping made a final decision to go on with its own scheme. The Imperial Ordinance of February 5, 1942, empowered the Navy Minister to supervise shipbuilding in Japan and the ministerial order for the commencement of shipbuilding was later issued, according to which the Shipbuilding Control Council, created on January 28, 1942, allocated a certain number of ships to be built by each shipyard. The construction of wooden vessels is also encouraged by the Government through the Board of Shipping which fixes standard types of such vessels and gives help to the shipbuilders in the matter of getting sufficient supply of material. In accordance with the Wooden Vessels Building Program published on February 25.

The Ships Employment Council The Ships Employment Council was created on April 1, 1942, as the central juridical person of the State administration system. On April 1, 40 major companies out of 97 member companies of the Central Shipping Control Association were designated as the actual executors of sea transportation under the supervision of the Ships Employment Council. The Council consists of 4 bureaux (17 departments and 42 sections) and has 11 local stations in the country. Its organization was completed and scope of function was clearly outlined after careful consultation with the 40 companies mentioned above by May 1 when the Government Board of Shipping

ed the first order of the State appropriation of ships, not less than 500 gross tons and registered in Japan proper. A ship thus called for the national service

is handed over by its owner to the Government at a fixed place and date, where and when it is rent by the Government to the Ships Employment Council.

Warehousing

History

Since warehousing depends on the storing of large quantities of goods, transportation facilities are the factors which influence its success, and expansion of one calls for an expansion of the other and, in Japan, it was the development of transport facilities in the days of Meiji which gave rise to the modern warehousing business.

Warehouses of kinds have always existed. Emperors in olden times kept rice and cereals in warehouses for military purposes. Later, cereals were kept to provide for relief of the people in case of poor crops, but in either case, the warehouses were used for military or political, not commercial, purposes. When the Tokugawas came to rule the country as Shoguns about three hundred years ago, both Yedo (present Tokyo) and Osaka became great cities where trade and commerce flourished. Transportation by sea developed, and many feudal lords came to reside in these cities, bringing with them, or having sent to them, the agricultural products of their country districts. The produce was stored at the lords' residences, which became, in a sense, public warehouses. The produce was sold by public tender and to the successful bidder a memorandum was given against receipt of payment in cash. This memorandum was equivalent to the warehouse receipt of the present day, and the holder of the memorandum was authorized to keep his cereals in the warehouses for the time stipulated on it. Loans were often raised with memoranda as collaterals.

After the Restoration, owing to development of commerce and activity in the movement of goods, many warehouse businesses were started, the first company to operate on a modern basis being the Soko Kaisha in Fukagawa, Tokyo, established in 1881 with a capital of ¥65,000. Dissolution took place 3 years later. In Osaka, the Konoké family organized the Osaka Soko Kaisha

with a capital of ¥200,000 in 1882. In 1883, the Sanbashi Kaisha in Kobe, and in 1884, the Otsu Soko Kaisha in Otsu in Shiga prefecture, were established. In 1886, the Tokyo Soko Kaisha, Ltd., was founded by the Iwasaki family. After that year there was no great change until after the Sino-Japanese War, when with increased foreign trade and improved transportation facilities by land and sea, the number of warehouse companies rapidly increased. In 1906, there were 536 people engaged in the warehouse business, either on private account or on an incorporated basis.

Present State of the Business

At the end of 1940 the number of warehouses managed by the member companies of the Japan Warehouse Association was 201, the value of commodities stored, being, on the average throughout the year ¥1,311,300,000. The monthly average for the first half of 1940 was ¥1,126,170. According to an investigation made by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the number of warehouse managements in the country at the end of 1938 totalled 456, capitalized at ¥182,736,977, and profit gained ¥6,059,511.

Along with the progress of the new structure of national economy, the Japan Warehouse Association was dissolved and the new Japan Warehousing Association was organized on June 3, 1941, with the purpose of improving the business conditions by putting all the warehousing enterprise in Japan proper and overseas territories under its control, which shall be enforced in conformity with the national economic policy. The number of member companies is 605 or over 80 per cent of the total number of warehousing companies in the Empire, the storage owned comprises 1,250,000 tsubo.

Value of Commodities The quantity and value of commodities stored in the warehouses were as follows:

STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES IN JAPAN PROPER

(According to the Japan Warehouse Association)

Year	Average			End of June			End of December		
	Ware- houses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Ware- houses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000	Ware- houses	1,000 Parcels	Value ¥1,000
1935	108	31,750	645,913	107	33,449	686,155	111	27,284	537,809
1936	127	29,461	614,381	114	30,935	683,639	155	26,026	539,635
1937	173	33,020	807,692	175	34,045	936,759	183	33,550	722,408
1938	186	33,933	730,448	187	35,691	762,675	188	30,967	718,828
1939	188	31,327	818,183	188	32,469	862,841	185	29,947	893,452
1940	191	—	—	191	—	1,225,731	201	36,526	1,659,216

STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES BY IMPORTANT COMMODITIES

(Quantity in 1,000 parcels)

At the end of	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Rice	9,966	14,381	18,630	9,714	6,525	7,729	6,906	2,299	3,092
Other cereals & flour	1,384	2,118	2,267	2,870	2,870	3,804	3,802	5,972	4,040
Sugar	2,637	2,156	818	910	1,011	1,420	654	605	5,171
Foodstuffs	1,464	1,493	2,373	2,776	3,914	3,264	3,257	3,177	3,857
Cocoon	246	338	218	211	298	369	306	374	—
Cotton	242	368	383	127	303	149	117	152	149
Wool etc.	115	153	126	139	77	114	88	51	72
Yarns	212	194	223	245	173	547	535	320	395
Textiles	165	305	301	1,162	362	961	817	1,074	1,832
Paper & materials	541	418	680	810	720	71	679	688	645
Fertilizers & materials	2,400	1,959	1,610	2,127	2,550	2,738	2,522	2,459	1,769
Iron & metal manufac- tures	1,603	3,303	2,809	3,452	3,826	5,027	5,502	5,308	6,036
Chemicals, dyestuff, gats	470	472	572	914	1,181	1,017	852	832	1,089
Total incl. others	23,134	28,892	33,016	27,284	26,026	33,550	30,967	29,947	36,526

(Value in ¥1,000,000)

At the end of	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Rice	86.7	122.3	198.2	108.7	75.3	89.5	87.1	40.1	63.2
Other cereals & flour	14.6	9.5	15.3	19.3	27.9	36.6	38.4	82.2	70.6
Sugar	46.9	39.5	12.4	15.1	15.3	26.9	12.5	11.0	96.6
Foodstuffs	21.0	18.1	30.7	35.4	43.5	43.0	53.0	55.3	73.5
Cocoons	15.2	18.2	9.6	15.2	17.2	20.1	16.6	47.4	—
Cotton	46.1	68.1	82.7	22.8	68.3	22.8	8.4	9.9	15.9
Wool, etc.	43.9	35.1	37.2	21.1	22.2	41.5	26.1	15.2	23.7
Yarns	126.6	123.3	115.8	102.3	77.3	103.4	94.9	82.3	99.9
Textiles	21.1	44.2	45.1	49.4	43.9	81.4	142.3	184.6	297.9
Paper & materials	29.0	22.2	25.5	31.3	29.6	41.9	37.9	31.0	30.4
Fertilizers & materials	12.7	7.6	6.6	9.6	15.5	19.3	15.1	19.4	21.9
Iron & manufactures	14.6	27.4	22.6	36.0	34.9	73.0	77.7	121.8	135.8
Chemicals, dyestuff, fats	9.3	13.7	12.9	17.5	21.4	32.8	30.4	34.2	47.6
Total incl. others	486.1	585.0	661.8	537.8	539.6	722.4	718.8	893.4	1,225.7

Note: 1940 figures are for June.

CHAPTER XXVI

LABOR AND LABOR MOVEMENTS



NICHIDEN KOGYO KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(日電興業株式會社)

Formerly

Nippon Denryoku Kabushiki Kaisha

President: KEI-ICHI TAKATSU

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Nippon Magnesium Kabushiki Kaisha

Kokusan Keigin Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha

Fuji Hikoki Kabushiki Kaisha

Sanchoku Kaihatsu Kabushiki Kaisha

Nippon Keigin Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha

CHAPTER XXVI

LABOR AND LABOR MOVEMENTS

Factories and Laborers The number of factories where more than 5 operatives are employed in Japan proper at the end of 1939 was 137,422, an increase of 25,090 or 18.2 per cent as compared with the previous year. The number of laborers employed in those factories was 3,766,709 gaining 548,994 or 17.0 per cent over the previous year. Details follow:

INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS FOR 1939

As Compared with the Previous Year

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

	1938	1939	Rate of Increase
Number of Factories:			
Metal	11,183	11,603	3.8
Machinery	17,570	23,067	31.3
Chemical	6,349	9,005	41.8
Gas and electric	669	672	0.4
Ceramic	5,231	6,686	27.8
Textile	32,618	36,871	13.0
Lumber and wood-work	10,629	13,111	23.4
Foodstuff	16,944	22,737	34.2
Printing and binding	3,932	3,777	3.9
Miscellaneous	7,207	9,893	37.3
Total	112,332	137,422	22.3
Number of Laborers:			
Metal	380,594	436,386	14.7
Machinery	860,431	1,126,568	30.9
Chemical	337,921	399,214	18.1
Gas and electric	10,517	12,034	14.4
Ceramic	111,675	139,707	25.1
Textile	1,045,538	1,063,387	1.7
Lumber and wood-work	113,823	152,180	33.7
Foodstuff	190,697	229,683	20.4
Printing and binding	63,568	66,186	4.1
Miscellaneous	102,951	141,364	37.3
Total	3,217,715	3,766,709	17.1
Value of Products (In ¥1,000):			
Metal	4,694,405	5,472,090	16.6
Machinery	3,821,881	5,421,378	41.9
Chemical	3,513,748	4,160,975	18.4
Gas and electric	47,190	69,243	46.7
Ceramic	431,765	572,034	32.5
Textile	4,200,228	4,791,534	14.2
Lumber and wood-work	457,302	719,847	57.4
Foodstuff	1,786,075	2,331,919	30.5
Printing and binding	281,169	297,480	5.8
Miscellaneous	433,251	532,624	20.9
Total	19,667,219	24,360,129	23.7
Working Hour in a Year (Unit: 1,000):			
Metal	1,145,251	1,344,625	17.4
Machinery	2,534,835	3,428,125	35.2
Chemical	1,091,387	1,215,682	11.4
Gas and electric	39,522	43,970	11.3
Ceramic	331,377	403,091	21.6

LABOR AND LABOR MOVEMENTS

	1938	1939	Rate of Increase
Textile	3,249,247	3,263,814	0.4
Lumber and wood-work	336,167	433,147	28.8
Foodstuff	460,581	577,513	25.4
Printing and binding	207,738	214,203	3.1
Miscellaneous	309,840	392,582	26.7
Total	9,705,952	11,316,755	16.6
Aggregated Wages Paid (In ¥1,000):			
Metal	251,976	318,621	26.4
Machinery	499,497	738,857	47.9
Chemical	155,968	194,309	24.6
Gas and electric	9,283	10,617	14.4
Ceramic	53,659	73,034	36.1
Textile	285,900	339,171	18.6
Lumber and wood-work	49,927	78,383	57.0
Foodstuff	62,130	82,710	33.1
Printing and binding	37,642	41,656	10.7
Miscellaneous	36,022	49,976	38.7
Total	1,442,009	1,927,339	33.7

Wages

According to investigations made by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the average wage of factory laborers per hour was 15 sen in 1938, an

increase of 2 sen as compared with the preceding years. The lowest 9 sen was to be found among textile industry laborers, for a large number of women and juvenile workers are to be found in this industry. Details follow:

Industry	Aggregate Labor Hours	Total Amount of Wages (In yen)	Per Hour Wage (In sen)
Textile	3,054,272,247	264,602,972	9
Metal	1,142,356,056	251,560,416	22
Machinery, tools, etc.	2,534,835,774	499,497,415	20
Ceramic	310,354,575	50,164,089	16
Chemical	1,040,565,694	149,391,688	14
Lumber and woodworking	336,167,173	49,927,237	15
Printing and binding	207,738,886	37,642,876	18
Foodstuff	460,581,895	62,130,239	13
Gas and electric	39,522,528	9,283,650	23
Miscellaneous	605,718,675	67,808,609	11
Total and average	9,732,113,503	1,442,009,191	15

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF LABORERS

(In 13 largest cities)

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(In Yen)

Kind of Employment	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Textile Industry:						
Silk-reeler (Female)	0.62	0.64	0.65	0.68	0.71	0.80
Cotton-spinner (Female)	0.67	0.68	0.68	0.74	0.77	0.85
Silk-thrower (Female)	0.63	0.64	0.63	0.69	0.75	0.82
Cotton-weaver (Machine) (Female)	0.65	0.73	0.68	0.71	0.74	0.85
Silk-weaver (Hand) (Female)	0.24	1.37	1.32	1.23	1.18	1.35
Hosiery-knitter (Male)	1.59	1.59	1.41	1.24	1.42	1.75
" (Female)	0.66	0.67	0.66	0.68	0.71	0.84

WAGES

Kind of Employment	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Metal, machine and tool industry:						
Lath-man	2.56	2.58	2.52	2.65	2.75	2.83
Finisher	2.46	2.51	2.49	2.57	2.61	2.82
Founder	2.71	2.72	2.64	2.76	2.92	3.05
Blacksmith	2.45	2.44	2.41	2.72	2.88	3.17
Wooden-pattern maker	2.57	2.61	2.54	2.79	2.91	2.87
Kiln industry:						
Potter	1.39	1.36	1.45	1.59	1.66	1.88
Glass-maker	1.68	1.67	1.70	1.72	1.82	2.08
Cement-maker	2.05	2.04	2.03	2.19	2.31	2.54
Brick-maker (Shape)	1.27	1.25	1.25	1.32	1.41	1.81
Tile-maker (Shape)	1.50	1.54	1.51	1.65	1.58	2.05
Chemical industry:						
Vitriol-maker	2.11	2.17	2.11	2.18	2.36	2.53
Match-maker (Male)	1.04	1.11	1.18	1.25	1.35	1.56
" (Female)	0.50	0.52	0.53	0.58	0.62	0.67
Oil-presser	1.94	1.97	1.92	2.03	2.01	2.29
Japanese-paper maker	1.48	1.46	1.44	1.55	1.69	1.89
Foreign-style paper maker	1.71	1.75	1.75	1.87	1.92	2.08
Leather-maker	2.38	2.35	2.49	2.61	2.86	3.18
Foodstuff industry:						
Flour-miller	1.88	1.92	1.90	1.89	2.01	2.16
Saké-brewery worker	1.51	1.53	1.58	1.59	1.69	1.94
Soy-brewery worker	1.47	1.45	1.42	1.45	1.49	1.67
Sugar-refinery worker	2.34	2.35	2.50	2.66	2.75	2.96
Confectioner	1.46	1.47	1.45	1.54	1.65	1.84
Canner	1.22	1.21	1.25	1.38	1.52	1.73
Clothing industry:						
Tailor (for European clothes)	1.83	1.79	1.77	1.87	1.96	2.13
Shoe-maker	1.77	1.81	1.82	1.91	2.05	2.18
Wooden-clog maker	1.33	1.35	1.40	1.54	1.70	1.96
Engineering and constructional work:						
Carpenter	1.92	1.93	1.99	2.20	2.35	2.68
Plasterer	2.13	2.16	2.22	2.41	2.55	2.86
Stone-mason	2.33	2.40	2.46	2.66	2.82	3.20
Brick-layer	2.31	2.40	2.43	2.59	2.74	3.17
Roofing-tile layer	2.40	2.41	2.50	2.70	3.03	3.25
Painter	2.10	2.12	2.14	2.27	2.41	2.69
Wood and bamboo work:						
Sawyer (Machine)	1.55	1.56	1.56	1.64	1.79	2.11
Joiner	1.72	1.76	1.80	1.97	2.11	2.48
Lacquerer	1.62	1.62	1.60	1.66	1.74	1.91
Floor-mat maker	1.79	1.84	1.89	1.96	2.07	2.29
Printing and book-binding:						
Compositor	2.17	2.21	2.20	2.24	2.21	2.21
Book-binder	1.61	1.72	1.75	1.78	1.89	1.96
Stevedores and dally laborers:						
Stevedore	2.59	2.66	2.57	2.89	3.14	3.48
Day laborer (Male)	1.31	1.33	1.33	1.43	1.58	1.97
" (Female)	0.78	0.78	0.77	0.82	0.90	1.09

LABOR AND LABOR MOVEMENTS

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF WORKERS EMPLOYED IN
TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATIONS

(Average of 27 Prefectures)

	(In yen)					
	1936		1937		1938	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
General Average	2.01	1.03	2.07	1.11	2.03	1.14
Land transportation			2.12	1.27	1.97	1.30
Railway	2.01	1.03	2.04	1.03	1.97	1.02
Electric railway	2.19	1.32	2.30	1.43	2.38	1.49
Bus	2.66	1.28	2.81	1.36	2.84	1.41
Sea transportation	1.95	—	2.08	—	2.22	—
Ocean	2.26	—	2.49	—	2.82	—
Near seas	1.78	—	1.86	—	1.92	—
Coastal	1.44	—	1.48	—	1.56	—
Forwarding	1.62	0.75	1.62	0.72	1.68	0.68
Communications	1.47	—	1.57	1.01	1.62	1.06
Clerks	1.27	1.07	1.34	1.13	1.36	1.16
Postmen	1.69	1.16	1.83	1.30	1.92	1.40
Engineers	1.35	—	1.46	—	1.48	—
Telephone clerks	—	0.92	—	0.99	—	1.04
Operatives	1.53	—	1.62	—	1.68	—

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF WORKERS EMPLOYED IN
FARMING AND SERICULTURE

(In yen)

	Wages of Workers Employed in Farming									
	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
General index numbers	77	59	54	56	56	60	64	73	84	113
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	0.57	0.47	0.42	0.44	0.44	0.48	0.50	0.60	0.76	0.83
Index numbers	77	61	56	59	59	64	67	79	87	109
Female										
Actual	0.41	0.33	0.29	0.32	0.30	0.32	0.35	0.42	0.48	0.62
Index numbers	70	56	51	55	52	56	62	72	81	106
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	1.25	0.95	0.85	0.89	0.88	0.95	1.00	1.14	1.33	1.59
Index numbers	82	63	58	60	60	64	67	75	86	119
Female										
Actual	0.96	0.72	0.66	0.69	0.69	0.78	0.80	0.92	1.01	1.45
Index numbers	79	61	56	58	58	64	65	75	85	117
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.14	0.86	0.77	0.79	0.79	0.85	0.89	1.00	1.18	1.63
Index numbers	76	57	52	53	53	57	60	67	80	112
Female										
Actual	0.87	0.64	0.55	0.57	0.61	0.65	0.67	0.79	0.94	1.29
Index numbers	77	55	50	50	54	57	61	71	84	115

N.B. Wages per day are calculated by averaging wages, and amounts paid in kind are estimated in equivalent money values. The average is the simple arithmetical average. Base: 1921-23=100

Wages of Workers Employed in Sericulture

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
General index numbers	78	64	59	64	64	69	73	77	87	116
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	0.73	0.59	0.53	0.58	0.57	0.61	0.64	0.67	0.85	1.07
Index numbers	83	68	65	74	73	77	81	84	89	115
Female										
Actual	0.51	0.38	0.37	0.41	0.41	0.44	0.48	0.51	0.60	0.83
Index numbers	81	60	60	75	73	75	80	88	82	117
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	1.05	0.89	0.81	0.86	0.84	0.95	0.98	0.98	1.27	1.72
Index numbers	75	64	57	60	60	66	68	68	91	122
Female										
Actual	0.84	0.67	0.62	0.65	0.66	0.74	0.79	0.81	0.95	1.26
Index numbers	81	65	60	61	63	70	74	76	90	122
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.09	0.93	0.86	0.89	0.88	0.96	1.01	1.07	1.30	1.76
Index numbers	70	60	55	56	56	61	65	69	84	110
Female										
Actual	0.85	0.73	0.67	0.69	0.70	0.75	0.79	0.84	0.99	1.32
Index numbers	75	65	59	60	61	66	69	76	88	111

N.B. Base: 1921-1923=100.

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF MINERS

(In yen)

	1936		1937		1938	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Mineral mines	1.69	0.64	1.84	0.71	2.02	0.77
Coal mines	1.87	0.79	2.10	0.87	2.47	1.07
Oil-fields	1.65	0.86	1.67	0.88	1.73	0.93
Other mines	1.68	0.68	1.74	0.68	1.89	0.75
Average	1.81	0.74	2.01	0.82	2.33	0.96

INDICES OF EMPLOYMENT AND WAGES

(Monthly Average, 1926=100)

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan and the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics)

Year and Month	Factory Labor				
	Employment	Total Wage Rates	Actual Earnings	Male Employment	Male Wage Rates
1937	117.3	82.4	96.8	134.3	83.1
1938	129.2	85.4	105.6	158.5	86.4
1939	142.0	93.3	118.6	184.0	94.3
1940	146.4	100.6	134.8	196.3	100.6
1941:					
June	152.5	105.2	149.1	209.9	104.3
July	150.8	106.6	150.8	208.0	105.7
August	149.6	106.5	151.9	206.8	105.4
September	150.1	106.3	153.5	207.7	105.1
October	150.7	106.4	155.5	209.4	105.1
November	151.6	107.7	154.9	210.8	107.1
December	153.0	109.3	161.4	212.5	108.8

Year and Month	Employment	Total		Male Employment	Male Wage Rates
		Wage Rates	Actual Earnings		
1942:					
January	153.6	110.5	160.6	213.7	110.0
February	154.2	112.0	160.3	215.3	111.4
March	155.6	111.7	160.7	218.1	106.1
April	165.5	109.7	158.4	232.0	108.7
May	167.6	109.2	158.7	236.2	108.1
June	168.9	109.8	162.0	239.2	108.7
1941:					
June	135.1	91.8	106.6	106.6	106.8
July	136.5	90.4	107.9	107.9	108.1
August	137.6	89.2	108.4	108.4	109.2
September	138.8	89.1	109.0	109.0	110.5
October	141.0	88.5	109.8	109.8	110.9
November	140.8	88.9	110.6	110.6	112.7
December	147.8	89.9	112.2	112.2	113.8
1942:					
January	146.1	89.8	113.2	113.2	113.8
February	145.7	89.2	114.7	114.7	114.1
March	145.9	88.8	123.6	123.6	114.9
April	144.2	94.6	113.5	113.5	112.5
May	144.0	94.3	113.5	113.5	114.3
June	146.0	93.7	113.2	113.2	115.1

Mine Labor

	Employment		Wage Rates	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
	1937	96.7	23.7	113.1
1938	111.1	26.6	130.2	75.4
1939	121.8	31.0	151.0	85.3
1940	130.1	36.5	170.8	99.2
1941:				
June	134.7	41.1	187.4	108.1
July	134.7	41.4	185.3	106.6
August	136.3	41.5	185.1	106.0
September	135.0	41.6	187.4	106.9
October	132.1	41.6	188.4	107.8
November	132.4	41.9	189.2	105.0
December	134.5	42.2	188.4	107.9
1942:				
January	140.2	42.5	190.9	107.9
February	141.8	42.8	194.3	109.5
March	139.5	43.1	193.4	109.5
April	134.7	44.3	193.6	107.6
May	133.8	44.9	193.5	109.0
June	135.0	44.8	196.3	109.7

INDEX NUMBERS OF WAGES BY INDUSTRIES
Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry
(Average for 13 larger cities)

(Base: Average of April 1934-March 1935=100)

Kind of Industry:	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Fiber	100.3	98.9	103.2	107.7	124.5	141.7	157.3
Metallic	98.7	98.9	105.9	111.2	122.5	131.7	144.4
Machine	101.0	99.4	105.0	109.2	118.9	127.5	141.9
Kiln	100.4	100.7	107.6	114.6	132.5	152.0	173.9
Chemical	101.9	103.3	109.0	117.0	130.5	155.2	178.5
Foodstuff	100.6	102.3	107.5	104.5	126.4	140.2	155.7
Clothes	102.4	101.6	108.1	118.1	133.5	157.4	171.7
Wood-work	101.8	103.0	109.6	118.3	136.2	162.7	185.7
Printing and book-binding	103.8	105.6	108.2	110.9	116.9	127.3	145.9
Building	102.3	104.9	113.8	122.0	138.7	157.1	164.3
Day laborers	101.2	100.0	108.0	121.0	143.8	166.9	183.0
Average	101.1	101.1	107.0	113.7	128.5	146.1	162.4

Working Hour According to the report of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the number of working hours of laborers in 1939 and last 5 years was as follows:

AVERAGE DAILY WORKING HOURS IN 1939

Kind of Industry	Monthly Working Days		Daily Working Hours	
Fabric	24.7		9:48	
Metallic Machine manufacturing		24.3		11:03
		24.5		10:43
		24.9		9:51
		25.6		10:24
		26.2		10:09
		25.7		10:21
Wood work		25.7		9:48
		26.3		10:43
		24.9		10:33

AVERAGE DAILY WORKING HOURS IN 1935-1939

Kind of Employment	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Silk-reeler (Female)	9:56	9:55	9:56	9:58	10:00
Cotton spinner (Female)	8:32	8:33	8:32	8:30	8:30
Rayon yarn (male)	8:39	8:59	9:01	9:07	10:21
Rayon textile (Female)	10:05	10:06	9:59	10:03	10:53
Dyeing (Printing) (Male)	11:08	10:43	10:47	10:53	10:53
Hosiery (Male)	9:56	9:57	10:12	10:12	10:04
Furnace (Male)	12:05	11:53	11:55	11:48	11:51
Casting (Male)	10:51	10:45	11:05	11:07	10:55
Lath-man	10:50	10:51	10:56	11:09	10:38
Polisher	11:10	11:06	11:01	11:05	10:52
Finisher	10:50	10:51	10:56	11:02	10:44
Cement	10:22	10:04	10:32	11:04	11:25
Potter	9:40	9:40	9:37	9:32	9:39
Vitriol-maker	10:59	10:55	10:55	11:09	11:22
Match-maker (Female)	9:29	9:20	9:30	9:14	9:15
Japanese paper maker (Male)	10:50	10:54	10:54	10:48	10:46
Leather-maker	9:12	9:25	9:52	9:55	9:43
Flour-miller	10:45	10:40	10:41	10:59	11:22
Canner	9:57	10:00	10:14	10:16	9:57
Tailor (Foreign clothes)	10:03	10:12	10:22	10:28	10:20
Sawyer	9:40	9:46	9:49	9:50	9:47
Printing, Compositor	10:48	10:48	10:57	10:36	10:42
Stevedore (sea)	10:53	10:31	11:00	11:34	10:22
Yearly average (for 64 kinds)	10:07	10:05	10:10	10:13	10:13

It will thus be seen that labor is being strained in all its phases, especially in the heavy industries.

The working hours in the above statistics do not include time for rest. But time for rest has been shortened since 1929.

Labor Disputes

The number of labor disputes in 1931 recorded highest with 2,456 including 998 which were accompanied by strikes, sabotages or lockouts. The following 4 years showed a decreasing tendency in labor disputes, their number in 1935 being 1,872 including 590 cases accompanied by strikes, sabotages or lockouts. But in 1936 the number rose once again and in the first half of 1937, it surpassed the corresponding period of the record year 1931, and then suddenly began to decrease after July 1937, when the North China incident occurred.

The reason for the decrease in the number of labor disputes in 1932 and after may be found in the occurrence of the Manchurian incident in Septem-

ber 1931 and the consequent change of thought among the people in which nationalism gained an ascendancy over the socialistic ideologies of labor leaders. The leaders themselves altered their concepts and showed a spirit of cooperation with capitalists in promoting the benefit of industrial enterprises. The prosperity attending the heavy industries and the export trade also had much to do with the decrease in labor disputes, and the nature of disputes was considerably modified.

The increase in 1936 and the first half of 1937 was caused not by any change in thought but by a purely economic reason, namely, the increase in wage did not correspond to the rise in prices. The sudden decrease in the second half of 1937 was exceptional, being the result of the emergency situation and the national mobilization of men and resources. The tendency prevailed in 1938 and the number of disputes decreased to a half of 1937. The following table is given here to show the general conditions of labor disputes during past 10 years, 1931-1940.

LABOR DISPUTES IN 1931-1940

	Total of Disputes			Disputes accompanied by		
	Cases	Partakers	Partakers per Case	Strikes, Sabotage or Lockouts	Partakers	Partakers Per Case
1931	2,456	154,528	63	998	64,536	65
1932	2,217	123,313	56	893	54,783	61
1933	1,897	116,733	62	610	49,423	81
1934	1,915	120,307	63	626	49,536	79
1935	1,872	103,962	56	590	37,734	64
1936	1,975	92,724	47	547	30,900	56
1937	2,126	213,622	101	628	123,730	197
1938	1,022	53,550	52	262	18,341	70
1939	1,096	90,723	82	688	50,162	72
1940	718	54,005	75	—	—	—

Results of Disputes

	Total	Compromised	Demands Accepted	Demands Unaccepted	Defeated	Left Unsettled
1934	623	271(43.5)	163(26.2)	188(30.2)	1(0.1)	—
1935	584	276(47.3)	157(26.9)	151(25.8)	—	—
1936	547	217(39.7)	176(32.2)	153(27.9)	—	1(0.2)
1937	628	261(41.5)	168(26.9)	197(31.3)	2(0.3)	—
1938	262	84(32.0)	90(34.3)	86(32.8)	2(0.8)	—

Figures in parentheses represent percentages.

Tenant Disputes

In the past 5 years tenant disputes centered round the protection of the tenant rights, or the demand of tenants for the continuation of their tenure. The difficulty for a farmer to get another farm has become much greater than that of finding work for a laborer in a city. To lose one's farm is to starve, and tenant disputes along this line are accordingly acute. The number of tenant disputes since 1937 decreased as shown in the following table.

TENANT DISPUTES

Year	Number	Tenant Participations	Area Included (In cho)
1936	6,804	77,187	46,036
1937	6,170	63,246	39,255
1938	4,615	52,817	34,075
1939	3,578	25,904	16,622
1940	1,683	—	9,824

The causes, demands and results of disputes in the past 5 years have been as follows:

TENANT DISPUTES

By Causes

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Raising tenant rents	115	227	237	146	142
Bad crops	2,451	1,373	1,116	896	563
High tenant rents	66	155	139	96	135
Unbalanced production cost	6	15	10	5	47
Cancellation of tenant right	3,031	3,644	3,575	2,562	1,752
Arrears of farm-rents	734	871	621	553	554
Others	421	519	472	357	385

By Demands

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Temporary lowering of tenant rents	2,616	1,621	1,546	1,212	711
Permanent lowering of tenant rents	96	213	228	148	218
Against raising tenant rents	114	197	184	132	127
Continuation of tenant rights	2,862	3,674	3,274	2,274	1,524
Recognition of tenant rights	45	69	47	25	21
Compensation for lost tenant rights	123	184	155	127	106
Others	968	846	964	845	871

Results of Disputes

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
Compromised	5,131	5,162	4,824	3,619	2,960
Demands accepted	381	294	277	264	136
Demands withdrawn	160	167	107	85	93
Naturally settled	82	72	76	51	52
Unsettled	1,070	1,109	886	596	337

Patriotic Industrial Association The outstanding event in the annals of the trade union history in Japan was the birth of the Patriotic Industrial Association (Sangyo Hōkoku Kai) in 1938. The organization of the Association was first initiated by the Arbitration Society for the purpose of readjusting the relations between capital and labor in the time of emergency. A special commission in the Society recommended, early in 1938, the organization of such associations in factories and industrial

establishment all over the country, and within a few months the number of the Patriotic Industrial Associations became so many that the Central Patriotic Industrial League was organized on July 30th. The Central League, then began a national campaign for the spread of the principles of the association among the employers and workers in all kinds of factories and for the organization of the association in every one of them in all the districts of the country. On August 24, 1938, the Government de-

LABOR AND LABOR MOVEMENTS

clided to give a helping hand to the movement and issued an order, in the name of Vice-Minister of the Home and Welfare Ministry, to encourage the organization of a patriotic trade union in every factory if possible. Thus the movement became semi-governmental and the number of the Patriotic Industrial Associations rapidly increased. In view of the necessity of national control, the leadership and supervision of the Associations was finally transferred from the Central Patriotic Industrial League to the Government on April 24, 1939, and the National Federation of

the Patriotic Industrial Associations was organized, while the Central League was reorganized so as to take the part of education and propaganda only.

According to the report the Government the membership reached 5,273,352 at the end of June 1941. There is no doubt that the appearance of such patriotic trade unions will bear hard upon the existing trade unions and federations which are confronted with the danger of dissolution or dissension among members as revealed by the decreasing tendency of trade unions.

TRADE UNIONS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Welfare)

	Unions	Members	Total Number of	
			Laborers	Union Percentage
1931	818	368,975	4,729,436	7.9
1932	932	377,625	4,860,276	7.8
1933	942	384,613	5,126,719	7.5
1934	965	387,964	5,764,277	6.7
1935	993	408,662	5,906,589	6.7
1936	973	420,589	6,090,116	6.9
1937	837	395,290	6,422,333	6.1
1938	731	375,191	6,765,399	5.5
1939	517	365,804	—	—
1940	428	184,004	—	—

Farmers' Unions Farmers' unions are changing from temporary to permanent organizations, and are steadily increasing in number. According to

the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in 1921 there were only 681 tenant-farmers' unions, and their growth is shown below.

FARMERS' UNIONS

(Compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

	Landowners		Tenant-farmers		Landowners and Tenant-farmers	
	Unions	Members	Unions	Members	Unions	Members
1933	686	49,645	4,810	302,736	2,309	279,431
1934	633	48,836	4,390	276,246	2,219	271,434
1935	531	38,172	4,011	242,422	1,748	202,785
1936	513	35,703	3,915	229,209	2,878	254,907
1937	497	35,054	3,879	226,919	2,849	251,056
1938	473	31,902	3,643	217,883	3,158	263,071
1939	474	32,595	3,509	210,208	3,152	251,313

Living Conditions of Workers' Families Living conditions of the families of industrial and mining workers under the wartime situation during the year

from April, 1940 to March, 1941 were as follows according to a survey by the Ministry of Welfare:

LIVING CONDITIONS

AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOMES AND EXPENDITURES OF INDUSTRIAL WORKERS' FAMILIES

(Value in Yen)

	Incomes						Over Average 200
	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	
Actual Incomes							
Labor Incomes	60	80	100	120	150	200	
Of Head of Families	43.90	70.09	84.98	102.24	122.97	157.60	212.88
Of Spouses	5.88	1.26	1.09	1.70	1.72	1.11	0.50
Of Children	0.04	0.01	0.08	0.19	0.53	1.73	4.19
Total	49.82	71.36	86.20	104.46	125.56	160.91	218.72
Income Not by Labor	1.95	3.42	4.67	6.04	8.35	10.59	14.91
Total	51.77	74.78	90.81	110.50	133.94	171.50	233.63
Non-Actual Income:							
Deposits drawn out	9.05	6.19	6.90	9.71	11.46	16.32	34.04
Debts	5.94	2.46	2.70	3.15	2.97	3.11	5.47
Total (including others)	20.28	13.12	10.77	14.71	17.86	24.83	34.73
Grand Total	72.05	87.90	101.58	125.21	151.80	196.33	268.36

Expenditures

Actual Expenditures:							
Foods and Drinks	31.16	32.35	36.76	41.47	48.18	54.94	65.14
Housing	8.60	8.34	9.13	11.37	13.72	16.45	21.79
Light and Fuel, etc.	2.41	3.58	4.52	5.33	5.62	6.86	8.39
Clothing, etc.	3.59	7.49	8.89	10.51	12.07	15.76	19.76
Health and Sanitation	7.28	6.31	5.16	6.76	7.77	9.39	15.22
Education of Children	3.49	1.75	3.36	4.12	5.28	8.17	14.12
Traffic	1.59	1.51	1.26	1.64	2.07	2.68	3.27
Others	3.73	8.59	10.76	14.54	18.22	27.04	40.34
Social	1.10	3.12	4.90	6.08	7.72	10.87	13.81
Culture and Amusements	1.18	2.98	3.02	4.11	5.10	7.61	9.12
Total	61.65	70.22	79.84	95.74	112.93	141.29	188.03
Non-Actual Expenditures:							
Deposits	4.49	11.12	11.34	16.06	22.09	31.45	52.32
Total (including others)	7.42	16.74	19.74	27.66	37.32	52.47	75.04
Grand Total	67.07	86.96	99.58	123.40	150.25	193.76	263.07

AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOME AND EXPENDITURES OF MINE WORKERS' FAMILIES

(Value in Yen)

	Incomes						Over Average 200
	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	Less Than	
Actual Incomes							
Labor Incomes	80	100	120	150	200		
Of Heads of Families	65.45	84.95	100.48	121.96	154.71	181.14	103.80
Of Spouses	1.14	1.26	1.71	2.16	1.10	5.40	1.68
Of Children	0.20	0.21	0.56	0.96	0.01	5.71	0.58
Total	66.85	86.47	103.52	125.72	156.23	192.25	106.54
Income Not by Labor	2.43	4.75	5.51	5.45	6.87	19.52	5.37
Total	69.29	91.22	109.03	131.17	163.10	211.77	111.91
Non-Actual Incomes:							
Deposits drawn out	5.86	7.58	8.35	8.87	7.10	17.76	8.17
Debts	1.33	3.85	3.81	2.48	1.28	0.16	3.13
Total (including others)	8.63	14.12	14.66	14.92	15.82	31.89	14.51
Grand Total	77.91	105.34	123.69	146.09	178.92	243.66	126.42

		Expenditures						
Actual Expenditures								
Foods and Drinks	34.37	40.05	44.52	49.57	58.99	71.98	45.20	
Housing	2.43	2.43	3.05	3.40	4.61	4.30	3.05	
Light and Fuel, etc.	3.21	2.03	3.12	2.91	2.89	3.54	3.04	
Clothing, etc.	7.54	11.52	13.50	15.24	18.69	22.10	13.47	
Health and Sanitation	4.17	5.28	4.81	5.26	4.26	5.75	4.98	
Education of Children	1.72	2.90	3.53	4.28	5.94	12.11	3.70	
Traffic	0.42	0.67	0.85	0.67	1.29	1.16	0.76	
Others	8.10	11.31	14.83	17.45	20.86	27.97	14.65	
Social	3.75	4.73	6.42	6.46	9.20	8.69	6.02	
Culture and Amusements	3.62	5.65	7.43	9.43	9.88	15.70	3.94	
Total	61.96	77.19	88.21	98.78	117.62	149.00	88.85	
Non-Actual Expenditures:								
Deposits	8.63	14.19	20.62	29.73	39.99	61.18	22.12	
Total (including others)	15.67	26.95	34.04	44.62	61.32	86.36	35.96	
Grand Total	77.63	104.14	122.25	143.40	178.94	235.36	124.81	

The present survey was made of 898 industrial workers families and 207 mining workers' families.

AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOMES AND EXPENDITURES OF INDUSTRIAL AND MINING WORKERS CLASSIFIED BY NUMBER OF FAMILY

(In Yen)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
Industrial Workers:								
Actual Incomes	120.59	115.05	127.37	132.97	142.08	152.67	143.72	131.12
Non-Actual Incomes	10.65	16.57	17.55	16.71	21.80	22.81	21.42	16.66
Total Incomes	131.24	131.62	144.92	149.68	163.88	175.48	165.14	147.78
Actual Expenditures	92.21	95.49	95.29	112.60	129.31	133.72	124.16	109.34
Non-Actual Expenditures	36.39	34.82	37.22	35.08	31.33	40.25	38.42	36.10
Total Expenditures	128.60	130.31	132.51	147.68	160.64	173.97	162.58	145.47
Mining Workers:								
Actual Incomes	106.70	105.85	104.46	114.61	117.94	114.09	121.79	111.91
Non-Actual Incomes	13.96	12.42	11.46	17.89	15.86	13.44	15.83	14.51
Total Incomes	120.75	118.27	115.92	132.50	133.80	127.53	137.62	126.42
Actual Expenditures	74.63	80.82	81.83	93.69	97.00	95.03	99.92	88.85
Non-Actual Expenditures	41.24	36.73	32.65	35.81	33.73	30.97	40.05	35.96
Total Expenditures	115.87	117.55	114.48	129.50	130.73	126.00	139.97	124.81

Note: A. Families with two members, namely, husband and wife. B. Families with one child. C. Families with two children. D. Families with three children. E. Families with four children. F. Families with five children. G. Others. H. Total Average.

(In regard to labor conditions in 1941 the reader is referred to "(6) Supply-Demand of Labor, Development and Tendency of the National Economy in 1941-42," Chapter X "Commerce and Industry.")

CHAPTER XXVII

JUSTICE AND POLICE

*For Those Who Want to Know
Realities of East Asia*

CONTEMPORARY JAPAN

A Review of East Asiatic Affairs

PUBLISHED MONTHLY

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CHAPTER XXVII

JUSTICE AND POLICE

JUDICATURE

The Judicature's Position

Since the promulgation of the Japanese Constitution in 1889, the right of the sovereignty of the Emperor has been divided into the three distinct departments, of legislation, judicature and administration.

In accordance with Article 57 of the Constitution, "the Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor." Judges are appointed from among those possessing such qualifications as are determined by law and they are guaranteed by the Constitution against being deprived of their positions unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment. Not only are the judges guaranteed their positions, but they have authority in exercising judicial power to judge on their own independent views, using the statutes as the sole standard of judgment without being in any way swayed by interference from others and unaffected by authority arising from any quarter.

Since the judges are entirely independent of the administration the results of judicial decisions are equally independent thereof, and the decisions are not affected by the administrative power except in cases of pardon or provisional release.

Composition of the Courts

In Japan, the ordinary Courts of Law for the adjudication of civil and criminal cases consist of (1) Local Courts (Kusabansho), (2) District Courts (Chihosabansho), (3) Courts of Appeal (Koso-in), and (4) the Supreme Court (Taishin-in). The District Courts, the Courts of Appeal and the Supreme Court are all collegiate courts with special divisions, in each of which sit a number of judges.

Local Courts The Local Courts are presided over by single judges. A three instance system is adopted in the adjudication of all ordinary cases, and any one may lodge an appeal against a

judgment rendered in the first instance and demand revision of that rendered in the second instance.

In the matter of civil cases, the Local Courts possess judicial power to adjudicate on the following matters in the first instance:

1. Demands for money less than 1,000 yen or for articles, the value of which is less than 1,000 yen.

2. The following cases irrespective of value:

(a) Legal actions brought by lessors against lessees, or vice versa, for the receipt, vacation, use, occupation or repair of houses or other buildings or parts thereof, or for the seizure of the furniture and fixtures or belongings of lessees by lessors.

(b) Legal actions only concerning the boundaries of real estates.

(c) Legal actions only concerning occupations.

(d) Legal actions brought by employers against employees, or vice versa, for contracts of employment, the terms of which do not exceed one year.

(e) Legal actions brought by travellers against hotel or inn keepers, or vice versa, for matters concerning board or lodging, or by travellers against water or land forwarding agents, or vice versa.

(f) Matters concerning bankruptcy.

In criminal cases, the Local Courts, as the courts of law for adjudication in the first instance, possess judicial power concerning the following matters, provided they have not been subjected to preliminary examination:

1. Offenses punishable with detention or fine.

2. Offenses punishable with penal servitude, imprisonment for fixed terms or by imposition of fines, except those punishable with penal servitude or imprisonment for more than one year.

District Courts District Courts are courts of the first instance. In civil cases, the District Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the first instance:

Demands other than those falling under the jurisdiction of the Local Courts or of the Courts of Appeal.

2. In the second instance:

(a) Appeals lodged against judgments rendered by the Local Courts;

(b) Demands determined by law for revision of decisions or orders rendered by the Local Courts.

Further, with reference to criminal cases, the District Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the first instance:

Criminal cases falling neither under the jurisdiction of the Local Courts nor under the special jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

2. In the second instance:

(a) Appeals lodged against judgments rendered by the Local Courts;

(b) Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered by the Local Courts, except those falling under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

Courts of Appeal The Courts of Appeal are courts of the second instance and possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. Appeals lodged against judgments rendered in the first instance by the District Courts.

2. Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered in the first instance by the District Courts, except those falling under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

Powers to adjudicate in the first and second instances in civil cases brought against the members of the Imperial Family belong to the Tokyo Court of Appeal.

The Supreme Court The Supreme Court (Tai-shin-in) is the highest court of law and possesses judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the final instance:

(a) Appeals against judgments rendered by the lower courts;

(b) Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the District Courts or by the Courts of Appeal;

(c) Complaints against decisions to reject appeals made by the Local or District Courts.

2. In the first, and at the same time, final instance: Preliminary examination and adjudication of offenses against the Imperial House, offenses of internal disturbance, and offenses committed by

members of the Imperial Family, for which punishment heavier than imprisonment should be imposed.

Public Prosecutors

A public prosecutor's office, with the necessary number of prosecutors, is attached to each court, except the District Court for civil cases. The work of the public prosecutor is, in accordance with the code of criminal procedure, to take legal actions, to go on with necessary legal proceedings, to demand the right application of the law, and to observe the right execution of a judgment. According to the code of civil procedure, he also has rights to ask for a report whenever he thinks it necessary and presents his opinions to the court on it, and as a representative of public welfare he carries out his supervising business as laid down by the law in all judicial and administrative matters related to the court. But the public prosecutor acts absolutely independently of the court.

Court Officials and Prosecutors

Qualifications Candidates for the office of judge or prosecutor are chosen by the Minister of Justice from among those who have passed the higher judicial service examination. The selected candidates then have to serve a term of over one and a half years of probation in the courts or in a public prosecutor's office and pass a further examination, after which, should the report on their estimated ability be favorable, they will receive an appointment as judge or prosecutor. But those who have been professors of law in the Imperial Universities or lawyers of over three years standing can be appointed as judges or public prosecutors without examination and estimation.

The following are not to be appointed as either judges or public prosecutors:

(1) Those who have been convicted of a grave crime, with the exception of those political offenders who have been rehabilitated.

(2) Those who have served sentences on minor offenses.

(3) Those who have been adjudicated bankrupt and could not be exempted from the responsibility.

Position of Judges and Public Prosecutors Judges are permanent officials appointed by His Majesty directly, or by His Majesty's order indirectly, or by His Majesty's approval, according to the grade of their position. Unless by way

of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment judges are not to be moved to another post or place, be suspended from office, be deprived of position, or receive a reduction of salary, without their consent, except in so far as the Minister of Justice may order retirement from service by the decision of a general meeting of the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court on account of disability caused through weakness of body or mind.

The public prosecutors are appointed by His Majesty directly or by His Majesty's order indirectly or by His Majesty's approval. Unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment the public prosecutors are not to be deprived of their positions against their own will.

The Prosecutor-General at the age of 65 years and all other public prosecutors at 63 years of age must retire from service. A public prosecutor must obey the orders of higher authorities and judicial policemen must obey the orders issued by the public prosecutors or through them within the district of jurisdiction of the public prosecutor's office.

Jury System

In 1923 the Jury Law was issued and came into force on October 1, 1928, and Japan finally adopted the jury system under which persons other than judges are allowed to take part in criminal trials. The jury system is used in such criminal cases as where the punishment may be capital, or penal servitude or imprisonment for life. Other criminal cases in which the sentence may be penal servitude or imprisonment for a term longer than 3 years are tried by jury only upon demand of the accused and when they come within the jurisdiction of the District Courts. The following cases are not submitted to trial by jury:

(1) Offenses which come under the special authority of the Supreme Court.

(2) Offenses against the Imperial House, causing an internal disturbance, helping an enemy, disturbing international relations, and sedition.

(3) Violations of the Peace Maintenance Law.

(4) Violations of the Military Secrets Preservation Law, the Army or Navy Criminal Laws or any other offenses in connection with military secrets.

(5) Violations of the Public Election Laws.

The accused can refuse to have his case tried by jury or withdraw his own demand to be tried by jury at any time previous to the statement of the case by the public prosecutor, under which circumstances the case cannot be referred to a jury.

The jury is composed of 12 men. At the trial, the chief judge, after having heard all the evidence for and against the accused, sums up the facts and main points of the case, and charges the jury to deliberate and render its verdict by a majority vote. The verdict must be a simple statement as to guilt or otherwise. If the court considers the verdict improper the case may be referred to another jury.

In a case where sentence has been passed on a jury's verdict of guilt, no appeal can be made to the Court of Appeal, but a demand for revision may be presented to the Supreme Court.

Penal System

History It was in the time of the Empress Suiko, 620 A.D., that the first written Penal Code was issued in Japan. The code was very simple, but later the Chinese penal code, the "T'o," was introduced and the Japanese code was drafted in a more systematic manner and promulgated by the Emperor Mommu, in 702, as the "Taiho Ritsu-Ryo." Five kinds of punishment were mentioned, namely, flogging, whipping, penal servitude, exile, and death, but in most cases these could be varied to confiscation of property or payment of a fine. Grave crimes were treason, atrocities, blasphemy, undutifulness to one's parents, adultery, etc. Confession of the accused was required as a necessary procedure of a criminal suit, and naturally torture was recognized as an indispensable means of obtaining such a confession. Several hundred years after the issuance of the Taiho Ritsu-Ryo the Shogunate Governments adopted extremely terroristic penal systems with the purpose of preventing the occurrence of criminal cases. One of the most important of them was the One Hundred Criminal Regulations of the Tokugawa Shogunate. It was a secret criminal code which was not published and was accessible to the judges only, an expression of the despotism of the ruling class that had as its motto, "leave the people ignorant of the niceties of law."

With the downfall of the Tokugawa Shogunate the Great Emperor Meiji abolished the system of intimidation and reformed the old penal code. The codification of Civil Law was carried on under the advice of Monsieur Gustave Boissonade, a French scholar of jurisprudence who was invited to Japan for that purpose. A new Penal Code and Criminal Procedure Law, the characteristics of which were that, "though the lawful punishment of criminals is assured, the penalties are tempered with sympathy toward the accused and are in no ways severe," were enacted and promulgated. "No crime shall be punished unless there is a regulation in the law," (*nullum crimen et nulla poena sine lege*) is one of the guiding principles of the code, which was formulated on the French penal code of 1810. Within a few years it was found that the new code was out of date and various amendments were discussed from 1884 to 1907, in which year a thorough revision was made and the present Penal Code issued. Since then the social conditions of the people have undergone rapid changes, more advanced theories regarding penalties have been gaining ground and so many defects have been noticed in the present code, that in 1926 the Extraordinary Legislative Committee passed a resolution that the Penal Code should be revised. A special investigation committee set to work and in 1931 an outline and draft of a revised penal code and prison law was drawn up. It is expected that the thorough study of the draft that is now going on will soon be completed.

Penalties Penalties are divided into six kinds, namely, the death penalty, penal servitude, imprisonment, monetary penalties, custody, and fines. Confiscation is recognized as an additional punishment. The death penalty is by hanging and is carried out in prison. Penal servitude and imprisonment are for limited terms and for life; limited terms extend from one month to 15 years. Under penal servitude labor is compulsory, but a prisoner serving a term of imprisonment is not compelled to work, though he may be allowed to do so at his own request. A monetary penalty is 20 yen and above, unless made lighter on decision. Custody is from one to under 30 days, and a fine is from 10 yen to less than 20 yen. Those who cannot pay monetary penalties and fines are kept in workhouses as an alternative.

Suspension of Sentence and Provisional Release The present penal law allows probation. The execution of a penalty often leads to self-abandonment and turns comparatively harmless people, who are not yet addicted to criminal deeds, into habitual jail-birds. This is found to be especially so when the penalty is one of penal servitude for a short time, and it is, therefore, far better for people convicted of light and incidental offenses to be excused from the real infliction of the penalty under special conditions and to be given proper admonitions in order to make them repentant by self-examination. Consequently, the Japanese courts are empowered, under certain conditions, to postpone the execution of sentence for from one to five years, beginning with the day of the sentence and according to the nature and condition of the case, on persons sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment for less than 2 years.

Probation is cancelled (1) when the probationer, during the time of probation, commits another offense and is sentenced to imprisonment or is given a heavier sentence, (2) when the probationer is sentenced to imprisonment or a heavier penalty is imposed because of some other crime committed before the granting of probation, and (3) when, in cases not mentioned above, the probationer is found to have had at some previous time a sentence of imprisonment or some other heavier penalty inflicted on him. Should the term of probation expire without being revoked the sentence is automatically cancelled thereby. The draft of the penal code of 1931, besides confirming the system of probation, admits the principle of postponement of passing sentence in especially pitiable cases of a non-serious nature.

Release on parole was practised as early as 1790 in the House of Correction at Ishikawajima, Yedo; the present law admits it and it is widely practised. As reformation is one of the chief aims of punishment, when convicts are evidently repentant and there is no fear of their committing further crimes, it is unnecessary to continue the punishment. Therefore, it is stated in the present Penal Code, "when the convicts who are under penal servitude or imprisonment are found to be evidently repentant, provisional release may be authorized by the administrative office after they have finished one-third of the limited term of

ten years of the term for life" (Article 28).

Provisional release may be cancelled (1) when the persons on parole have committed another offense during the term of the release and have been sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty, or (2) when they are sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty because of some other offense committed before the provisional release, or (3) when they were sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty because of another offense committed before the provisional release and that penalty must now be fulfilled, or (4) when they break the provisional release rules. In this case the rest of the term of sentence must be served.

Criminal Compensation System

A nation has the responsibility of compensating innocent persons who have been wrongfully punished or have been kept in detention during trial. The Criminal Compensation Law was enacted in 1931. Cases to be compensated according to the Law are as follows:

(1) When a verdict of "not guilty" or an acquittal has been given by the examining judge to a person who has been kept in detention, the State makes compensation for the loss caused by the detention.

(2) In case a verdict of "guilty" is reversed by a higher court and the accused has already suffered the execution of the penalty or was kept in detention before the execution, the State makes compensation for the loss caused by the penalty or detention.

When the accused is dead, the bereaved get the compensation. The bereaved in the terms of the Law are meant to be the spouse, children, grandchildren, parents, grandparents and those whose names were in the same census registration at the time of the death of the accused.

As compensation for unlawful arrest or detention, a sum of less than 5 yen is paid against the warrant of arrest or for each day of detention after the arrest or for each day of detention after the execution of the warrant of detention.

As compensation for penal servitude, imprisonment, or detention, a sum of less than 5 yen is paid for each day of the whole period. The same rule applies to detention before the execution of the death penalty.

As compensation to the bereaved of

a person who has mistakenly suffered the death penalty, a sum of money considered reasonable by the Court is given in addition to the compensation for detention.

As compensation for a monetary penalty or fine wrongly imposed, the amount of money corresponding to that of the monetary penalty or fine already paid is given back. In case a person was unable to pay the amount imposed and in lieu was kept in a Labor House, a sum of 5 yen for each day of detention is paid as compensation.

Claims for compensation should be made to the Court returning the verdict of "not guilty", or to the Court in which the examining judge pronounced the acquittal.

Criminal Thought Offense

The Imperial Ordinance No. 403 of November 14, 1936, prescribed for the organization of the Protection and Surveillance Station, and other Imperial Ordinances and orders of the Minister of Justice were subsequently issued in connection with the measures to be taken by the State for preventing criminal thought offenses.

Protection and Surveillance System The new rule which involves the creation of protection and surveillance stations and the establishment of a protection and surveillance commission is aimed at protecting persons who have once committed "thought" offenses and preventing them from repeating the crime. It not only calls for placing old offenders under surveillance but aims at giving them positive guidance in order that they will not commit similar offenses and will walk in the path of rectitude. This positive nature of the new system is expected to help in bringing about the defeat of Communism and elevating the Japanese spirit through encouraging those on the way of changing their minds to forge ahead, and assisting those who have already done so to earn a living. It constitutes an important link in the national "thought" defense line on the strength of its mission towards the preservation of peace and public order by preventing "thought" offenses on the one hand and on the other by serving to elevate and clarify the essential spirit of the nation.

Objectives of the New System The objectives of the protection and surveillance system are limited to persons who have committed offenses in the

light of the Peace Preservation Law. Offenders of other kinds do not come within its scope. Only those who have been granted a reprieve in indictment by the public prosecutor, or a stay of execution of their sentence by the law court, or who have been released on bail, or who have served their term, are placed under protection and surveillance. The invocation of this rule, however, must be made with the approval of the Protection and Surveillance Commission which is under the control of the Minister of Justice, and in such cases where the commission adopts a resolution against the invocation, the rule cannot be invoked.

Organs and Procedure The new system is enforced through the operation of 22 protection and surveillance stations throughout the country and a protection and surveillance commission. These stations are independent offices and are located in Tokyo, Yokohama, Mito, Mayebashi, Shizuoka, Nagano, Niigata, Osaka, Kyoto, Kobe, Takamatsu, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Hiroshima, Okayama, Fukuoka, Kumamoto, Sendai, Akita, Aomori, Sapporo and Hakodate and their staffs are composed of guiding officials, protecting officials and secretaries.

The guiding officials take charge of directing and supervising the protection and surveillance business and as such may be regarded as the central machinery of the protection and surveillance stations. The protecting officials conduct the enquiry and surveillance business under instructions from the station masters, who are selected from among the guiding officials. There are at present 33 whole-time protecting officials over all the country and the Minister of Justice may commission other suitable persons as part-time officials.

The protection and surveillance stations are to be notified by the authorities concerned when some "thought" offenders have been granted a reprieve in indictment, a stay of execution of their sentence, have been released on bail, or have left prison after serving their term. Upon receipt of such a notification, the station concerned must immediately institute an investigation into the career, environment, mental and physical condition, and changes in thought and other relative affairs of the person in question. In the investigation, special attention should be given to ascertaining whether the person in question has changed his mind or not

and if so, the motive and extent of the financial and family conditions of his guardian and whether there is any prospect of the person in question earning a living in the future.

If the results of the investigation lead to a decision to place the person under protection and surveillance, the station concerned is to refer the matter to the protection and surveillance commission which must then pass a judgment. The station cannot place any person under protection and surveillance until it has received a notification from the commission that its decision has been approved.

Methods of Effecting the Protection and Surveillance There are three different methods for effecting the protection and surveillance. One is that the protecting officials concerned keep a personal surveillance over the person in question, another is to hand the person over to his guardian. In the third method, the person is put in the charge of some protective organization, temple, shrine, church, hospital, etc. In all the three cases, the station authorities concerned must explain to the person in question the significance of the decision to place him under protection and surveillance and caution him about his future conduct.

According to circumstances, two or even three methods may be employed simultaneously. The authorities concerned may also put restrictions on the abode, intercourse and correspondence of the protected if such a measure is deemed necessary or advisable.

The period of protection and surveillance is fixed at two years but it may be shortened or prolonged. Prolongation of the period, however, requires the approval of the protection and surveillance commission.

As already stated, the protection and surveillance system has, as its primary aim, the encouragement of "thought" offenders to change their minds and the assistance of those who have changed their minds in securing a living. It therefore is natural that adequate measures should be taken to guide and help persons properly in thought and help them to enjoy life.

In view of the specific nature of "thought" offenders, the authorities follow a principle of respecting their social conscience and conception of justice while encouraging them to master the Japanese spirit. As a stable living

has a close bearing upon the perpetuation of the change in mind, efforts are also made to secure suitable positions for persons under protection and surveillance and to assist them in making their own homes and appreciating the beautiful points of the Japanese family system. Facilities for attendance at school are also provided in some cases.

The Revised Penal Code

The revised Penal Code which was passed by the 76th session of the Imperial Diet (December 1940-March 1941) was promulgated on March 12 and enforced as from the 20th of the same month, 1941.

The existing Penal Code was enforced in 1908 and only one article has been revised since. In accordance with the advice of the Extraordinary Legislative Committee on the necessity of a thorough revision of the Penal Code in order to meet the requirements of the times, the Penal Code and Prison Law Commission were established in the Ministry of Justice in 1927. The Commission which consisted of competent scholars and legal practitioners drafted a tentative scheme for the proposed revision and made it public in April 1940, while continuing their efforts for completing the work of a thorough revision of the existing Penal Code. Unfortunately, however, the Government had to abolish most of the governmental commissions in order to save expenses, the said Commission being among those dissolved so that its work was left unfinished. Thus the complete revision of the Penal Code as contemplated, could not be submitted before the 76th session of the Imperial Diet. But the need for revision at least on important points related to the preservation of peace and order and national defense was keenly felt, and the bill for a partial revision was presented and passed by the Diet.

The cardinal points of the revision are as follows:

(1) Prolongation of the term of detention in workhouses as an alternative to failure in payment of fine, corresponding to the system of enhancement of fines under various laws in recent years.

(2) The extent of confiscation has been enlarged by the provisions of Article 19, to things obtained in reward for a criminal deed as well as things obtained directly by a criminal deed,

or the money acquired by sale of such things, and things possessed by persons other than the criminal which have been acquired from the latter with a knowledge of the crime. When these things are not such as can be confiscated, their value is to be forfeited. The Article purports to completely take away all things obtained by any person through crimes committed against the National General Mobilization Law, the Extraordinary Trade Goods Disposition Law and the laws for economic control.

(3) Rules have been inserted for ensuring the compulsory auction and fair tender in Article 96. Article 96, paragraph 2 provides for the imposition of a penal servitude not longer than 2 years or a fine not exceeding 1,000 yen on those who have hidden or damaged their properties or made disguised assignments or contracted a false debt, in order to defy the confiscation and compulsory auction of their properties. Article 96, paragraph 3 provides for the imposition of a penal servitude not longer than 2 years or a fine not exceeding 5,000 yen on those who have done deeds detrimental to the fair public auction or tender for contracts to be made or material to be purchased by the Government offices, or those who have taken counsel together with the purpose of impairing fair valuation or obtaining iniquitous profits. These provisions purport to prevent tricks of bidders or tenderers who have an unlawful understanding among themselves regarding their common profit but impairing the national benefit.

(4) Penalties for those who have committed offenses against the national peace and order have been newly defined.

Article 105, paragraph 2 prescribes that those who have spread fictitious reports with the purpose of misleading the people shall be sentenced to a penal servitude or imprisonment not longer than 5 years or a fine not exceeding 5,000 yen, and those who have spread fictitious reports with the purpose of inciting a run on the bank or other financial confusing to a penal servitude or imprisonment not longer than 7 years or a fine not more than 5,000 yen.

Article 105, paragraph 3 prescribes that those who have spread fictitious reports likely to mislead the public or cause economic confusion, at a time of war or natural calamities or similar

occasions, shall be sentenced to a penal servitude or imprisonment not longer than 3 years or a fine not more than 3,000 yen. Hitherto there have been no specific rules applicable to these types of offenses, other than the Peace Preservation Law or the military penal codes.

Article 105, paragraph 5 prescribes that those who have done deeds, at a time of war or natural calamities or similar occasions, which may gravely impede the normal progress of national economy, by intentionally confusing the money market, obstructing the production or distribution of important materials and commodities or by other means, in order to get excessive profits, shall be sentenced to a penal servitude for life or more than one year, or, when deemed necessary be concurrently made liable to a fine not exceeding 100,000 yen.

(5) Penalty against causing fire through negligence has been made heavier by the revision of Article 116 and addition of paragraph 2 to Article 117. Those who have caused fire through negligence have been hitherto fined a sum not more than 300 yen, much too light a punishment as compared with that for a similar crime resulting in a forest fire which is a fine up to 1,000 yen, according to the Forestry Law. The former was therefore raised up to 1,000 yen in commonplace cases, and an imprisonment not longer than 3 years or a fine not more than 3,000 yen in the case of fires caused by negligence in the discharge of one's responsibility or by a grave mistake, as, for instance, causing a fire in a factory.

(6) Article 157 has been revised providing for heavier penalties for those who have given false statements in a notarial deed. A sentence of imprisonment for a period not longer than 2 years or a fine not more than 100 yen has been considered too light; and it was revised to an imprisonment not longer than 5 years or a fine not more than 1,000 yen.

(7) Penalties to be imposed on both parties in the case of a bribery have been made heavier by the complete revision of Articles 197 and 198. The strict discipline of government officials for ensuring honest discharge of their duty is always of paramount importance, and it is specially so during the present emergency when the national

economy is being transformed from a free economy to a thoroughly controlled or planned economy.

Revision of the Public Peace Preservation Law

The existing Public Peace Preservation Law was first enacted in 1925 with the purpose of ruling over radical thought movement, and was partly revised in 1928. It consists of only 7 articles and limits the extent of penalties to the organization of secret societies and their activities, or any acts of individuals, with the purpose of changing the national constitution or altering the private property system.

The revised Public Peace Preservation Law which was promulgated on March 10, 1941, consists of 3 chapters and 23 articles; the first chapter defines the persons and extent of penalties which are to come under the purview of the law; the second chapter provides for special criminal procedure different from the general criminal procedure, and the third chapter provides for the preventive custody of suspected persons. It is not, therefore, a mere revision but the introduction of a new legislation.

The definition of activities of offenders who aim at changing the national constitution is further enlarged, while religious bodies which step out of their normal field of activity and deny the national constitution, or blaspheme the sanctity of the Grand Shrine of Ise or the Imperial House, are newly included in Chapter I. The definition of acts of those offenders who work against the private property system has been revised.

In regard to the penalties to be meted out against the criminals who come under the purview of the present law, imprisonment has been abrogated and replaced by penal servitude for all convicts and the terms are lengthened, provisions being made for death penalty, penal servitude for life or more than 7 years for the officials and leaders of secret societies, and penal servitude for more than 3 years for other members.

Article 2 provides for death penalty, penal servitude for life or more than 5 years for organizers or leaders of secret bodies whose aim is to support the secret societies for changing the national constitution, and penal servitude for more than 2 years for members of such bodies. It has been found to

be a general practice for several private bodies to be affiliated with the regular communistic societies to which they supplied men and money and when the members of such societies are arrested in a mass raid these tributary bodies supplied new members and aid for the rebuilding of the societies, or to carry on propaganda among the masses. The Article purports to dry up such tributary bodies.

Article 3 provides for the imposition of similar penalties on those who have led men or worked for the organization of secret societies to change the national constitution, in order to nip such societies in the bud.

Article 4 provides for the imposition of penal servitude for life or for more than 2 years on the organizers or leaders of any group, which has not yet developed into a society, working for the overthrow of the national constitution, and the imposition of penal servitude for more than one year on those who have entered or worked for such body, in view of the fact that the recent movement of radical thinkers began to take the form of small units or groups.

Article 5 provides for the punishment of any individual who has worked in any manner for the purpose of changing the national constitution. The existing Peace Preservation Law provides punishment, so far as individuals are concerned, for only those who have provoked, agitated or incited others to criminal action for the purpose of changing the national constitution. But there are other innumerable shrewd methods employed by such persons for executing their radical plans. The revised article provides penalties for all such offenders, the term of punishment ranging from one year to 10 years of penal servitude.

Articles 7 and 8 provide for the punishment of vicious semi-religious bodies. Any religious body which preaches doctrines detrimental to the same conception of the national constitution must be severely punished. Such pseudo-religious bodies aim at a revolution of the national constitution or social order, rather than the spiritual salvation of their followers; in other words, such spurious bodies try to incite their believers to political and social agitation in the guise of religious fervor. The existing Peace Preservation Law which has only social and political movements as objects of con-

trol has been unable to bring to book such so-called religious bodies. The said Articles, therefore, provide for the imposition of penal servitude for life or for more than 4 years on the organizers, officials or leaders of the societies whose aim is to propagate ideas detrimental to the national constitution or blasphemous to the dignity of the Grand Shrines of Ise or the Imperial House, and the imposition of a penal servitude for more than one year on those who have entered such bodies or worked in promoting their aims, similar penal servitude being provided for those who have organized or led groups of men or members and workers thereof for similar purposes.

Special Criminal Procedure Chapter II includes special rules of criminal procedure different from the rules in the common Criminal Procedure. The main points of the new rules are as follows: (1) the public prosecutors are invested with much greater power than usual in arresting, examining, etc. in handling the suspects; (2) the trial in the law court follows the two instance system, omitting the appeal to the Courts of Appeal, but allowing the appeal to the Supreme Court in order to ensure the justice of the final decision; (3) the lawyers are to be designated by the Justice Minister, their number being limited to only two for a defender; and (4) the transfer of the case from one district court to another is allowed when deemed necessary by the competent public prosecutor.

In the case of thought offenses, the crime is attempted secretly and systematically with a great number of associates, and the search of related persons and the grasp of facts are extremely difficult. The power of the public prosecutors, therefore, has to be augmented in order to enable them to take quick actions, while the trial must be speeded up, limiting the number of lawyers for the defenders so as not to make the procedure unnecessarily complicated and prolonged.

Preventive Custody The preventive custody system has been newly instituted by the provisions in Chapter III for keeping the ex-convicts from the society as long as they do not change their thought. The main points are: (1) the persons who shall be kept in custody are the ex-convicts who are first released from prisons or those who are put under the care of the Protec-

tion and Surveillance Commission, and do not change their mind; (2) they are to be kept in custody by the request of the public prosecutor and the decision of the competent law court; (3) the usual duration of custody is two years, but it may be extended for any number of years if necessary; (4) release from preventive custody may be made by the disposition of the competent administrative office at any time when deemed unnecessary; and (5) the request for keeping a person in preventive custody, extension of the term or release shall be made after consultation with the Preventive Custody Commission.

Treatment of Juvenile Offenders

It was in the code promulgated in 1880, that the treatment of juvenile offenders was, for the first time, definitely regulated. At that time, a house of correction was an institution where children entrusted to it by private individuals, deaf and dumb children as well as juveniles committed by the courts were detained and trained.

The first house of correction which was independent of the ordinary prison was the Sumoto House of Correction, on the Island of Awaji, Hyogo prefecture. Other houses of correction were established within the precinct of prison, under the management of the prison staff. The experimental reformatory established in 1885 and the Naritasan Reformatory, opened in 1886, were outstanding. It was not, however, until 1900, that the Reformatory Act was passed. This Act provided that every prefecture should establish its own reformatory (Kanka-in), which should be under the direct supervision of the prefectural government. At the same time, the system of supplementary reformatories was regulated.

In 1907, the present Criminal Code was promulgated. By the new code, the system of detention in the House of Correction, prescribed in the Criminal Code of 1880, was abolished.

Under the new code, the courts in the larger cities usually appointed judges and prosecutors especially qualified for such work to take charge of cases in which juveniles were involved. In 1908, the Ministry of Justice issued an order to all procurators, to the effect that wherever it was considered necessary, juveniles under the age of fourteen, who are not amenable to law, should be committed to prefectural reforma-

tories. At the same time, the Home Ministry instructed prefectural governments to receive such juveniles into their institutions. In 1917, by an Imperial Ordinance, sanctioning the establishment of national reformatories, the central government assumed its share in the care of juvenile offenders. In 1920, after several years of discussion, a special committee appointed by the Ministry of Justice completed a draft of a Juvenile Act, which passed the Diet in 1922, was promulgated on April 17, 1922, and came into effect on January 1, 1923.

A draft of the Act concerning the House of Correction (Kyūseido), prepared by the same committee, passed the Diet and came into effect at the same time.

The Act stipulates that persons under 18 years of age shall be regarded as juveniles, though those under 14 are not amenable to law, except when they are sent to the Juvenile Courts by prefectural governors.

Juvenile Courts Juvenile courts were established in Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya and Fukuoka. These cities were selected as centers for respective districts because they have the largest number of juvenile offenders and those needing protection.

The Juvenile Courts are special organs with an organization entirely different from that of other courts. Their personnel consists of judges, probation officers and clerks. The system of Juvenile Courts falls under the supervision of the Minister of Justice, and their establishment, abolition and jurisdiction are regulated by Imperial Ordinance. The Minister of Justice has the authority to order the presidents of Courts of Appeal or District Courts to supervise all Juvenile Courts.

In the Juvenile Court, a single judge hears the trial. The judge supervises the work of his subordinates. If two or more judges are assigned to the same court, the one holding the highest rank exercises this power. A judge may simultaneously hold a position in the Juvenile Court and in an ordinary court, if he is qualified for the position.

Probation officers are either officials appointed by the Government or private individuals commissioned by the Minister of Justice. The former are officials appointed because of their special knowledge and experience in dealing with juveniles. The latter are

selected from voluntary probation workers who have experience in dealing with juveniles. The probation officers assist the judges by providing material used at trials, or by assisting in the supervision of juveniles. They also have the power to summon juveniles before the court, by order of the court.

Court Procedure Cases to be tried by the Juvenile Court are brought through various channels, such as notification, recognition by the Court, transfer by the prosecutor, transference by the ordinary court, commitment by the prefectural governor, or transfer of a case from one Juvenile Court to another.

When a case is brought before the Juvenile Court, the judge makes a preliminary investigation and decides whether to proceed with the case or not. He may order the probation officer to gather materials to help him in this decision. If the case is to be proceeded with the court shall investigate the nature of the case, the character, environment, past record, physical and mental condition, degree of education, etc. of the juvenile, together with his family circumstances and the status and fitness of the guardian. These investigations are to be made principally by the probation officer, and for this purpose, he interviews the juvenile and his guardian in the court or in the juvenile's home. The members of the household of the juvenile, his employer, his former employer, his teacher, his acquaintances and the injured party in the case may also be interviewed or asked to give information in writing. The probation officer then reports to the judge upon the information obtained, and makes whatever suggestion he considers best regarding suitable protective measures in the case. If possible, the court has the juvenile examined as to his physical and mental condition. The court may also order the guardian of the juvenile to investigate the facts in the case, or may entrust the investigation to a protective institution.

The Juvenile Court may summon any person or persons to appear before the court to give evidence, which is considered necessary for the investigation. The court may also order the probation officer to present himself with the juvenile before the court at any time, and, if necessary, it may adopt one or more of the provisional protective measures mentioned above during the period of

the investigation.

In March 1928, branches of the House of Correction were opened adjacent to each Juvenile Court for the purpose of detaining juveniles who have to be supervised during the period of investigation. This provisional protective measure may, at any time be altered or abolished, and if the Court decides that a trial shall not be proceeded with, it is, of course, cancelled. As this is very important to the juvenile, the Court is obliged to inform the guardian whenever such measures are ordered or changed in any way.

Trial and Decision If, after investigation, the Court decides that a case shall be proceeded with, it sets the time for the trial. The Court may, at its own volition, nominate a counsel for the juvenile, if it is considered necessary. The juvenile, his guardian or the protective institution concerned may nominate a counsel, subject to the permission of the Court. Such counsel is chosen from among lawyers, persons engaged in the protection of juveniles, or any other persons whom the court may permit to be chosen.

On the day of the trial, the juvenile, his guardian and counsel are summoned, but the guardian need not be summoned, when the Court considers it unnecessary. For the sake of the juvenile's reputation, the trial is not open to the public, but the Court may permit relatives of the juvenile, persons engaged in juvenile protection or other interested persons to attend the trial. The probation officer, guardian and counsel may express their opinion at the trial; during the statement of which opinions, the Court may order the juvenile to retire, when there is no reason for his presence.

When the trial is completed, the Court renders its final decision. If the Court considers that the juvenile should be tried before the ordinary court, it refers the case to the prosecutor of a competent court. When, in the case of a juvenile who has previously been referred to the Juvenile Court by an ordinary court or a prosecutor, new facts are discovered by the Juvenile Court making it necessary to refer such juvenile back to an ordinary court, this may be done upon consultation with a prosecutor of a competent court. With the exception of such rare cases, however, the Court if protective measures are deemed advisable, orders such measures to be applied to the juvenile. The judge

may select one or more of the following 9 protective measures: (1) to give admonitions, (2) to leave them to the guidance of school principals, (3) to let them solemnly declare their sincere repentance in a written statement, (4) to place them, under certain conditions, in the care of their parents, (5) to place them under the care of temples, churches, protective bodies or other proper persons, (6) to hand them over to the care of the juvenile probation officers, (7) to send them to reformatories, (8) to send them to houses of correction, and (9) to put them under proper treatment in hospitals. When juveniles are admitted to probation or provisional release they are not put under police supervision as is the case with the adults, but are left to the care of the juvenile probation officers. After the juveniles are placed by the Juvenile Court, the probation officers visit them and exercise supervision over them by means of reports submitted by the institutions or individuals with whom the juveniles are placed. They then make monthly reports to the Court. Though the maximum age of juveniles is 18 years, those committed, entrusted or being supervised may continue under the supervision of the Court until they reach the age of 23 years, during which time the Court may at any time cancel or alter its decision regarding said juveniles.

Special Penal Measures Special measures for the punishment of juvenile offenders are:

(1) The death penalty or penal ser-

vitute for life is not inflicted upon a person who is under 16 when the crime is committed. When the crime is so grave the death penalty or penal servitude for life should be passed, the sentence is mitigated to penal servitude or imprisonment for 10-15 years.

(2) When a juvenile criminal should be sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment for more than three years at its maximum, the minimum and the maximum limits are fixed within the scope of the penalty to be inflicted on the crime committed. And when he should be sentenced to imprisonment for more than 5 years at its minimum, the term is diminished to 5 years. That is to say, in case of a juvenile convict an indeterminate sentence is admitted.

(3) Juveniles sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment are put in a special jail or in a section of the common prison secluded from adults. If they reach the age of 18 during the term of confinement they may still be kept secluded till they reach the age of 23.

(4) Juveniles sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment can obtain provisional release (a) after 7 years in case of a life-term sentence, (b) after 3 years in case of (1) above mentioned, (c) after serving one-third of the time in case of (2) above.

(5) Juveniles are not sent to work houses.

Statistics

The following are the statistics relevant to the judiciary of the country:

NUMBER OF COURTS (October 1, 1941)

	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	District Courts	Branch Courts	Local Courts	Branch Offices
	1		12	17	64	419
		Tokyo				
		Osaka	9	12	43	282
		Nagoya	6	9	30	208
		Hiroshima	6	13	36	257
		Nagasaki	8	17	53	293
		Miyagi	6	16	36	234
		Sapporo	5	3	21	104
Total	1	7	52	87	283	1,797

FIXED NUMBER OF JUDGES AND PROCURATORS

(November 25, 1941)

Courts	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	Local and District Court
Presidents	1	7	52
Divisional heads	8	32	—
Judges	38	90	1,373

Courts	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	Local and District Court
Prosecutor's Office			
Prosecutor-General or heads	1	7	51
Prosecutors	14	39	691
Courts			
Judges	1,541		
Prosecutors	734		
Judges and prosecutors in reserve	39		
Probationers	240		
		Courts of Appeal	Local and District Court
		Interpreters	2
		Secretaries	5,547
		Attendants	59
		Employees	5,096
		Total	13,325

NUMBER OF CIVIL CASES HANDLED AT COURTS IN 1940

Courts	Total	New	Settled
Local Courts	665,432	622,817	625,330
District Courts	89,807	63,955	63,597
Courts of Appeal	7,901	3,644	3,793
The Supreme Court	2,119	3,280	2,468
Total	766,423	692,535	695,189
1939	866,639	783,197	792,723
1938	1,043,738	947,984	960,264
1937	1,198,478	1,098,664	1,102,689
1936	1,364,841	1,259,440	1,264,987

NUMBER OF CRIMINAL CASES HANDLED IN 1935-1939

	No. of the Accused	Preliminary Examinations	Cases of First Instance	Cases of Second Instance	Cases of Third Instance
1935	524,358	6,920	121,084	8,278	2,364
1936	505,500	7,100	124,494	10,424	4,123
1937	452,025	5,841	117,038	8,772	3,665
1938	429,059	4,617	108,173	4,915	4,307
1939	375,190	4,275	34,017	4,608	1,580

CRIMINALS SENTENCED IN THE FIRST INSTANCE, JAPAN PROPER

	Total	Penal Servitude			Imprisonment		Monetary Penalties	Custody	Fines
		Death Penalty	For Life	For Limited Terms	For Life	For Limited Terms			
1935	121,662	31	51	42,335	—	116	69,905	—	9,224
1936	120,871	19	37	41,413	—	86	70,856	—	8,460
1937	170,883	31	37	38,527	—	117	63,268	1	8,902
1938	155,863	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1939	147,244	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

JUVENILE COURTS

(October 1, 1941)

Courts	5	Probation officers	36
Judges	17	Secretaries	39

Number of New Cases

	Cases brought in	Unproceeded	Placed under protection		Cases brought in	Unproceeded	Placed under protection
1935	21,802	14,327	6,526	1936	21,704	13,668	7,023
Boys				Boys			
Girls	1,675	937	632	Girls	1,468	676	659

		Cases brought in	Placed under protection		1939		Cases brought in	Placed under protection	
			Unpro-ceeded	7,881				Unpro-ceeded	8,363
1937	Boys	19,963	11,516	7,881	1939	Boys	21,537	12,532	8,363
	Girls	1,453	662	745		Girls	1,465	651	747
1938	Boys	24,690	15,784	8,327	1940	Boys	20,802	10,649	9,325
"	Girls	1,668	859	737	"	Girls	1,579	632	563

Results of Protection

(Reports right after the release)

	Year	Number of the released	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Report
					unobtainable
Under Protection bodies and individuals	1936	1,228	754	66	408
	1937	1,282	762	78	442
	1938	1,285	702	80	503
	1939	1,290	742	59	486
	1940	1,289	746	49	503
Under probation officers	1936	1,096	802	62	232
	1937	1,250	924	70	256
	1938	1,441	1,052	55	334
	1939	1,335	904	95	336
	1940	1,386	963	71	352

STATE CORRECTION HOUSES

(October 1, 1941)

Correction houses	5	Secretaries	19
Instructors	35	Assistants	62
Physicians	5	Employees	19

Number of Juveniles Cared For
(Inclusive of temporary cases)

Year	Received	Sent out	Year	Received	Sent out
1935	1,626	1,255	1938	2,134	1,680
1936	1,651	1,264	1939	1,753	1,732
1937	1,845	1,446	1940	1,545	1,004

Results of Correction

(Exclusive of temporary cases)

Year	Old	New	Sent out as corrected	Sent out by other reasons	Remaining (at the end of the year)
1935	317	215	167	21	344
1936	344	195	150	21	368
1937	368	201	174	24	371
1938	371	301	204	28	440
1939	440	254	205	17	472
1940	472	217	235	27	431

PROTECTION AND SURVEILLANCE STATIONS FOR
THOUGHT OFFENDERS

(October 1, 1941)

Stations	22	Protecting officials	41
Station-masters	22	Secretaries	39
Gulding officials	11	Employees	50

Number of Persons Placed
(During November 1936—June 1939)

Total number of persons placed under protection and surveillance	Men		Women	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
			280	16
			65	2
The released	3,733	212	2,790	161
	878	49		

PRISON SYSTEM

Historical Background

A short historical retrospect of our penal system will show that it is only in comparatively modern times that "Imprisonment" became the recognized method for the punishment of crime.

Up till recent times the idea at the root of the Japanese penal system was mnatory. In other words, the so-called principle of general prevention by warning the people at large against the commission of crimes by imposing heavy punishments upon criminals was adopted. Accordingly, the punishments were principally capital and corporal and extremely cruel in character. For instance, the Criminal Code of the Yédo Period (1602-1887) recognized the exposing in public of the heads of persons executed; crucifying, burning at the stake and other similar cruel punishments were imposed. In those days the jails were used merely as places of detention for various offenders until their trial, not as places for reforming offenders. Imprisonment was a very unusual form of punishment, for prisons were unknown and imprisonment was not a legal penalty.

Exile and Banishment Punishments which brought loss of liberty for specified periods to the criminal were exile and banishment. Persons punished with exile were sent to distant islands and places such as Satsuma, islands of the Goto group, Oki, Iki and Amakusa, and there they were forced to work under such miserable conditions that most of them died of starvation. Banishment was a penalty designed to expel persons convicted of crimes from certain fixed areas, and, as the result of the enforcement of this punishment in certain districts industries declined and farms and fields lay waste, giving rise to many social evils such as the increase in the number of ronin (masterless samurai), mushukumono (vagabonds) and other dangerous elements. In 1778, therefore, as a remedial measure, the Tokugawa Shogun-

ate instituted the system of kozan-yékifu (mine labor) and, in 1790, that of ninsokuyoseba (places for the detention of convict-coolies). The system of kozan-yékifu dealt with vagabonds with no previous convictions. These were sent as coolies to pump water out of the Sado gold-mine. In and after 1788, those who had been punished by flogging or branded as ex-convicts by tattoo marks and were homeless or those who, it was feared, might perpetrate crimes in the future were also sent there.

Prototype of Present Prisons The ninsoku-yoseba were to all intents and purposes the prototype of present day prisons and penal servitude. These places for the detention of convict-coolies were located at Ishikawajima and Tsukudajima in Yédo (Tokyo) and at Kamigo, Ibaraki prefecture, and there vagabonds and those who had been punished by flogging or branded as ex-convicts by tattoo marks were detailed to work as oil pressers or at other kinds of labor for a fixed wage, with the ulterior object of giving them such instruction and training as would fit them to lead the lives of respectable members of society. In and after 1820 those who were punished with banishment heavier than that from the confines of Yédo were put to forced labor for a fixed period of time in lieu of that punishment. Thus the ninsoku-yoseba, which had been instituted as workhouses for vagabonds, were turned into prisons for the reclamation of criminals through ordered life and labor. In its correctional idea ninsoku-yoseba was entirely identical with the London "Bridewell," which was established in England in 1550 "to punish, correct, and reform by labor of a diversified nature," and the Amsterdam workhouse (tuchthuis) founded at the end of the 18th century and well known for its motto, "Schriek niet! Ick wreeck geen quaet, maer dwing tot goedt, straf ist myn handt, mar liefljck myn gemoedt." (Do not fear! I will not

take revenge upon you for your misdeed; on the contrary, I wish to lead you to good. Although I am rigorous in handling you, my heart is filled with kindness towards you.) In and after 1790 the prisoners detained in the ninsokuyoseba who behaved well and showed notable signs of penitence were liberated on certain conditions and this may be taken as the enforcement of provisional release of prisoners for the first time in Japan. When it is remembered that the system of provisional release of prisoners in Europe originated in a favored release of prisoners from a convicts' colony in Australia in 1791, it is an interesting coincidence that the same system was inaugurated simultaneously both in the West and the East.

Improvement of 1872 In 1871, with a view to carrying out a great improvement in our prison system, the Emperor Meiji despatched the Vice-Director of Prisons, Mr. Jinsai Obara, to Hong Kong and Singapore to inspect and study the prison systems there, and, as a result, the Prison Regulations, the first written law concerning prisons in Japan, were promulgated in 1872. According to the provisions of these regulations, the reclamation and education of the inmates of prisons should be based on love and benevolence. At the beginning of the Regulations, it is stated: "Prison is a place for the incarceration of criminals for chastisement. They are placed there because of love and benevolence towards them and not because of any desire to inflict cruelty upon them; prison is intended for chastising them and not for subjecting them to hardships. Punishment is imposed on them because it is unavoidable and because it is a means of removing evil from the State. The authorities of prisons shall conscientiously observe this principle in treating prisoners." The Regulations were framed on a progressive system and on very advanced lines, but subsequently their operation was suspended for a time, and, in 1881, the Revised Prison Regulations were published. The Regulations were again revised in 1889, and with the revision of the Criminal Code in 1907 the existing Prison Law was enacted and published the following year.

Management of Prisons

Prisons are placed under the control of the Minister of Justice. Prior to 1900 they were under the control of the Minister of Home Affairs, but since that year

they have come under the supervision of the Minister of Justice. With the transfer of affairs relating to prisons from the Ministry of Home Affairs to the Ministry of Justice, the Bureau of Prisons was established in the latter Ministry for the administration of matters concerning the execution of sentences, prisons, provisional releases of prisoners, and the identification of criminals by fingerprints.

Prison superintendents are appointed from among officials ranking as governors and assistant-governors by the Minister of Justice, and branch-prison the task of directing and supervising governors from among assistant governors and chief wardens.

Classification

In the Japanese prison system there are four kinds of prisons: (1) prisons for those sentenced to penal servitude; (2) prisons for those sentenced to imprisonment; (3) houses of detention for persons destined to spend time in detention, and (4) prisons of confinement for (a) those sentenced to death, (b) those awaiting trial. In view of the different characters of these prisons, they should, in principle, be established independently of one another, and, in the case of their being erected in the same area, they are usually separated. At present, workhouses are not classified as prisons, but are attached to prisons for the sake of convenience.

Treatment of Prisoners

Object of Treatment As to what is the primary and fundamental purpose of punishment by imprisonment, nothing is stated in the Criminal Code or in the Prison Law now in force. But Japanese juridical authorities have for more than ten years endeavored to reform prisons.

Classification System Inasmuch as punishment by the restriction of personal liberty is enforced today principally with a view to education, criminals are properly classified according to ages, characteristics, terms of imprisonment, numbers and kinds of offenses, and are then confined in different prisons so as to facilitate the enforcement of adequate measures for their education in accordance with their categories and, further, to prevent prisons from becoming breeding-places of crime through mutual contact and contagion as the result of promiscuous con-

finement of all grades. When it is impossible to distribute them among independent prisons and they are confined in the same area, prisoners are usually classified strictly, and confined separately, according to their categories. There are prisons for minors at Odawara, Kawagoé, Himéji, Okazaki, Iwakoni, Kurumé, Morioka, and Hachioji, and in Hokkaido for the confinement of those under 18 years of age sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment, prisons for aged persons at Hamamatsu and Yonago and for women at Tochigi, Miyoshi and Miyazu. Further, there are prisons for the confinement of persons sentenced to terms of imprisonment exceeding 10 years at Kosugé, Takamatsu, Hiroshima, Okayama, Miyagi, and Abashiri; the Abashiri agricultural prison is intended for training prisoners as agricultural laborers. At Uraga, located in an old warship anchored off the port, is a branch of the Odawara prison for minors. There juvenile offenders are given training as fishermen, and sometimes engage in coastal and deep-sea fishing-vessels or steamers.

In addition to the above-mentioned classified confinement, with a view to proper individualized treatment, they are examined by doctors, alienists, psychologists and educationalists to find out their psychopathic idiosyncrasies, hereditary natures, physiological peculiarities, adaptabilities to occupations, educational possibilities, etc. in different prisons previous to their confinement. Further, a "social diagnosis" is made by collecting reports on them from city, town and village offices, police stations, schools, and organizations devoted to their protection in order that they may be suitably classified for treatment.

Progressive System A treatment on the progressive system is accorded to convicts who form the bulk of the inmates of prisons. This treatment aims at leading them to repent and their treatment is graded in proportion to their aspiration and diligence, thereby gradually bringing them to the conditions of ordinary social life. Any prisoner committed for the first time is kept in solitary confinement for a certain period of time and a close study is made of him. On the basis of the results he is classified according to character, physical and mental condition, number of convictions, age, nature of crimes, term of service, home, health and thought.

The Four Stages The stages of the progressive treatment are: (1) those under investigation; (2) those in course of correction and training; (3) those in process of improvement; and (4) those who have developed a sense of responsibility. After being subjected to a study of character, convicts are received into the first class to begin with. Those who are accorded this treatment are given fixed marks according to their terms of imprisonment and promotion to higher classes is given only when a sufficient number of marks have been earned by diligence, good conduct, and growth of the sense of responsibility and of the will for self-improvement. Those belonging to the first and second classes are kept in confinement in association, while those belonging to the third class are kept in confinement in association in the day time, but in solitary confinement at night, those belonging to the fourth class are confined in a special room.

The Treatment Governors of prisons may cause convicts in each workshop to elect some from among them to keep the workshop in good order and look after other necessary matters. The elected ones must be popular, trustworthy and belong to the third class. Prisoners belonging to the third class must jointly, once a month, carry out the work of cleaning and sweeping the prison grounds and keeping them in order. Except in cases of special need, prisoners belonging to the fourth class do not undergo physical examination or have their cells searched, and, further, are permitted to talk with one another so long as it does not interfere with the maintenance of discipline. They are also permitted to elect two representatives that they may express their desires to the authorities. These representatives are nominated by the governor of the prison concerned from among several candidates elected by prisoners belonging to the fourth class. Prisoners of the fourth class may be permitted to take walks in a place designated for that purpose in the prison grounds in hours of recess, or hold meetings, take walks in a group, or hold athletic meetings on days free from labor. They give a pledge to the governor, holding themselves responsible for the physical examination of those of their own class, for the search of their cells and keeping them in order, and

the maintenance of order among themselves. Should any one of them violate the pledge, the privileged treatment will be suspended for some or all of them. Any one of those belonging to the first class who earns more than ¥5.00 of labor may be permitted to use less than one-fifth of the monthly total in buying postage stamps and in other ways that are deemed necessary; any one of those belonging to the second class, less than one-fourth of the monthly total; any one of those belonging to the third class, less than one-third of the monthly total; and any one of those belonging to the fourth class, less than one-half of the monthly total. While those of the first class are not permitted to change the kinds of labor they engage in, those of the second class and up are permitted to do so. Those who have superior skill or high efficiency and belong to the third class are charged with the task of directing industrial work and those who are similarly qualified in the fourth class are given the task of directing and supervising it. Those of the third class who have particularly superior skill and high efficiency are permitted to work for their own profit outside of working hours, but such free time is limited to two hours per day.

Moral Education Prisoners belonging to the first and fourth classes are chiefly given individual moral and religious instruction, while those belonging to the second and third classes receive the same instruction en masse. Listening to music broadcast on the radio and listening to the playing of gramophone records is permitted to those belonging to the second and higher classes. The time for the enjoyment of this privilege is fixed at twice a month for those belonging to the second class, which may be increased to three times and four times for those belonging to the third and fourth classes respectively. The governor may permit members of the third and fourth classes to hold moral cultural meetings, the number of times being limited to once for those belonging to the third class and twice for those belonging to the fourth. Prisoners of the fourth class are permitted to read books or see pictures in the prison library on days free from labor, and may also borrow suitable newspapers and magazines from it. Those of the third and fourth classes may be permitted to play athletic games,

the number of times for such amusements being limited to once a month for those of the third and twice for those of the fourth class. While those belonging to the first class are permitted to interview or send letters only to their relatives and those who are concerned with their protection, those belonging to the second and higher classes are permitted to interview or send letters to those who do not interfere with their moral instruction, besides their relatives. The number of interviews and the number of letters that may be written increase in proportion to advances in class.

Provisions, drinks and other articles for the maintenance of the health of prisoners are uniform and do not differ according to classes. Those belonging to the fourth class are given white garments, are permitted to decorate their cells with flowers or pictures, and are lent table-ware and other sundry articles for common use.

Suspension of Progress In case any prisoner violates the prison regulations, the treatment on the progressive system may be suspended for up to a period of 3 months, but in case it is recognized that there are certain circumstances which have to be taken into consideration before the suspension or in case the prisoner shows signs of sincere penitence the enforcement of the sentence of suspension may be postponed for a fixed period of time. If he further violates the prison regulations during that period, the sentence of suspension will be enforced, but if he passes the said period without any further violation it will not be carried out. Further, in case a prisoner shows marked signs of penitence after the sentence has been delivered, this will be taken into consideration and the sentence repealed in full or in part. In case a prisoner who has been punished with suspension of the treatment again violates the prison regulations, he may be transferred to a lower class according to the circumstances of the case. When a prisoner who has been punished with such degradation shows marked signs of penitence he will be restored to his former category without reckoning his marks.

When any person of the fourth class has served one-third of his term of imprisonment and the prison governor considers him fit for provisional release his case should be reported to the Minister of Justice. Even any

who belongs to lower classes and who has served one-third of his term and shows notable signs of penitence and is considered to be fully adapted to social life may be specifically granted provisional release, subject to the approval of the conference for provisional treatment on the progressive system.

Prison Labor

Paragraph 2 of the Japanese Criminal Code provides: "Any convict sentenced to penal servitude shall be detained in a prison and subjected to a fixed amount of labor." This "fixed amount of labor" constitutes prison labor. It is not legally imposed on convicts punished with imprisonment or custody, but its imposition is permitted in case they desire it. Since the institution of the *rusoku-yoseba* at Ishikawajima hard labor has been recognized as an essential part of the discipline of prisoners, and present-day criminal theory in Japan is opposed to punishment by the restriction of personal liberty without the imposition of hard labor. Accordingly, prison authorities are encouraging industrial work at their own request by prisoners punished with imprisonment or custody.

The Three Systems Industrial work in prisons is managed on three systems, viz: the public account system, the "made-to-order" system, and the contract system. Under the public account system, a prison itself purchases materials, provides itself with the necessary machinery, implements and tools and makes prisoners manufacture or repair articles or carry on labor under the direction of prison officials, and sells the products. Under the "made-to-order" system, the chief materials are supplied by the outside buyers and prisoners either manufacture or repair articles under the direction of industrial work experts and assistant industrial work experts on the prison staff, and when the articles are either manufactured or repaired the wages of the workers and the cost of requisites in the manufacture or repair are calculated and the prices of the articles fixed by the standard of current prices. The articles are then delivered to the buyers on payment of the account. Under the contract system, applicants have to supply not only materials, machinery, implements and tools, but also experts for the direction of work, a prison only offering the labor of prisoners and re-

ceiving their wages in exchange. Under the contract system now in force in Japan, the prison authorities undertake the supply of provisions, etc. to prisoners, as well as undertaking their supervision and selection for work, and nothing like the lease system that was in vogue in South American countries at one time is recognized.

Among the above-mentioned three different systems, the public account system does not permit any third party other than prison officials to direct prisoners in the prosecution of their work as in the case of the contract system and, moreover, enables the prison authorities to select and impose on prisoners such kinds of work as are suited for their moral instruction and vocational education. In these respects, it is considered to be the most desirable for the enforcement of penological measures and its adoption is greatly encouraged.

Training for Occupations In imposing work on prisoners, the most suitable kinds of work are given them not only by taking into consideration health, economy, terms of imprisonment, ability, occupations in free life, and future means of livelihood, but also by scientifically examining their individual adaptabilities to occupations. Industrial work in prisons is the most suitable means of giving moral instruction to prisoners; in particular, training them in certain lines of work in the course of detention is the best way to prevent them from perpetrating crimes once again. Since 1920, therefore, houses for the training of prisoners for occupations have been erected in different prisons throughout the country and there prisoners have been trained for occupations requiring special skill, such as those of carpenters, joiners, furniture-makers, tin-smiths, plasterers, timber-mill workers, painters, smiths, shoemakers, etc. The term of training is 6 months, during which fundamental theories and practice are taught.

Rewards Given as Favors Working hours are from 12 to 13 hours a day and differ according to months. It is permitted to give educational or moral instruction to prisoners or allow them to take exercise within these hours. A time of recess—15 minutes in the morning and 25 minutes in the afternoon—is given them. All the income from the work of prisoners goes into the national treasury, irrespective of whether

It arises from work or from wages. A prisoner who has worked may receive a reward as a favor. This gratuity varies from ¥0.50 to ¥10.00 per month and the sums are fixed according to conduct, character, kinds of work, and the results of the work done. Anyone who does particularly superior work is given an additional reward not exceeding ¥10.00. The reward for his work is, in principle, not given to a prisoner until he is released from prison, but (1) in case a prisoner is entitled to ¥10.00 a month or more, and the money is needed to support his father, mother, wife, child, or to compensate the suffering from his crime, or to purchase books or other necessary articles, one-third of the amount may be given him while in confinement, and (2) in case it is particularly necessary to do so for the sake of a prisoner, the entire reward may be handed over to him, irrespective of its amount and the way of spending it. In case a prisoner has been injured or has fallen sick while at work, and has died in consequence or has become unable to carry on any work, he may be entitled to a pecuniary reward according to the circumstances of the case. This reward is fixed within the limit of from ¥50 to ¥150 according to the details of the case.

The Hito Prisoners are given moral instruction en masse on national holidays, on the first two days of January and the 31st of December, or on Sundays. The same instruction is also given prisoners individually in case it is deemed necessary. It is chiefly given by chaplains appointed from among priests of the Shinshu sect. Adult prisoners who are uneducated and those under age receive an elementary school education. The latter are also given military training, which gives very satisfactory results in the way of moral instruction. Prisoners are permitted to read books and look at maps and pictures, unless it is injurious to the good order of the prison, but writings concerning current topics are forbidden. As, however, it is needful to keep them acquainted with changes in the condition of society, lest they should fall behind the times, a specially edited newspaper, "Hito," (Man) is issued and distributed among them.

Aid of Discharged Prisoners

Criminals come in general from among the poorer people, and when

they are released from prisons after the completion of their term they are greatly handicapped in entering into gainful occupations or getting positions in shops or offices, being known as "Zenka-mono" or "former criminals," and dealt with as such by society, and it becomes difficult for them to earn a livelihood, so that they are forced into further crimes. For the protection of the discharged prisoners measures have to be employed for giving moral instruction and a knowledge of some useful arts while providing them with necessary funds so that they may establish themselves in some suitable occupation. These works have been entirely left in the hands of volunteer social workers who have made valuable contributions. But the number of establishments for this purpose is insignificant as compared with the number of ex-convicts who are in immediate need of protection and the fund contributed by benevolent persons to these protection houses is too insufficient.

The Organizations Among these organizations, one noted for its systematic constitution and management was the Shutsu-gokunin Hogo Kaisha (Ex-Convicts Protection Co.) established by Mr. Meisen Kinbara in Shizuoka prefecture. In 1907, the Government decided to make an appropriation of ¥10,000 from the national treasury every year for the encouragement of the work and later, in 1912, the sum was increased to ¥30,000. With the development of the work the number of organizations grew and was returned at 211 throughout the country at the end of 1912. In 1913, Baron Hachiroemon Mitsui, head of the House of Mitsui, donated ¥750,000 to the work, and with this money the Hosen-Kai, a foundation, was established for the control of, and extension of help to various organizations interested in the work throughout the country. In 1923 the Ministry of Justice created a Section for the work of protection of ex-prisoners, which supervises the various organizations carrying on this work. In 1925 the Government subsidy was increased to ¥100,000, and since 1923 the Imperial House has made an annual grant to encourage the work, with the result that the work has made steady development, the organizations today number approximately 800.

The Beneficiaries The persons protected by these organizations are not limited to those who have served the

terms of their sentence, but include those who have been provisionally released; those whose prosecution is suspended; those the enforcement of whose sentence is suspended; and those who have been released from punishment for minor offenses; as well as the members of the families of those who are detained in prisons. The method of protection is roughly classified into (a) quarters and protection, (b) indirect protection. Those to whom the method (a) is applied are quartered in places

specially selected by the above-mentioned organizations and are given board, lodging and clothes as well as employment. Those to whom the method (b) is applied are not directly protected, but visits are paid to their fixed places of residence from time to time so as to give them advice and suggestions. Those to whom the method (c) is applied are given only temporary help at the time of liberation from prisons such as providing them with clothes and other necessities and journey money.

PRISON STATISTICS

NUMBER OF PRISONS (October 1, 1941)

Prisons	Branches	Total
53	105	158

FIXED NUMBER OF PRISON OFFICIALS

(October 1, 1941)

Governors	43	Pharmacists	16
Assistant governors	41	Chaplains	149
Chief warders	596	Instructors	37
Chief sub-warders	204	Industrial work experts	19
Juvenile-examiners	3	Assistants, ditto	495
Interpreters	4	Warders	7,576
Doctors	104	Employees	640
Assistant doctors	46	Total	9,973

NUMBER OF PRISONERS KEPT IN PRISON HOUSES AT THE END OF EACH YEAR

	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	Average of the 5 years
Convicts	51,977	49,132	46,686	43,260	38,599	45,931
Criminal defendants	4,675	4,012	3,483	3,662	4,251	4,017
Detained in the House of Labor	462	362	269	169	174	288
Infants	9	6	4	7	5	6
Total	57,123	53,512	50,442	47,098	43,029	50,241
(Women in the total)	919	830	702	741	710	780
Daily average	57,440	56,566	52,581	48,873	43,106	51,513

YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Criminal Code Offenses						
Theft	18,848	19,167	18,204	17,292	14,403	16,008
Gambling and lotteries	1,838	1,920	1,870	1,831	2,046	2,262
Fraud and usurpation	8,097	7,621	7,138	6,443	5,314	4,883
Forgery of documents, negotiable securities and seals or stamps	381	418	344	307	344	227
Injury	1,494	1,303	1,158	966	880	859
Receiving stolen articles	418	474	608	559	479	499
Murder	642	647	608	514	450	398
Burglary	729	731	673	555	477	372
Incendiarism	701	584	501	390	302	221

	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Interference with the execution of official duties	48	31	41	30	19	25
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	25	21	16	14	11	14
Forgery of currency	24	44	24	11	11	1
Abortion	54	34	30	17	21	12
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	287	261	288	253	303	294
House-breaking	249	270	312	504	573	431
Perjury	38	24	34	10	15	5
False accusation	17	22	32	22	6	8
Others	571	573	570	406	346	311
Offenses against Special Laws						
Criminal law of the army and navy	42	71	91	140	179	131
The forest law	30	26	25	16	11	17
The military service law	11	18	21	16	32	21
The mail and telegraphy law	—	1	6	6	11	6
Others	1,034	3,360	2,575	1,074	437	835
Police laws & prefectural laws	5,520	4,143	3,550	2,932	1,710	1,175
Total	41,093	41,764	38,719	34,307	28,380	29,011

**YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS
ACCORDING TO THE TERM OF SERVITUDE**

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Penal Servitude							
Penal servitude for life	64	55	43	34	44	25	25
Over 15 years	45	45	38	33	29	20	17
Less than 15 years	63	38	57	43	36	26	19
Under 10 years	963	816	804	684	607	623	584
" 5 "	2,300	2,154	2,040	1,951	1,947	1,828	1,860
" 3 "	4,046	3,719	3,330	3,490	3,220	2,896	3,429
" 2 "	8,462	7,640	7,638	7,097	6,938	6,211	6,634
" 1 year	13,651	13,472	13,730	12,971	11,846	9,972	9,903
" 6 months	5,306	5,282	5,244	4,881	4,128	3,314	3,008
" 3 "	1,882	1,970	2,925	2,520	1,884	1,560	1,712
Total	36,782	35,191	35,849	33,704	30,679	26,481	27,025
Imprisonment							
For life	—	—	6	1	—	—	—
Over 15 years	—	—	6	—	—	—	—
Less than 15 years	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
Under 14 years	—	—	8	—	—	—	—
" 5 "	—	—	11	4	—	3	3
" 3 "	—	3	4	4	1	2	2
" 2 "	1	2	4	6	4	2	17
" 1 year	4	5	41	61	40	17	14
" 6 months	40	47	319	394	199	49	44
" 3 "	238	313	1,355	968	437	96	113
Total	283	370	1,755	1,438	681	170	186
Detention	4,994	5,518	4,149	3,554	2,932	1,715	1,383
Death penalty	35	14	11	23	15	14	20
Total	42,094	41,093	41,764	38,719	34,307	28,380	29,011

POLICE SYSTEM

Authority Vested in State In Japan police authority is entirely vested in the State and is not delegated to other public bodies. The police are administered

in the name of the Emperor by the Minister of Home Affairs through the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police, in Tokyo prefecture

governors of other prefectures and the Hokkaido procurator. Although nominally under the Governor of Tokyo prefecture, the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police Board in Tokyo takes his orders direct from the Home Minister as the Board has many political responsibilities unknown in other prefectures. The appointment is actually a political one, the ordinary police business being carried out by the Chief of Police. In Hokkaido and other prefectures the highest police official is the Chief of the Police Division. Under the Chiefs of Police are the police superintendents, inspectors, assistant inspectors and policemen. A police superintendent is appointed chief of a police station or secretary of a Police Division, or in Tokyo and Osaka prefectures he may be appointed inspector over several police stations. A police inspector or an assistant police inspector may, in some cases, be appointed chief or secretary of a police station. Policemen are divided into sergeants, indoor and outdoor service men, special service men, and police-detectives.

As mentioned above, police officials carry out judicial functions, and when acting in the capacity of judicial police officials and under the dictates of the public prosecutors they execute warrants of arrest or detention and arrest persons in flagrant offense. They may seize private possessions or search a house by order of a Court of Justice, an examining judge or a public prosecutor, or help a public prosecutor in the investigation of criminal cases.

In Times of Peace and Crisis In times of peace the maintenance of public order rests with the police. Individual policemen wear sabers. Pistols are carried only in special cases though in the police force there are troops of armed constables, while in matters become too serious and on special occasions, the gendarmierie is called on for help. The gendarmierie is a kind of military policeman, but at such times as the police force is too weak to keep public order, a Governor may ask for the aid of the gendarmierie. Moreover, at a time of crisis or extraordinary social disturbance, the army takes the place of the usual police force and acts with an extraordinary and limitless authority. The occasions which may call forth the military power for keeping public order are as follows: (1) when the country or a district is placed under

martial law in times of war, (2) when a district is put under martial law for the maintenance of public order, (3) when the governor asks for the help of the army for subduing social disturbances, and (4) when a Divisional Commander recognizes the need of military power for keeping local order in an emergency in which the request from other authorities is too late.

Police Business

Police business in Japan is many sided, and may be classified into 4 main lines and 24 kinds:

Public Peace (a) supervision of publications. The publication of all kinds of printed matter should be reported and a copy of each must be sent to the authorities. Secret publication is strictly forbidden. A sum of money as guarantee of good faith has to be deposited by the publishers of newspapers or periodicals which deal with political problems. The name of the person responsible for any publication must be printed on the publication. Secret matters which come under the control of the public procurators, the Ministers of the Army and the Navy, and the Minister for Foreign Affairs must not be reported in newspapers or periodicals. The Home Minister may prohibit the publication of a periodical or any other printed matter which he considers detrimental to public welfare and morals.

(b) Supervision and care of public meetings, organization of societies and mass movements. According to the Public Peace Police Law, all public meetings on political questions and some other meetings which come under control of the authorities must be reported to a police-station beforehand. A policeman may be present at such a meeting and may stop a speech or close the meeting. The organization of such associations or societies as may endanger the existing form of Government and system of private property is strictly forbidden. The said P. P. Law inflicts heavy penalties on those who break these regulations.

(c) Supervision of businesses or commercial shops. Most businesses are free, but in some cases some kind of police supervision is necessary in the interests of public welfare, hygiene, prevention of damage, the safety of traffic, social economy and price control. For instance, such shops and businesses

as inns, public baths, employment exchanges for geisha and prostitutes, credit information businesses, barbers, seal or stamp engravers, old clothes dealers, peddlers and stallholders are inspected or taken care of by the police. Pawnshops and curio or second-hand shops are under special regulations and police inspection and supervision is thoroughly practised as many stolen articles find their way into these shops, and lead to excellent results in the arrest of thieves and burglars. Guides, scribes and employment exchanges for profit are also under special regulations and strict supervision. The police business in connection with the State policy for price control began since 1938, and the police force was augmented.

(d) Religion. It is the duty of the police to prevent the desecration of shrines and breaches of the peace in temple grounds. Superstitions and superstitious actions are prohibited by the Police Penal Law.

(e) Accidents. The police take charge in cases of fire, flood, explosion, of people being injured, etc. Regulations are issued on the handling of guns and explosives; the wearing of swords or the like is strictly forbidden; the handling or selling of poison is under a special regulation. Sulphur and oil businesses are under police care also. Buildings are under police supervision for their beauty, fire-proofness, and hygiene; factories, warehouses, theaters, and public resorts receive special attention. Crematories, slaughter-houses and incinerators must not be within residential or commercial districts of cities. Regulations regarding buildings are stricter than in Western countries because of the large number of wooden houses liable to fire and the constant fear of earthquakes. Electricity and gas businesses must not endanger the lives of people. Mines are under a special police regulation as they are most liable to fatal accidents. Prevention of floods also comes into the sphere of police business.

For the prevention and extinction of fires, fire-brigades are established in cities under the control of the Chief of the Police Division in the prefecture. In Tokyo prefecture, a fire division is established in the Metropolitan Police Board and fire-brigade stations are located in different parts of Tokyo. In the larger cities, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Kobe and Nagoya special fire-brigade

stations are established by the State. In the smaller municipalities fire-guilds are established at the expense of local self-governments. The firemen are volunteers and differ from those in the said cities who are officials of the State.

(f) Public morals. The police look after the maintenance of good public manners and morals. Japan has a licensed prostitute system and forbids private prostitution and conniving at it. Through the efforts of Christian and other religious and public bodies and the growth of other means of pleasure, prostitution is growing less, but it is the duty of the police to see that the prostitutes are treated as humanely as possible as long as their term of service exists. All pleasure resorts such as theaters, places of performances, wrestling, movies, etc. are carefully supervised and any obscene or immoral performances prohibited.

Restaurants, dining rooms, bars, cafes and other eating places are under police supervision. The laws for prohibiting liquors and smoking to minors, the prohibition of lotteries, misbehavior in the street or outdoors, and the regulations regarding street advertisements and the erection of monuments must be enforced.

(g) The care of men who are a danger to public peace and welfare. Juveniles who are addicted to bad habits, ticket-of-leave men, the insane, beggars and vagrants are supervised by the police.

(h) Actions which may harm others such as forcing an interview, extorting contributions, blackmail, causing disturbances, obstruction, etc., are forbidden by the Police Penal Law. Deceitful actions, spreading false reports, and the mishandling of dead bodies come under the care of the police. Obstructing officials in pursuit of their duty is strictly forbidden. The care of lost articles, prohibition of deceitful religious actions, the supervision of "meijin-ko" and "tanomoshi-ko" or mutual financing associations come under police power to some extent.

Public Hygiene The problem of the health and hygiene of the people is one of the greatest concerns of the Department of Home Affairs, and in many points the responsibility of looking after such cannot be confined to the police alone, though in its direct management the police have much to do.

(a) Prevention of epidemics. For the prevention of epidemics there are many laws in force, the most important of them being the Epidemic Prevention Law, the Regulation for the Medical Inspection of Aviators, the Seaport Quarantine Law, the Vaccination Law, the Tuberculosis Prevention Law, the Trachoma Prevention Law, the Leprosy Prevention Law, the Venereal Diseases Prevention Law and the Parasites Prevention Law. The water police help in the medical inspection of passengers and goods arriving in vessels from abroad. The annual compulsory cleaning of individual houses and public buildings, drains, wells, dumping grounds, etc. is supervised by the police. When an epidemic breaks out policemen are used to try and confine it to as small an area as possible.

(b) Medical. As the health and welfare of the people depend on proper medical attention, doctors, dentists, midwives, nurses, masseurs and acupuncturists are under special regulations, as also are druggists and pharmacists. Poisonous chemicals are well looked after.

(c) General Health. A law is in force prohibiting the sale of unwholesome food, and utensils for eating, drinking and preparing food are under police supervision.

Traffic Police (a) Road. The police are responsible for safety on the streets. "Walk and drive on the left" is the rule of the road in Japan.

(b) Vehicles. Railroads, electric cars, automobiles, trucks, waggons, rikshas, bicycles, etc. are under police supervision.

(c) Water police. The water police look after foreign-going vessels entering and leaving open ports, navigation in closed ports, rivers and lakes, and the business of steamship companies doing a coastal trade.

(d) Ocean navigation has many international ramifications and though there are countless matters which ought to come under police supervision it is separated from common police business and put under the administration of the Department of Communications.

(e) The aviation police are under the supervision of the Minister of Communications.

(f) Colonial police come under the control of the Minister for Overseas Affairs except in some cases which may

come under the supervision of local governments.

Police and the People

The function of the State, as far as it concerns the economic life of the people is largely protective and administrative and certain laws and ordinances of the State have to be imposed on various businesses in order that the people shall be fully protected. The police work by orders from higher authorities at the request of the Ministers of Agriculture and Forestry, Commerce and Industry, and Finance.

(a) Banks, savings banks, mutual financing associations, negotiable security businesses, trust businesses, insurance businesses, commercial exchanges, the central wholesale markets in the six largest cities, foreign trade business in important articles, weighing and measuring machine businesses, and auditors partially are under police supervision or limitations.

(b) Agriculture is supervised by the police in such matters as the prevention of the spread of noxious insects, the control of plants imported or exported, the fertilizer industry, agricultural warehouses, the sericulture industry and the control of rice imports and exports.

(c) The hygiene and prevention of epidemics among domestic animals is looked after by the police. Many laws are enforced regarding the improvement of animals, and police power is needed to see that the regulations are carried out, especially in connection with horse-racing.

(d) Forestry police mainly prevent damage to the forests.

(e) Fishery police protect the propagation of aquatic animals and at the same time look after the safety of the fishermen. There are many laws and regulations on fisheries, whale-fishing, fishing boats, etc.

(f) The hunting of beasts and birds is limited to those mentioned in the revised Game Laws of 1918, the seasons and districts of hunting are put under police regulation.

(g) For the protection of laborers there are numerous laws in force, for instance, the Factory Law, Laws on the limitation of age of factory or marine workers, the Labor Accident Prevention Law, the Mine Law, and the Ordinance regarding the enlistment of workers. Policemen either help factory or

mine inspectors or directly handle matters mentioned in these laws. Labor movements and disputes call for the use of police power frequently.

POLICE STATISTICS

	1936	1937	1938	1939
Police offices				
Police stations	1,203	1,205	1,206	1,206
Water-police stations	23	17	16	16
Branch stations	4,742	4,704	4,757	?
Police-boxes	14,242	14,209	14,217	14,391
Police officials:				
Divisional directors	52	52	52	52
Police superintendents	351	412	415	434
Police inspectors	1,607	1,675	1,726	1,818
Assistant police inspectors	3,909	4,021	4,269	4,686
Policemen	60,609	63,692	67,133	58,723
Total	66,528	69,852	73,543	75,443
Fire-brigade stations	241	243	244	284
Fire-brigade officials	3,981	17,375	17,539	4,703
Firemen	12,646	—	—	—
Fire-guilds	11,477	11,489	11,516	—
Volunteer firemen	2,139,869	2,149,608	2,141,487	—

CHAPTER XXVIII
EDUCATION

Worshippers Visit Temple At Narita



NARITA SAN

The Shinshoji Temple at Narita, 42.8 miles from Tokyo, is one of the most well-known Buddhist institutions in the country.

The Shinshoji Temple can be reached in a few minutes by electric railway from the town of Narita located along the base of a hill on which the temple stands. Over a million pilgrims are said to visit the institution every year, the number being especially large in January, May and September, when work on the farms is light.

The temple is dedicated to the Deity Fudo, whose miraculous powers are greatly revered. The founding of the temple is related to the legend which says that Fudo's powers were responsible in suppressing a rebellion started by Taira No Masakado, in 940. At that time, there was an image of Fudo enshrined in a small temple near Kyoto, the capital, and this image was sent to the place where Masakado's rebellion took place near Narita. Prayers offered to the sacred image brought about the defeat of the rebels. Since that time the image has remained at Narita, it is said.

At the Shinshoji Temple, all monetary contributions from believers go to the promotion of public welfare and education of good disciples of Buddha. The late Abbot Miike established in 1887 the Elkan Gijuku, a middle grade school for local youths. Its system was improved and reorganized into the Narita Middle School in 1898 by Abbot Ishikawa.

The temple also operates a reformatory with the Reverend Miike, Ishikawa and Araki in charge. Since it was established 54 years ago, it has sent out to the world 24 reformed youths.

Under the Shinshoji Temple's management are also the Narita Girls' Higher School, the Narita Kindergarten, the Narita Library and other educational and cultural institutions.

Chiba Prefecture

Situated on the Boso Peninsula, Chiba Prefecture is washed on three sides by the waves of the Pacific Ocean and is well known for its brisk activity in the fishing industry.

Fishing is one of the important industries of the prefecture with about 70,000 people engaged and the annual fishery products amounting to more than ¥25,000,000. Main products in this line are mackerel, horse-mackerel, ear-bell, tunny, dried bonito, dried liver and fish manure.

The mild climate and the fertile land on the other hand, gives the sea-board-ering province a favorable place for farming in which the greater part of the population are engaged.

The prefecture also has recently made remarkable progress in agricultural, live-stock and the manufacturing industries. Among the leading manufactures are shoyu (soy sauce), sake, starch, milk and meat products.

Chiba Prefecture is also favored with the scenic spots, since the neighboring district of the town of Sahara, which is 40 kilometers up from the mouth of River Tone, are celebrated for its scenic beauty. There, the main course of the Tone, River Kita-Tone, Lake Toda, Lake Kasumi and Somu Islet, dotted in a 100-350 kilometer circumference, enchant the visitors with wonderful landscapes and the scenery of encouraged primitive forests.

Tourists are encouraged to go up River Tone from the town of Sahara to Itako and Kashima Shrine by motorboat, to take advantage of the wonderful and enchanting scenery to its fullest extent.



Highest Grades Vitamins A.D. Produced By Suisan Kagaku K.K.



A Chemical Laboratory of Suisan Kagaku K.K.

Japan produces 60 per cent of the world's total marine products. This is a country of marine production in name and reality. This is because the country has in the spheres of its fishery activity the Arctic, Japan Sea, South Seas, Pacific and Antarctic. The manufacture of vitamins from the entrails of fish is of a recent invention. As a result of elaborate studies by the Agriculture and Forestry Ministry's Marine Product Experimental Station, it was established that vitamin manufacture be protected by patent. The industrialization of vitamins from livers of fish through industry thus has been perpetuated.

Fish livers are exported to the United States in cold storage, but, as a matter of fact, that country has not yet placed the manufacture of vitamins on a paying basis and large scale industrial footing. American industrialists can simply separate liver oil from livers and the products thus are utilized.

The manufacture of vitamins A and D is really epochal. It is especially noteworthy that the vitamin is preserved in casein capsules made from milk. This is a great success attributed to technical excellence of Japanese.

Whales of the Antarctic Ocean eat browns (plancton), while men appreciate

very much, and their livers contain a large percentage of animal albumen. Liver of one whale weighs more than one ton. Whale livers are sent to Japan in cold storage.

Cleanliness marks factories making A-D vitamins. Hygienic welfare is perfected there. Not a single fly is allowed to exist there through perfect equipment. Sanitary welfare of the operatives working in these factories is up to the mark. It can be said the manufacture of AD Vitamins is going on as if it were done in a sanatorium. The factory superintendent is Dr. Tanaka, medical expert. Mr. Kiuya Nagao as pharmaceutical magnate is president of the Aquatic Chemical Industry Company, Limited, (Suisan Kagaku Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha), the manufacturer of the A-D Vitamins. The company is at No. 1843, 4-chome, Miyamoto-cho, Funabashi City, in Chiba Prefecture. Mr. Nagao has perfect understanding of the manufacture of this particular health promoting medicine and nourishment.

Whale livers are sent to the factories and are sliced into pieces by the slicing machines and then they are powdered by a patented machine. Powdered products are preserved in vacuum iron pails through air separators. Out of the need of finding out the percentage of vitamins, they are preserved there and then are taken out for final manufacture, being preserved in capsules made of casein.

The casein capsules are an invention of this company and are protected by patent. As far as these capsules are concerned, other vitamin manufacturers cannot imitate this brilliant invention. Vitamins can be kept for a long period in these special capsules without impairing their substance. This Vitamin contains 8000 international units of Vitamin A in one gram and 400 international units of Vitamin D, being accepted as an ideal synthetic nourishment made from livers. The company has its own cold storage warehouse at Shibaura, Tokyo. Under President Nagao are senior Managing-Director K. Shiyo and junior Managing-Director Dr. S. Tanaka, who are responsible for business and factory management of the company. Japan's leading aquatic product companies, including the Japan Aquatic Product Company, Nichiro Fisheries Company, Hayashikane and Company, and others, are interested in this concern.



SUMITOMO KAGAKU KOGYO K.K.

(Sumitomo Chemical Co., Ltd.)

Chairman: S. FURUTA

Head Office: Kitahama, Osaka, Nippon

Factories: Niihama, Ehime Pref.

MANUFACTURES:

Chemical Fertilizers, Sulphuric Acid,

Nitric Acid, Alumina, Artificial

Cryolite, Floatation Oil

CHAPTER XXVIII

EDUCATION

Historical Background

Chinese letters and Confucian books were first introduced to Japan in the third century, and it was then that the civilization of the country made a real start. From the nearby peninsula of Korea came sericulture, weaving, brewing, and the art of the blacksmith. It was about this time that the Imperial Prince Wakatsukoku established a Court School.

In the sixth century Buddhism came to the Island Empire to give added material progress to the Japanese civilization, and in 607 the Imperial Prince Shotoku-taishi (see Chapter III) caused the Horyuji Temple to be built at Nara and there he established a school in the temple. These were the earliest schools of Japan.

In the latter half of the seventh century a college in the capital and some provincial schools were established to educate officials, according to the Taiho Laws. Later, in the Heian period, the courses of study became encyclopaedic and both public and private schools were established. In the Muromachi period school education suffered a decline and only two places of study were recorded, namely, the Kanazawa Library and Ashikaga School, although there might have been private lecture halls kept secretly by scribes and Buddhist monks.

The Tokugawa Shogunate encouraged the study of Confucianism and several schools of this moral system and Chinese philosophy were introduced, and education extended to the common people. There were established many schools; the highest one was called the Shohéi Hill Academy or Shohéi School, which was established by the Shogunate. The central government had many other schools, while each local clan government also had its own schools. In addition to these, private schools and "tera-koya" appeared all over the country for the education of the people in general.

"Tera-Koya" Education

The "tera-koya" needs some special explanation, as it played the most important part in the education of the masses before the Meiji Era, and laid the foundation for the remarkable progress of elementary education in new Japan.

The word "tera" means Buddhist temple and "koya" children's house, so the tera-koya was a school for children established by a Buddhist temple. It was originated many years before the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate by Buddhist monks. Side by side with Governmental schools for the samurai class, tera-koya education began to spread in the Yedo period among the common folks in business and farm quarters. It gradually ceased to be entirely in the hands of the monks, and assumed a form and nature quite different from the original.

The school-house was no longer in or attached to a temple; teaching was not restricted to the monks; the teacher might be a samurai, monk, doctor or Shinto priest. "Tera-koya" became merely a general name, and the founders of tera-koya schools chose any name they liked for their own. The size of the schools was diverse, the largest one accommodating as many as two or three hundred pupils. There was rarely more than one teacher, but in the larger schools there might be an assistant. The age of the pupils ranged from 6 to 15 years. It was co-education, although the sexes sat apart. The courses of study were commonly penmanship, Japanese literature, and the use of the abacus, with such optional subjects as Chinese literature, poem composition, sewing, flower-arrangement or tea ceremonies. Many textbooks on moral precepts and letter writing were published and used in these schools. These schools were usually kept up largely out of the pocket of the school master himself, for his work was entirely voluntary, inspired by pure devotion to service, for which he gained the honor and respect of community. According to the report of the

Ministry of Education, there were 15,862 *tera-koya* in Japan at the beginning of the Meiji Era, or just before the establishment of the new elementary school system.

It must be remembered also that technical schools had made considerable progress in old Japan. Medical schools in particular were established in the Taiho Era, and medical science made steady progress toward the middle of the Yedo period. The Tokugawa Shogun established a medical school in 1765, and local clan lords followed this example. There were several private ones well known to the people. But these taught the Chinese method of the science, and the "materia medica" was almost entirely of herbs and animal matter. The modern or Western medicine and its system and practice were introduced through Dutchmen at the end of the Yedo period, so we may say that medical science was the earliest of all the sciences that were learned by the Japanese people from the West-erners.

Educational Administration

The present educational system of Japan dates from 1872 the 5th year of Meiji, when elementary education was made compulsory. The new system was established, in the main, after the examples of the French system, and the entire country was divided into 7 university districts, each of them consisting of 32 middle school districts and each of which was again divided into 210 primary school districts, or one primary school for 600 of population. The national educational principles are stated in the Imperial Rescript on Education issued on Oct. 30, 1890. This world-renowned rescript was published to lay down leading ideas and principles for the guidance of the Japanese, and it reads as follows:

"Know ye, Our Subjects!

Our Imperial Ancestors have founded Our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting and have deeply and firmly implanted virtue; Our subjects, ever united in loyalty and filial piety, have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of Our Empire, and herein also lies the source of Our education. Ye,

Our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation; extend your benevolence to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop your intellectual faculties and perfect your moral powers; furthermore, advance the public good and promote common interests; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws; should any emergency arise, offer yourselves courageously to the State; and thus guard and maintain the prosperity of Our Imperial Throne, coeval with heaven and earth. So shall ye not only be Our good and faithful subjects, but render illustrious the best traditions of your forefathers.

The way here set forth is indeed the teaching bequeathed by Our Imperial Ancestors, to be observed alike by Their Descendants and subjects, infallible for all ages and true in all places. It is Our wish to lay it to heart in all reverence, in common with you, Our subjects, that we may all thus attain to the same virtue."

The 30th day of the 10th month of the 23rd year of Meiji.

(Imperial Sign Manual)

(Imperial Seal)

All school education in Japan is supervised by the State, being partly entrusted to local public bodies such as the prefectural councils, towns and villages.

Private individuals are also allowed to found schools and universities, although here too the Government does not give much latitude of method or scope, and the uniformity of school education in all parts of the Empire has worked well in bringing the degree of advancement in modern ways and thought to almost the same level throughout the land, and greatly strengthening the national spirit and unity of the people.

The points entrusted to local public bodies are chiefly financial matters, pertaining to the establishment and maintenance of schools, some of which are obligatory while some are left to the discretion of local bodies. The obligatory matters are the establishment by Hokkaido and the prefectures of normal schools, middle schools for boys and

girls, schools for the blind and for the deaf-and-dumb, technical schools by order of the Minister of Education, and that of ordinary elementary schools by cities, towns and villages. Municipalities may not establish higher normal schools, and Hokkaido and the prefectures alone are authorized to establish universities, higher schools and normal schools.

The main principles regarding the nature and objects of schools, their scholastic terms, curricula, organization, entrance qualifications, qualifications for the teachers, equipment, means of meeting the expenditure, and tuition fees are prescribed by Imperial Ordinances. The establishment of schools by public bodies or private individuals must be approved by the local supervising authorities, which also exercise control to a certain extent over their methods of education and finances.

Religion is, on principle, excluded from the educational agenda of schools. In all schools established by the Government and local public bodies, and in private schools whose curricula are regulated by laws and ordinances, it is forbidden to give religious instruction or to hold religious ceremonies either in or out of the regular curricula.

Education in the colonies comes under the control of the colonial governments, and the military schools belong to the Army and the Navy Ministries, while there are some technical schools which come under the supervision of other ministries. But with these exceptions, it may be safely said that the Minister of Education has charge of all matters relating not only to school education, but also to what may be termed social education, such as art, science, literature and religion. He is assisted by the parliamentary councillor in the conduct of political affairs and in matters which are connected with the business of the Imperial Diet. The vice-minister assists him in the business part of the Ministry.

Of the affairs within the jurisdiction of the Ministry, those that are related to education, art, science, and literature are distributed respectively among the Bureaux of Higher Education, General Education, Technical Education, Social Education, School Books, and Student Control, and those pertaining to religion are under the direction of the Bureau of Religion. Those affairs which

do not properly belong to any one of these bureaux are dealt with in the Minister's Secretariat. In addition there are school superintendents, who inspect schools and directly supervise educational affairs; supervisors of social education who direct and supervise social educational affairs; superintendents of compilation who compile and examine textbooks; and supervisors of school hygiene who look after the sanitary conditions of schools. Various advisory committees with prominent men in and out of office as members are instituted to help the Minister of Education in matters of wider scope.

The Minister of Education is authorized to direct and supervise the Superintendent of the Metropolitan Police and the local governors in matters under his control.

The prefectural governors direct and supervise their subordinate officials and exercise supervision over the public and private schools, kindergartens and libraries within their jurisdictions. There is a Division of Educational Affairs in each prefecture which has control of matters relating to education. School inspectors and sub-inspectors in it inspect schools and conduct educational business directly.

The mayors of cities and towns and the heads of villages deal with affairs regarding elementary schools and exercise control over them. The mayors of cities, moreover, have authority to make recommendations to prefectural governors in the appointment of the principals and teachers of elementary schools. The municipalities have school boards to look after elementary schools.

School Education

As is shown in the following tables, Japan is well provided with schools, ranging from kindergartens up to universities. Almost all the elementary schools are controlled by public bodies.

Conditions are different when we come to secondary education, for which there exist a considerable number of private schools, and in the case of schools of the highest grade the private establishments quite outrange in number those under official control.

Only 18 out of the 45 existing universities were built by the Government, 2 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies.

The total number of schools in Japan

proper and their enrolment in the last five years, 1935-1939, is shown below:

Year	Schools	Students
1935	46,138	14,035,823
1936	47,750	14,949,792
1937	48,216	15,242,333
1938	48,637	15,638,780
1939	49,128	16,118,910

Classified according to types, the number of schools in Japan proper on March 1, 1939, with the number of students enrolled, was as follows:

	Schools	Students
Elementary Schools	25,838	11,078,083
Middle Schools	566	380,498
Girls' High Schools	899	479,425
Business Schools	1,382	507,629
Young Men's Schools	17,743	2,207,022
Higher Schools	32	17,017
Universities	45	72,968
Colleges	118	72,088
Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges	61	27,613
Normal Schools	101	32,025
Higher Normal Schools	2	1,505
Higher Normal Schools for Women	2	886
Special Institutes for Training of Teachers	1	58
Institutes for the Training of Business School Teachers	3	232
Institutes for the Training of Young Men's School Teachers	51	3,106
Schools for the Blind	78	5,277
Schools for the Deaf and Dumb	62	6,141
Miscellaneous Schools	1,942	326,435
Total	49,128	16,118,910
Kindergartens	2,060	174,934

Elementary Education

Elementary education in Japan is compulsory and has attained to its present high level of excellence through many

improvements since the promulgation of the School Ordinance in 1872. In the Imperial Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools the object of elementary education is defined as follows:

"Elementary schools are designed to give children the rudiments of moral education specially adapted to make of them good members of the community together with such general knowledge and skill as are necessary for the practical duties of life, due attention being paid to their bodily development."

According to the system of compulsory education all children from 6 to 14 years of age are called school-age children, and those who exercise parental authority over them, or their legal guardians, must send them either to the ordinary elementary schools established by the cities, towns or villages until they complete the required course of study, or to schools established by the Government, prefectures or by private individuals, recognized as equal to the ordinary ones above mentioned. The law is not enforced when a child is unfit for study owing to physical or mental deficiency or cannot be sent to school by reason of extreme poverty. There is a provision which requires the employers of school-age children to see that the work imposed does not interfere with their going to school.

The responsibility of establishing ordinary elementary schools is placed upon cities, towns and villages. But special provisions permit the State Treasury to bear part of the expense, and the diffusion of elementary school education in Japan proper is all but ideal, the number of the school-age children attending schools maintaining the rate of 99.59 per cent for the past five years.

The full figures are as follows:

These figures represent the condition existing on March 31 of the respective years.

RATE OF ATTENDANCE

Year	School-age Children	Children Attending Schools	Children not Attending Schools	Percentage of Children Attending Schools
1935	11,150,824	11,103,920	46,904	99.58
1936	11,358,094	11,311,266	46,828	99.59
1937	11,482,451	11,434,983	47,468	99.59
1938	11,671,876	11,624,979	46,897	99.59
1939	11,808,025	11,762,815	45,210	99.61

Elementary schools are divided into two grades, namely, ordinary or lower and higher. The former are for the beginners and their course extends over six years. The latter are for those who have completed the lower course, and their courses are of two or three years' duration. The subjects taught are morals, Japanese language, arithmetic, Japanese history, geography, science, drawing, singing, sewing (for girls only) and gymnastics. In the higher courses, either one or more subjects out of handicraft, agriculture, industry, commerce and domestic science (for girls only), are added, and if local circumstances make it advisable, handicraft in ordinary elementary schools and foreign languages and other useful subjects in higher elementary schools may

also be taught.

An elementary school may comprise both the ordinary and the higher elementary school courses and may equip itself with a supplementary course of not more than two years.

Under the present system of compulsory education the father's responsibility ends when his child has graduated from the lower elementary school. But the ordinary elementary education of children is not sufficient for the existing conditions of society, and many cities, towns and villages establish higher elementary schools either independently or in connection with ordinary ones.

The following table will give a general idea of the conditions of elementary schools as they were in 1939:

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN 1939

	Governmental and Public	Private	Total
Schools	26,839	99	26,938
Teachers	273,198	956	274,154
Pupils:			
Ordinary	—	—	10,116,000
Ordinary & supplementary	—	—	600
Higher	—	—	1,860,000
Higher & supplementary	—	—	1,600
Total	11,948,614	30,069	11,978,683
Graduates	2,440,338	5,050	2,445,388

Teachers There are more male teachers than female in the Japanese elementary schools, and they are classified according to their education and special abilities, as (1) elementary school teachers (2) lower elementary school teach-

ers, (3) teachers on special subjects, (4) assistant teachers, and (5) substitute teachers. The teachers belonging to the first two classes are regular teachers properly qualified for the elementary education of children.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS CLASSIFIED

(March 1, 1939)

	Male	Female	Total
Ordinary Elementary Schools:			
Regular teachers	120,072	60,959	181,031
Special teachers	3,024	7,725	10,749
Assistant teachers	2,924	2,626	5,550
Substitute teachers	13,006	16,611	29,617
Total	139,026	87,921	226,947
Higher Elementary Schools:			
Regular teachers	38,759	4,235	41,994
Special teachers	1,634	1,349	2,983
Assistant teachers	51	4	55
Substitute teachers	1,704	471	2,175
Total	42,148	6,059	47,207

Kokumin Gakko Beginning April 1, 1941

Reform in Elementary Education
The term of compulsory general education in this country was fixed at 4 years in 1886, then the period was extended to 6 years in 1908. And now after 32 years, the term is extended to 8 years beginning April 1941.

The aims of developing the Japanese character and vocational extension are embodied in the curriculum of the Kokumin Gakko, or national school, with special attention paid to the following points:

(1) Not only will knowledge and skill be imparted through the curriculum, but the Kodo (principles of imperial benevolent rule) will be inculcated so as to foster national characteristics.

(2) With a view to effecting basic national training in accordance with the trend of the times and the new theory, the curriculum of the national school is divided into the five courses of civics, science and mathematics, physical training, art and business.

(3) Basic national training will be given so as to qualify the pupils as future useful members of the Empire, by establishing close connections among the five courses themselves and also by coordinating the five courses with the teaching of the Kodo.

(4) All material for the five courses will be systematized so as to give full play to the characteristics of each course, at the same time maintaining close connections among the five courses.

(5) The curriculum for eight years will be systematized so as to establish unification and coordination.

(6) The aims of compulsory common education will be realized by paying close attention to selection and arrangement of subjects taught with the addition of necessary items as required.

Article 1 of the National School Regulations declares that the national school is aimed at imparting a type of general education indispensable to the nation and at effecting a basic training for the Emperor's subjects along the lines of the Kodo, by observing the following points:

(a) Training in the Kodo shall dominate all educational activities, by fostering the national spirit and strengthening faith in the national polity.

(b) An outline of the Japanese culture shall be impressed on the pupils with emphasis on salient features. Also the general situation of East Asia in particular and the world in general shall be taught them so as to make them conscious of the position of the Empire.

(c) All courses and subjects of study shall be so handled as to give full play to their characteristics by maintaining close harmony among them, but all shall converge toward the aim of providing a basic national training.

(d) Mind and body shall be trained as a whole with a view to balanced development of national characteristics.

(e) Festivals, ritual, school programs, work, athletics, hygiene, and other educational measures outside the school curriculum shall be incorporated into the curriculum in a suitable manner, so as fully to realize the real aim of common education.

(f) Education must be concrete and practical, in keeping with national life. Greater attention must be given to this point in the higher national school, which is expected to give proper guidance to the pupils in entering vocational life.

(g) Teaching material shall be carefully selected for efficient instruction, while pupils shall be induced to take a voluntary interest in their studies, by means of proper guidance and by cultivating a habit of voluntary study.

(h) Proper training shall be given the pupils, by paying attention to their growth, physical and mental, as well as to the special character, individuality and surroundings of boys and girls.

The curriculum of the national school system is attached in the following pages. Every lesson hour consists of 40 minutes and the lunch recess follows the fourth lesson hour.

Schedule No. 1. (Elementary course)

Curriculum subjects	First year		Second year		Third year	
	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents
National, or civic, course	10	National morals Reading, writing, speaking	11	" "	12	Reading, writing, speaking
Science and mathematics course	3	General arithmetic, Natural science	3	" "	3	" "
Physical training course	4	Gymnastics, drill, play, Sports & bygienics	3	" "	4	" "
Art course	2	Singing, appreciation, Observation, representation and appreciation of objects, handicraft	2	" "	2	" "
Total weekly lesson hours	21		23		26	
Curriculum subjects	Fourth year		Fifth year		Sixth year	
	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents
National, or civic, course	8	Local history and geography	7	History (general) Geography (general)	7	" "
Science & mathematical course	1	General science	2	" "	2	" "
Physical training course	3	" "	3	Fundamentals of military arts	3	" "
Art course	4	Needlework (fundamental)	2	" "	2	" "
	2	" "	1	" "	1	" "
	2	" "	4 (boys) 2 (girls)	Gardening	4 (boys) 2 (girls)	" "
	2	" "	2	" "	2	" "
Total weekly lesson hours	30		31		32	

Schedule No. 2 (Higher course)

Curriculum	Subjects	First year		Second year	
		Lesson hours	Contents	Lesson hours	Contents
National, or civic, course	Morals	2	National morals	2	"
	Japanese language	4	Reading & writing	4	"
	Japanese history	2	Outline of Japanese history	2	"
	Geography	2	Outline of geography	2	"
Business & technical course	Agriculture	5 (boys)	Outline of one or several of the subjects and practice	5	"
	Technical industry			(boys)	
	Commerce	2 (girls)	2 (girls)	"	
Science & mathematics course	Fishery				
	Arithmetic	3	General arithmetic	3	"
Physical training course	Science	2	General science	2	"
	Gymnastics	6 (boys)	Gymnastics, drills, play sports & hygienics	6 (boys)	"
	Military arts	5 (girls)	Fundamentals of military arts	4 (girls)	"
	Music	1	Singing, appreciation, & basic exercise	1	"
Art course	Penmanship	1	<i>Kana, kaisbo, gyosbo, sosbo</i> and appreciation	1	"
	Drawing	2	Observation, representation and appreciation of objects	2	"
	Work		Wood and metal works, gardening & handicraft (girls)	2	"
	Housekeeping (girls)	5	General housekeeping	5	"
Needlework (girls)	General needlework				
	Lesson hours	30		30	
	Extra hours	2-4		2-4	
	Total weekly lesson hours	32-34		32-34	

Textbooks The task set before the Bureau of Books, Ministry of Education, to decide what textbooks to prepare for this epoch-making reform in national education was a difficult one. In order to embody the spirit of the new system

in schoolbooks, the authorities, since 1939, had studied the report of the Educational Council and other data, while investigating the actual conditions of education. In the spring of 1940 they sought the opinions of the

authorities on pedagogy, critics of educational affairs and leading educationalists; and after careful deliberation formulated general principles on which to carry out the work of compilation.

The new schoolbooks are so compiled as to realize the spirit and ideals embodied in the Imperial Ordinance Pertaining to the National School Law. What is deemed necessary for the basic training of the rising generation as Japanese subjects, in accordance with the principles on which the Japanese Empire was founded, has been selected as material for the textbooks. And they are so arranged as to be in keeping with the national life and the mental and physical development of the pupils.

The national school admits children of six years of age and its course of study extends over eight years. Based upon psychological theories and practical experience in education, the eight years have been divided into four periods, i.e. the first, second and third periods covering respectively the first and second years, the third year, and the fourth, fifth and sixth years of the elementary course, and the fourth period extending over the two years' higher course.

The new textbooks prepared in April 1941 are those for the first period, i.e. for the first and second years of the elementary course. As a matter of fact, schoolbooks for the lowest classes are the most difficult to compile, because the pupils are six and seven years old and little better than kindergarten children. So the books require to be prepared with elaborate plans and meticulous care. The textbooks for the first period, therefore, ought to be extension of picture-books, such as books with pictures of trams and railway trains. The new schoolbooks are accordingly titled in terms familiar to the pupils, for instance, Good Boys and Girls, How to Read, Book of Figures, Book of Pictures, Book of Songs and Copy-books. Their contents are also suited to the life and sentiments of the young boys and girls in this period of growth.

But even in the life of those innocent little ones there is some element of gravity and piety. On Tenchosetsu (the Emperor's Birthday), Meijisetsu (Anniversary of the Emperor Meiji's Birthday), New Year's Day and Kigensetsu (Empire Day) they attend the ceremony

held at their school, when they pay respects to the Imperial Portraits and sing the national anthem. At home they lead a moral life in their way, performing their filial duties to their parents and grandparents. There are also the family Buddhist altar, the family Shinto shrine, and the Shinto shrine of their birthplaces, institutions to which they are taken by their parents to offer prayers. The environment in which those little ones live is full of things which contribute to the fostering in them of the concept of national polity and the spirit of piety and of reverence toward their ancestors.

Children's songs, such as "Evening Burning, Little Burning" and "O Full Moon" are the expression of praise to their beautiful land, and their search for cicadas and grasshoppers may be regarded as the beginning of their interest in science. Playing marbles and shop develop in the children mathematical and economic ideas. Drawing, paper-work and toy-making all help to foster creativeness and inventiveness in the child's mind. Those brought up in the mountainous districts have a yearning after the sea lying beyond the hills, while the children born and bred by the sea grow up to be the defense of the island country. Since the outbreak of the current hostilities, they have seen their fathers, uncles and brothers leave for the front, and have heard from those relatives about the battle-fields over the sea. And not a few of the children become ambitious to go over to the Continent. They play soldiers, address soldiers in the street, take radio callisthenics, coax their parents to buy them toy tanks, pore over picture-books of warships, are keenly interested in the aeroplane, and fly model planes. Schoolbooks for the first period are intended to draw attention to their lives which are occupied with such innocent games and lead them educationally so as to develop their spiritual lives. They embody, so to speak, the spirit of what we call the highly organized national defense structure.

By the use of the Book of Songs the development of the sense of sound is intended, and the Book of Pictures aims at training children in the sense of color. Standard colors cannot be printed even by the advanced art of printing today. So the Book of Pictures

has beautiful, hand-dyed colored paper containing nine to thirteen colors. Thus the textbooks for the national school are compiled with well-selected and systematized materials necessary for giving children basic training as subjects of the Japanese Empire. Even the books for the first period form an integral part of this system of textbooks.

These schoolbooks are printed on a vast scale with most advanced technical skill. In the present school year, beginning with April 1, 1941, about 60 different textbooks for the first and second years of the elementary course, including teachers' manuals and maps, have been completed. Altogether about 53,000,000 copies of them have been supplied to the pupils and teachers throughout the country.

Secondary Education

For the secondary grades there are middle schools for boys, girls' high schools, business schools and Young Men's schools.

Middle Schools The course of the middle school extends over five years, and its object is to give boys such a higher general education as will fit them to be useful members of society after their graduation. The subjects taught are morals, civics, the Japanese language and Chinese classics, history, both Japanese and foreign, geography, a foreign language (either one of English, German, French or Chinese), mathematics, science, technical studies, drawing, music, practical work (carpentering, gardening, etc) and gymnastics.

From the fourth year upwards, the subjects are selected and arranged into two groups, the pupils making choice between the two. Under special circumstances, however, the Minister of Education may authorize a school in which either of the two groups may be dispensed with. This dual system of

curriculum is of benefit on the one hand to the pupils who wish to take up employment immediately upon graduation, and on the other to those who wish to advance to collegiate schools.

To the regular course a supplementary course of one year or less may be added, and, if local circumstances require, a preparatory course of two years may also be provided. A boy who desires to enter a middle school must complete either its preparatory course or the full course of an ordinary elementary school. Those who are twelve or more years of age and in possession of adequate scholastic attainments may be admitted upon examination, the method of which was improved from written examination on subjects of study to the calculation of the fitness of children to the secondary education by examining the report of the elementary school on each boy or girl, testing physical conditions, and making oral examinations on character, since 1940. Those who have completed the fifth year (the course of the ordinary elementary school ends with the sixth year as mentioned above) of an ordinary elementary school and are physically well developed and have shown excellent scholarship are allowed to apply for the entrance examination, even though under twelve years of age; this is to give a chance to specially gifted boys.

The following are the figures for middle schools and their pupils on March 1 of each year:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1934	554	327,261
1935	555	330,992
1936	557	340,657
1937	559	352,320
1938	563	364,486
1939	566	373,498

A general idea of the condition of the middle schools in 1938 may be obtained by the following table:

MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN 1939

	Governmental and Public	Private	Total
Schools	446	120	566
Teachers	11,211	3,277	14,488
Pupils	301,461	72,037	373,498
Graduates	50,494	12,041	62,535
Applicants	131,608	52,186	183,794
Admitted	71,012	21,079	92,091
Percentage of Admitted in Applicants	53.95	40.39	50.10

Girls' High Schools The system of high schools for girls is made flexible to suit practical requirements. A girl who has completed elementary school or has equivalent scholastic attainments and is twelve years or more of age may be admitted to a girls' high school. The course of the girls' high school extends over four or five years, and those schools whose entrance requirement is the completion of the higher elementary school or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments are allowed to shorten their course to three years. There is another kind of girls' high school which is called Girls' Domestic High School, where domestic science is the main course of study, and its regular course extends over two to four years. Girls who wish to take only one part of the course are allowed to do so on application. A supplementary course of two years or less may be provided for the benefit of those who wish to continue their study after completing the regular course, and a post-graduate course or a higher course of two or three years for the purpose of giving higher education. In the cases of the higher course, higher qualifications are required of the teachers and its standard is brought up almost to that of the higher school for boys.

The subjects taught in a girls' high school are the same as those taught in the middle schools, but with the addition of domestic science and sewing, the required hours of study being from 28 to 29 a week. In the case of the Girls' Domestic High School, technical study added and the hours for domestic science

and sewing are double those of the ordinary high school, the time allowed for other subjects being shortened, and foreign languages omitted altogether. Under special circumstances the foreign language, drawing and music may be omitted, and if local circumstances require, pedagogics, manual arts, technical studies and other useful subjects may be taught in addition to the normal curriculum. In cases the total weekly hours may be increased to a little over 30. The curriculum of a domestic course of three years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the first year of the higher elementary school, is to be suitably drawn up on the basis of that of a domestic course of two years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the higher elementary school, and be submitted to the Minister of Education for approval.

The progress of female education is phenomenal in modern Japan and girls' high schools have taken very marked strides in recent years both in number and quality. At the end of March 1938, there were 996 girls' high schools in Japan proper, many of them being provided with, or contemplating the provision of, a post-graduate course or a higher course.

The number of schools and girl students on March 1 of each year was as follows:

Year	Schools	Girls
1935	970	388,935
1936	974	412,126
1937	985	432,553
1938	996	454,423
1939	999	481,425

GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOLS IN 1939

	Governmental and Public	Private	Total
Schools	750	249	999
Teachers	11,031	5,811	17,442
Pupils	339,899	141,526	481,425
Graduates	79,584	28,437	108,021
Applicants	148,557	71,251	219,808
Admitted	96,096	38,407	134,503
Percentage of Admitted in Applicants	64.68	49.05	61.19

Business Schools Business schools of secondary grade are established for the purpose of giving young people the practical knowledge and skill necessary in various vocations, and much is left

to the discretion of the founders as to the systems of schools in order to suit the special needs of different industries, trades and localities. The courses may extent from two to five years accord-

ing to the nature of the school. A period of not longer than one year may be added to the maximum prescribed course. Further provisions are allowed to meet the needs of those who desire to take only a part of the curriculum, for those who, after completing the prescribed course, still desire to remain for further study, and for those who wish after completing the course of a middle school or girls' high school, to enter a business school with the object of receiving business education; and lastly for those who wish to receive instruction in a simple way for only a short period.

On March 1, 1939 there were 1,379 business schools. The figures for the years 1935-39 are given below:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1935	1,125	367,026
1936	1,250	396,968
1937	1,301	433,437
1938	1,355	477,596
1939	1,379	467,629

Business schools are divided into two classes, A and B. Those schools which belong to A class admit boys and girls who have completed the course of the ordinary elementary school, while those which belong to B class admit those who have completed the course of the higher elementary school. And they are of six kinds, namely, Technical, Agricultural, Fisheries, Commercial, Navigation and Practical. Figures relating to these business schools in 1939 are given below.

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (A)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted
Technical	130	3,078	56,246	13,351	56,333	20,407
Agricultural	267	3,151	63,846	18,482	31,983	22,286
Commercial	350	8,194	220,129	38,156	117,767	57,189
Navigation	8	115	1,806	463	988	585
Fisheries	15	163	2,641	596	1,137	712
Practical	302	3,950	83,766	28,867	46,653	35,205
Total	1,072	18,651	388,434	99,815	254,822	136,444

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (B)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted
Technical	50	654	13,922	3,207	19,137	7,335
Agricultural	99	947	22,443	7,715	10,387	8,829
Commercial	88	916	27,080	9,236	20,358	13,761
Navigation	1	10	109	116	67	267
Fisheries	5	18	353	102	204	157
Practical	64	531	15,288	8,517	14,580	12,731
Total	307	3,076	79,195	28,893	64,933	43,080

Of these schools, 15 technical, 12 agricultural, 154 commercial, and 154 practical schools were under private management.

Young Men's School On April 1, 1935, the Young Men's School was established by the amalgamation of the Young Men's Training Institute and the Business Continuation School. The attendance became compulsory from April 1939.

The purpose of the new institution is to elevate young people's attainment as citizens of Japan by training mind and body, by cultivating moral nature and by educating in knowledge and ability indispensable to their profession and practical life.

The course of study of Young Men's School is graded into three, common, regular and post graduate. The common course extends over two years, the regular course five years for boys and three years for girls (four years for boys and two years for girls may be allowed according to local conditions), and the post graduate course over one year. Graduates of the lower course of elementary school may enter the common course of Young Men's School, those who finished the common course may be advanced to the regular course, while the graduates of the high course of elementary school have the same privilege; and graduates of the regular course or those who are in possession of an adequate scholastic attainment may

take the post graduate course.

Subjects of study are, in the common course, morals, civics, some of subjects common to middle schools, agricultural subjects and gymnastics, with additional studies on housekeeping and sewing for girls only; in the regular course the same subjects are given in a more advanced grade; and in the post graduate course, morals, civics and certain studies selected from the subjects of the regular course. Special course may be added. Pupils are free of charge as a rule.

The number of Young Men's Schools and that of their pupils for the years 1935-39 were as follows:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1935	15,306	1,281,814
1936	16,708	1,902,876
1937	17,043	1,964,599
1938	17,337	2,041,321
1939	17,743	2,207,022

Higher Education

The institutions for higher education are higher schools, universities, colleges, and higher trade and industrial colleges.

Higher normal schools, institutions for training teachers of higher education, post-graduate or supplementary courses in secondary educational institutions and higher grade classes of the special educational institutions are mentioned under other headings, though they might be included here with the other higher educational organs.

The number of schools under this heading and higher normal schools and that of students on March 1 of each year follow:

Year	Schools	Students
1934	257	184,473
1935	255	186,963
1936	259	189,151
1937	259	190,332
1938	260	192,377

Higher Schools (Koto Gakko) The higher school is primarily an institution whose object is to complete the general education of young men. But it is as a matter of fact a preparatory school for universities or higher trade and industrial colleges in present-day Japan. No women are admitted. It is divided into two courses, the higher and the lower. The former extends over three and the latter over four years, making seven in all. A postgraduate course of one year may be taken after the higher course. Some schools have the higher

course alone. On May 30, 1938, the higher schools with the higher course alone numbered 25, while those with both lower and higher courses numbered 7.

The entrance requirements for the lower course are practically the same as those for the middle schools. The higher course is divided into the literature and science courses and a candidate must be one who has completed the lower course of the same school or one who has completed the fourth year of the middle school or whose scholastic attainments are equal or superior to the same standard.

There are about the same number of preparatory courses of universities which correspond to higher schools and are directly attached to universities. The following figures for 1937-38 refer to the higher schools only.

HIGHER SCHOOLS

(1940-41)

Schools	32
(School which have lower course)	(7)
Teachers	1,550
Students	24,987
Graduates	4,474
Applicants	51,618
Entrants	6,097

Of the 32 schools, 25 are governmental, 3 public and 4 private.

Universities A university (Daigaku), in its regular form, consists of several faculties, but a single faculty may also constitute a daigaku. Each faculty is required to have a post-graduate course, and in those universities which include several faculties a university hall may be established for keeping the various post-graduate courses in touch with one another. Under special circumstances a preparatory course may be provided.

Admission to a university is extended to the graduates from higher schools and from preparatory courses of its own, and to those who have the same scholastic attainments. When a student has studied in the university for three years or more (four years or more in the faculty of medicine) from the date of his entrance, and has passed a prescribed examination, he may assume the degree of "Gaku-shi" (lit. "learned gentleman") or Bachelor. He is also qualified to enter the post-graduate course. In many universities facilities are provided for those who

wish to pursue studies only in some particular subjects according to prescribed regulations.

A university is authorized to confer a doctor's degree on persons who have pursued studies for a period of two years or more in the post-graduate

course and whose theses have been approved by the faculty council. Those who have not pursued studies in the post-graduate course may also submit theses and apply for doctor's degree. The degree is conferred when the faculty council is satisfied with the theses.

UNIVERSITIES, SEPTEMBER 1941

	Professors	Students & Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Entrance
Governmental (19):					
Tokyo Imperial	385	8,115	2,128	4,261	2,448
Kyoto Imperial	261	5,799	1,335	1,953	1,759
Tohoku Imperial	224	1,976	441	1,333	625
Kyushu Imperial	24	2,024	449	1,477	634
Hokkaido Imperial	227	2,584	647	3,443	837
Osaka Imperial	141	1,384	284	1,091	489
Nagoya Medical	92	830	77	907	270
Niigata Medical	96	402	58	550	230
Okayama Medical	81	814	76	536	241
Chiba Medical	106	499	82	629	306
Kanazawa Medical	87	421	70	723	452
Nagasaki Medical	49	355	79	516	204
Kumamoto Medical	119	358	61	665	333
Tokyo Commercial	138	1,797	311	2,100	241
Kobe Commercial	80	820	212	1,564	156
Tokyo Technical	119	984	176	737	305
Tokyo Liter. & Science	—	398	106	—	—
Hiroshima Liter. & Sci.	76	413	118	252	137
Jingu Kogakkan	—	119	—	378	296
Public (2):					
Kyoto Medical	—	549	—	1,390	98
Osaka Commercial	—	456	—	113	48
Private (26):					
Kelo-Gijuku	—	8,543	—	11,253	1,433
Waseda	—	9,404	—	14,438	1,177
Meiji	—	4,637	—	5,180	799
Hosei	—	2,871	—	853	609
Chuo	—	5,917	—	4,492	750
Nippon	—	5,220	—	4,500	—
Kokugakuin	—	641	—	451	150
Doshisha	—	1,949	—	2,962	304
Tokyo Jikei-kai Medical	—	1,130	—	3,016	160
Ryukoku	—	610	—	157	80
Otani	—	380	—	121	90
Senshu	—	—	—	3,417	649
Rikkyo	—	1,983	—	1,487	317
Ryumei-kan	—	1,917	—	800	300
Kansai	—	1,551	—	1,903	304
Takushoku	—	1,329	—	—	—
Rissho	—	325	—	82	54
Komazawa	—	700	—	300	150
Tokyo Agricultural	—	815	—	1,341	165
Nippon Medical	—	1,105	—	3,175	172
Koyasan	—	227	—	89	72
Taisho	—	532	—	239	111
Toyo	—	—	—	—	—
Jochi	—	446	—	245	128
Kansai-gakuin	—	1,344	—	1,824	285
Fujihara Engineering	—	350	—	3,200	160

The oldest of the 45 universities is Tokyo Imperial University, which was founded in 1877. Kelo-Gijuku was founded in 1858, but it was raised to the present standard in 1920 according to the ordinances enacted at that time.

The following figures as they stood on March 1, 1937 and 1938 show the number of students in these universities classified according to faculties.

	1937	1938
Post graduate course	2,602	2,440
Law	8,432	8,629
Medical Science	8,225	8,287
Science	1,112	1,150
Agriculture	2,200	2,248
Economy	6,138	6,004
Commerce	4,736	4,946
Law and Literature	4,390	4,155
Politics and Economy	1,358	1,395
Technology	4,170	4,319
Literature	4,571	4,325
Law and Economy	645	652
Science and Technology	821	796
Literature and Science	756	773
Commerce and Economy	872	1,207

Nippon University

In the former numbers of the Japan Year Book, Tokyo Imperial University, Waseda University and Kelo University were chosen as models of universities. For the present issue Nippon University has been chosen.

The Nippon University is located at Misaki-cho, Kanda Ward in the central

part of Tokyo. It was founded in 1889, or the year of the promulgation of the Imperial Constitution of the Nippon Empire. Its original name was Nippon Law School. The establishment of the school was undertaken by the late Count Kentaro Kaneko and others in accordance with the wishes of the then Prime Minister Arimoto Yamagata and Minister of Justice, Akioyoshi Yamada who were anxious to have an educational organ for the instruction of the young men in Japanese laws as against other existing law schools where French or English laws were taught. The school was re-organized in April 1920 to make it a regular university in accordance with the new University Law. It consisted of the two departments of Law and Literature, and Commerce with the associated law, literature, commerce, higher normal, dental surgery and higher technical schools of college grade. The school buildings were reduced to ashes by the Great Earthquake and Fire of 1923. But the earnest efforts of President Dr. Mannoosuke Yamaoka rebuilt the university proper and all associated schools in a greater scale. The progress and expansion of Nippon University in the following 20 years has been a wonder in the educational world in Japan. It comprises now university departments, preparatory courses, colleges and middle schools where more than 30,000 young men are well educated. The present departments and associated schools of Nippon University are as follows:

University Proper:

Law Department
Literature Department
Commerce and Economy Department
Technical Department

Graduate Course
Elective Course
Preparatory Courses

Collegiate Department

Osaka College
Higher Professional Schools

Middle Schools

Commercial Schools

The university has also a kindergarten, a library, a publication department and a hospital.

Faculty or Course:

Faculties of law and political economy
Faculties of literature, religion and arts
Faculties of Commerce and economy
Faculties of engineering, building, machine, electric industry and industry

For the graduates from the four departments in the faculties of the four departments

For those who finished middle schools and intend to enter the university departments

Faculties of law, politics, social science and literature; religion, colonial science, commerce and economy, arts, dental surgery, medicine, technique, higher normal

Faculties of law and science
Schools for dentists, engineers, linguists;
School of Mikado's Way and Yamaoka Laboratory

The 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and Osaka middle schools

The 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th commercial schools

As the name itself indicates, Nippon University upholds the Nippon Spirit and Principles inherited from the glorious ancestors of the nation in training its students and pupils as well as instructing them in various branches of law, literature, arts, economy, commerce and science. The growth of the university owes much to the painstaking efforts and high personality of President Dr. Manno-suke Yamaoka who is known as a scholar of criminal law and policy and has held important positions in the Ministry of Justice or as the Governor of Kwantung Province. He has led the professors and students in his genuine spirit of patriotism which is almost a religion to him. Among thousands of graduates there are many leaders in political, medical and business circles in Japan as well as many world-famous sportsmen who took part in the Olympic Games as swimmers and other champions, including Tetsuo Hamuro, Masanori Yusa, Tomikatsu Amano and others. The university has 237 Chinese and other foreign students, sending out 3,891 graduates who came from foreign lands and went back to take important positions in their respective countries.

Faculties of arts and religion are established in no other universities in Japan but this university. In the Faculty of Religion, in the Literature Department, Shintolism, Buddhism, Christianity and Muslim are scholarly studied, while in that of the Collegiate Department students are instructed in more practical application of these religious principles on social work and moral education. The Faculty of arts includes courses of pure literature, cinematology, theatrical arts, aesthetics and music, while the similar faculty in the Collegiate Department trains writers, artists, performers and workers.

Innumerable engineers and technicians who graduated from the technical department and schools of Nippon University are earnestly working in munitions factories as unarmed soldiers behind the guns. The influence and contribution of the university in Japan and East Asia are wider spread and greater than most of other similar educational institutions.

Annual fees of different schools of the university are as follows:

Graduate Course, ¥1,000; University Department, ¥150; Elective Course ditto., ¥77; Preparatory Course, ¥100; Collegiate Department, ¥100; and Elective Course ditto., ¥77.

Colleges, and Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges

"College" is the usual translation of the Japanese "Semmon Gakko" or Speciality School. The required length of the course of a college is three years or more. For admission to an art or music school, the completion of the third year of the middle school or the girls' high school or the possession of equal or higher scholastic attainments is required, while for admission to all other colleges the completion of the course of the said second grade schools or similar or higher scholastic attainments is required.

In June 1941, there were 211 colleges, 71 of them being founded and maintained by the Government, 13 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies. They may be classified as follows according to their nature:

Pharmacy	14
" for women	4
Medical Science	7
" for women	4
Dentistry	5
" for women	2
Medical and pharmacy, for women	1
Languages	4
Literature	6
Painting and other fine arts	5
" for women	2
Music	2
Religion	10
Christian Theology	4
Law, Economy, Commerce, Industry	35
Commerce	33
Agriculture	17
Fisheries	1
Navigation	2
Colonization	1
Mathematics and Chemistry	1
Engineering	1
Athletics	3
Fencing and Judo	1
Meteorology	1
Photography	1
Literature, economy, law, domestic science and other (including for women)	44
Total	211

The following table shows the movement of the college students, classified according to their course of study, in 1937-1938:

Course of Study	Students		Graduates		Applicants		Entrants		Left School	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Medical Science	4,048	1,924	865	370	9,005	741	905	435	96	54
Pharmacy	3,129	2,977	912	604	5,019	1,265	1,023	914	94	154
Dentistry	3,621	473	850	89	2,726	180	947	180	102	48
Law	12,532	46	3,599	9	9,127	21	5,692	21	2,207	14
Economy	1,801	—	339	—	1,479	—	1,087	—	569	—
Commerce	11,781	6	3,188	—	10,500	3	5,351	3	1,962	4
Literature	3,473	2,189	906	646	3,453	1,112	1,376	843	520	219
Mathematics and Chemistry	911	—	69	—	2,298	—	669	—	356	—
Domestic science	—	4,641	—	1,547	—	3,150	—	2,440	—	643
Sewing	—	1,416	—	416	—	828	—	610	—	130
Handiwork	—	627	—	136	—	455	—	314	—	92
Religion	2,211	29	645	7	885	10	754	11	198	2
Fine arts	588	37	152	7	165	20	158	18	12	8
Music	77	233	21	58	38	118	34	106	9	18
Athletics	518	67	115	22	353	25	155	22	37	3
Agriculture	691	—	218	—	497	—	254	—	46	—
Colonization	372	—	51	—	334	—	260	—	55	—
Nursing	—	62	—	—	—	76	—	39	—	11
Meteorology	50	—	18	—	249	—	18	—	—	—
Industry	954	—	298	—	1,649	—	331	—	88	—
Normal	3,809	651	896	269	3,732	503	1,697	346	665	46
Shinto	175	—	54	—	113	—	67	—	8	—
Arts	378	—	54	—	269	—	212	—	112	—
Total, 1938	51,119	15,378	13,250	4,160	51,889	8,513	20,990	6,302	7,136	1,446
(Total, 1937	51,002	13,339	13,009	3,639	45,830	6,439	19,470	4,813	7,423	1,208)
Preparatory and Special Courses	3,419	2,172	1,043	1,420	3,147	2,537	2,774	1,937	1,802	507
Grand Total	54,538	17,550	14,293	5,600	55,036	11,050	23,764	8,239	8,938	1,953

The number of Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges and that of their professors and students was as follows in the 1937-38 school year.

Kind	Colleges	Professors	Students	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left School
Technical	19	938	8,275	2,715	24,991	3,185	286
Agricultural	15	609	4,851	1,581	11,884	1,910	177
Commercial	24	791	13,063	4,219	25,543	4,921	562
Navigation	2	150	1,189	276	2,069	261	27
Fisheries	1	37	235	76	737	82	7
Total	61	2,525	27,613	8,867	65,224	10,359	1,059

Other Education

Besides the schools stated above, there are Kindergartens, schools for the blind, schools for the deaf and dumb, and miscellaneous schools.

Kindergartens Kindergartens may be found chiefly in larger towns. With general social progress, however, the necessity of their improvement and diffusion being greatly felt the Imperial Ordinance for Kindergartens has lately been issued to encourage their further development. Kindergartens receive children from 3 years of age to school age or full six years of age.

The following table gives the number of kindergartens and that of children attending in the years 1935-39:

Year	Kindergartens	Children
1935	1,862	143,469
1936	1,892	143,676
1937	1,946	152,627
1938	2,001	162,027
1939	2,060	174,934

Education for the Blind and the Dumb It has been the educational policy of the Japanese Government since the beginning of the Meiji Era that there shall be no illiterates in the country. There-

fore, even persons with physical defects are admitted to elementary, middle or girls' high schools, provided that they are fit to attend a greater part of the lessons. But boys and girls who are blind or deaf and dumb are encouraged to enter schools specially founded for them. A special ordinance relating to the schools for the blind and schools for the deaf and dumb has lately been issued for the purpose of perfecting their elementary and secondary education. The following table gives the number of them and that of their pupils in the years 1935-39.

Year	Schools	Pupils	Blind	Deaf & Dumb
1935	140	9,907	4,830	5,077
1936	140	10,284	4,950	5,334
1937	140	10,566	5,040	5,526
1938	140	11,030	5,160	5,870
1939	140	11,418	5,277	6,141

Miscellaneous Schools Under the heading of "Miscellaneous Schools," the Japanese Government includes for convenience sake all schools which do not fully come into any definite category of schools under the provisions in the laws and ordinances.

The following table gives the number of miscellaneous schools and that of their pupils in the years 1935-39.

Year	Schools	Pupils
1935	1,913	241,112
1936	1,911	258,713
1937	1,928	272,140
1938	1,942	326,435
1939	1,942	326,435

Of the total given above, 150 were maintained by public bodies and 1,776 by private persons or bodies. As to their category those which might be classified as elementary schools numbered 194, middle schools 115, girls' high schools 73, business schools 648, colleges 31, the blind and the dumb schools 9, and the professional 853. Among miscellaneous schools, there are not a few which to be highly esteemed as educational institutions in their ideas and new methods of education. Many of the Christian schools are included among them.

Training of Teachers

The Japanese Government, alive to the necessity of having a large supply of capable teachers, has spared no

efforts in the completion of organs for their training. To give an outline of the present system, Hokkaido and the prefectures are called upon to establish and maintain at least one normal school each, and an institution for the training of Young Men's School teachers when circumstances make it necessary, a responsibility which is also imposed on the cities. The Government itself undertakes the training of teachers of normal schools, middle schools, girls' high schools and technical schools by establishing and maintaining higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for the training of teachers, etc., and the students of these schools are given scholarships, covering part of their expenses, either by the Government or by the local public bodies. Moreover such of the students of universities, colleges and the like as intend to become teachers, receive aid out of public funds or may be exempted from the payment of fees. Persons who have proved themselves deserving extended aid are chosen for studying abroad in order that they may be better qualified to teach higher arts and sciences.

The following table gives the number of schools for training teachers and that of their students in the years 1935-1939:

Year	Schools ¹	Students
1935	156	34,583
1936	156	34,019
1937	157	34,683
1938	158	35,360
1939	158	38,137

Organs for Training Elementary School Teachers The principal organs for training elementary school teachers are the normal schools, while the training course B grade of the Tokyo Academy of Music trains music teachers for elementary schools.

A normal school consists of the regular and the post-graduate courses, the former is divided into the first and second sections. The course of study of the first section extends over five years and it takes in the graduates of high-

1 Note: There are 4 higher normal schools and their students included in this as well as in the number of the table on higher education.

er elementary schools of a two years' course or persons of over 14 years of age who have similar attainments. The course of study of the second sections runs for two years and it takes in graduates of middle schools, girls' high schools and persons of similar scholastic attainments.

The following table gives the number of normal schools and that of their students and graduates in the years 1935-1939.

Year	Schools	Students	Graduates
1935	102	30,420	10,735
1936	102	29,825	10,431
1937	101	30,256	10,340
1938	101	30,783	10,499
1939	101	32,825	10,564

Organs for Training Teachers for Secondary Education As organs for training the teachers of secondary education, there are the higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for training teachers, the training course in drawing of the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts and the training course, grade A of the Tokyo Academy of Music. The systems differ more or less with the schools or the main subjects taught, but their entrance requirements are, generally speaking, the completion of middle school, girls' high school and normal

school, or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments, and their courses extend over four, three or two years, with additional post-graduate and special investigation courses. The number of graduates from these schools is from 850 to 1,000 annually.

In addition to the foregoing, teachers' certificates are issued without examination to graduates of high grade schools both in Japan and in other countries in order to meet the deficiency in the supply of secondary school teachers. The main conditions are that the schools in question must be equal to or higher than the higher normal schools of Japan in entrance requirements and in curricula. Including those who passed examination there were 8,344 persons, 5,485 men and 2,859 women, who received such certificates in 1937-1938.

Organs for Training Business School Teachers For the purpose of training teachers of practical subjects in technical schools, institutes are attached to the Government universities and colleges. They are of a three year course, the scholastic standard corresponding to that of the colleges.

The following table gives the number of such institutes and that of their students and graduates in the years 1934-1938:

Year	Agricultural		Technical		Commercial		Total		Graduates
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	
1934	1	111	2	150	1	101	4	362	120
1935	1	116	2	144	1	96	4	356	111
1936	1	120	2	142	1	98	4	360	114
1937	1	84	2	224	1	56	4	364	119
1938	—	—	2	139	1	93	3	232	71

As further means of providing business school teachers, certificates are issued without examination to graduates of certain specified schools. Including those who passed examination the number of persons who received such certificates in 1937-1938 was 484.

Organs for Training Teachers of Young Men's Schools For this purpose there are institutes which Hokkaido, the prefectures and cities alone are authorized to establish. They are of one or two year courses above the secondary education. The following table shows the number of these insti-

tutes and that of their students in 1934-1939:

Year	Institutes	Students	Graduates
1934	43	1,014	529
1935	45	1,106	588
1936	45	1,117	619
1937	47	1,315	539
1938	49	1,596	761
1939	51	3,106	1,928

Training of High-grade Professors No particular schools are instituted for the training of high-grade teachers. Scholarships, however, are given to stu-

dents of the post-graduate course of higher normal schools for training such professors. Further, persons of adequate career and experience are sent to foreign countries for a further prosecution of studies, their expenses being met by the Government. The following are figures concerning such persons at the end of March, each year:

Year	Students Abroad	Year	Students Abroad
1933	184	1936	126
1934	136	1937	168
1935	104	1938	112

As a further means of supplying higher grade professors, a professor's licence is granted to persons holding doctor's degrees and those who have graduated from universities and colleges. In 1937-1938 the number of persons who received Higher School Professor's licences was 801, of which 6 were women.

Training of Special School Teachers and Nurses of Kindergartens Teach-

ers for the blind and the deaf and dumb are trained in the training courses in the Tokyo School for the Blind and the Tokyo School for the Deaf and Dumb. The nurses of kindergartens are trained in the training courses provided in women's normal school, special courses in the higher normal schools for women and in the special institutions for the purpose established by private bodies. In 1937-1938 the number of kindergarten nurses' certificates given was 1,083.

Teacher's Certificate Given by Examination Persons who have similar scholastic attainments with the graduates of the schools mentioned above, may ask for an examination to get a teacher's licence. They have to undergo a strict examination by the special examination committees of the Educational Ministry. The number of persons who passed such examination during 1937-1938 was 7,690. These may be classified as follows:

Teachers of	Applicants	Passed examinations
Elementary School and Kindergarten Normal School, Middle School and Girls' School	40,974	6,966
Higher Department of Higher School	5,908	584
Business School	201	24
	792	118

Physical Education and School Hygiene

With a view to promoting the rational development of the young and to encourage and further the spread of gymnastics, games and athletic sports, both eastern and western, there was established in 1924 a national Institute for Research in Physical Training, where research work is now in active progress.

For school hygiene, special attention is paid to buildings and equipments, and efforts are being made to improve and strengthen the physical constitution of pupils and students by employing school physicians, dentists and nurses, by taking measures for the prevention of infectious diseases in schools, by making plans for open-air schools, vacation colonies, school feeding, school clinics and the like:

There were 33,870 school physicians, 9,244 dentists, and 3,813 nurses for 33,870 schools in 1938.

For the administrative organs responsible for the work referred to, Hokkaido

and prefectures have school hygienic experts and directors of physical training, while the Ministry of Education has the Section of Physical Training, Supervisors of School Hygiene and the Institute for Research in Physical Training. In addition, there are provided in the Education Ministry a School Hygiene Investigation Committee and a Physical Training Investigation Council, which investigate and make researches in important questions submitted to them by the Minister of Education.

Social Education

For the diffusion and development of social education there has been created a Bureau of Social Education in the Ministry of Education, and a certain number of supervisors of social education are appointed in the Ministry, and directors of the same in the local governments.

Adult Education For the benefit of those adults who have had little or no

chance to receive regular education, the Ministry has requested some of the schools under its direct control or under that of the local governments to start a series of lectures. Most of the adults who are gathered to these lectures are laborers or farmers, and fuller reference to this is made in the chapter on labor.

Libraries The spread of libraries in Japan has been rather slow because of many reasons, but the place of the library in social education has been under-

stood more and more clearly with the advancement of national and international life in recent years. The Government, therefore, established a national library at Uéno, Tokyo, and at the same time has given encouragement to local public bodies for establishing their own libraries by granting subsidies to them. It also tries to help them by holding short period courses for training capable librarians. The results of these efforts have been a notable progress in libraries, as may be observed in the following table:

Year	Public Libraries	Books	Readers	Daily Average of Readers of a Library
1934	4,634	10,762,000	24,849,000	21
1935	4,794	11,376,000	24,666,000	20
1936	4,759	12,319,000	24,191,000	20
1937	4,730	12,648,000	24,124,000	20
1938	4,752	12,985,000	24,551,000	20
1939	4,772	13,453,846	25,375,381	15

In November 1931, the Tokyo Science Museum was established by the Government, and is located in Uéno Park, Tokyo. At the end of 1937, it exhibited 2,079 technical and machine models and 196,910 specimens of natural science, and in 1937, 273,486 people visited it in 356 days.

Young Men's and Young Women's Associations With the object of giving mental and moral culture to those young men and women who are no longer cared for in the schools, the organization of young men's and young women's associations has been encouraged so that there is at present hardly any city, town, or village where they are not established. These associations work, on the whole, according to the principle of self-government, quite different from the foregoing Young Men's Schools, and along the lines which they choose in view of the circumstances peculiar to themselves.

The following table shows the number of young men's and young women's associations and that of their members in the years 1934-1938:

Year	Y.M.A. Members	Y.W.A. Members
1934	15,440	2,488,113
1935	15,469	2,456,505
1936	15,719	2,450,427
1937	15,806	2,442,924
1938	15,859	2,335,548

Organization of the Dai Nippon Sei-Shonen Dan The national association of young people was organized on January 16, 1941, by the amalgamation of the Japan Young Men's Association, the National Federation of Young Women's Associations, the National League of Boys' Associations and the Imperial Boy Scout. The new association assumes a name of the Dai Nippon Sei-Shonen Dan, or the Great Japan Young People's Association, and comprises all young men, boys and girls in Japan among its members, including young men in the Young Men's Schools, other young men of 14-20 years of age, young men as leaders of 21-25 years of age, unmarried young ladies of 14-25 years of age, and boys and girls in the third year or up in the National Schools. The total number of these young people is said to be over 5 million.

Educational Expenditure

Education in Japan, as previously mentioned, is principally controlled by the State, though it is partly delegated to local public bodies and partly carried on by private individuals or organizations by permission of the Government. The expenditure incurred is met from these three different financial sources.

Part of the educational expenses of local public bodies, however, is met by the State Treasury in order that the teachers may be sufficiently paid and the burdens on the ratepayers may not be too heavy. Formerly the sum of ¥10,000,000 was yearly defrayed for this purpose, but it has been recently increased to ¥85,000,000 or more, and destitute municipalities receive special consideration in the apportionment of the grant.

Local governments are required to pay additional salaries at certain rates for long service to the teachers of schools for which they are directly responsible. To meet part of these expenses, the Government allocates a sum of money fixed annually in the National

Budget and divides it among Hokkaido and prefectures in proportion to the number of teachers. In cases where a city, town or a village undertakes to pay for residences of elementary school teachers, the higher local body is required to share part of the expense.

In recent years educational undertakings have been greatly extended and the treatment of teachers considerably improved in accordance with the post-war program of the country, and this has caused the educational expenditure to swell in a remarkable degree. The following table shows the total governmental and public educational expenditure in yen during the years 1934-1938:

Year	State Treasury	Prefectures	Cities	Towns and Villages	School Associations	Total
1934	152,105,765	100,103,429	102,318,577	202,816,370	87,274	557,434,116
1935	154,732,262	104,617,681	103,435,462	214,853,579	91,476	577,730,460
1936	151,099,914	109,120,439	119,144,631	224,908,617	102,928	604,376,529
1937	142,573,799	111,717,579	137,128,239	230,811,039	122,442	622,353,098
1938	145,642,185	118,091,381	138,575,155	230,306,977	95,969	632,711,667

GOVERNMENTAL EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

1937-1938 (In yen)

Administration	2,463,873	Blind, Deaf and Dumb education	209,614
Elementary and Secondary education	90,364,469	Universities and libraries	32,518,406
Business education	719,472	Total including others	145,642,185
Social education	3,901,879		

PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BORNE BY LOCAL PUBLIC BODIES

1937-1938 (In yen)

Kind of Education	Hokkaido & Prefectures	Cities	School Associations of Municipalities	Towns & Villages	Total
Elementary Schools	—	114,515,114	46,352	195,517,977	310,079,443
Normal Schools	10,098,714	—	—	—	10,098,714
Middle Schools	23,000,806	343,674	42,512	198,430	23,585,422
Girls' High Schools	16,542,021	3,103,163	—	2,101,683	21,746,867
Higher Schools	552,247	—	—	—	552,247
Universities	1,329,587	494,140	—	—	1,823,727
Colleges	337,246	148,478	—	—	485,724
Business Schools	22,133,551	8,187,126	—	2,530,572	32,851,249
Teachers' Training Schools	592,351	—	—	—	592,351
Young Men's Training Schools	89,930	5,113,614	3,828	24,310,438	29,517,810

Kind of Education	Hokkaido & Prefectures	Cities	School Associations of Municipalities	Towns & Villages	Total
Blind Schools	1,069,173	67,668	—	19	1,136,860
Deaf and Dumb Schools	457,692	105,040	—	—	562,732
Miscellaneous Schools	391,127	502,244	—	26,080	919,451
Kindergartens	—	1,294,591	—	556,441	1,851,032
Libraries	724,231	793,483	—	261,428	1,779,142
Miscellaneous	40,772,705	3,906,820	3,277	4,803,909	49,486,711
Total	118,091,381	138,575,155	95,969	230,306,977	487,069,482

Other Schools

There are schools in Japan proper which do not come under the control of the Education Ministry, and they have been excluded from the foregoing sections. But to complete the chapter on education we cannot pass without some mention of them. Fuller explanations may also be found in other chapters.

Peers' Schools They belong to the Ministry of the Imperial Household, and the purpose of their establishment is the education of the nobility, but admission to them is by no means restricted to children of titled families. They are called the Gakushu-in and Joshi (women) Gakushu-in. The former is for boys and is composed of three departments, namely, elementary, middle school, and college. The latter is composed of two departments, namely, high school and college.

Two Special Schools The Ministry of Foreign Affairs has two schools; one is the To-a Dobun Sho-in (Tung Wen College) in Shanghai and the other the Russo-Japanese Association School at Harbin.

The Fisheries Institute This is under the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

In the territories, schools are under the control of the Territorial Governments, as a matter of course, and full descriptions of them may be found in the chapters on territories. However, a list of the various universities and colleges is here appended.

CHOSEN

- Keljo (Seoul) Imperial University
- Keljo Imperial University Preparatory School
- Keljo Law College
- Keljo Medical College
- Keljo Technical College
- Suigen Agricultural and Forestry College
- Keljo Commercial College
- Eight private colleges

TAIWAN

- Taihoku Imperial University
- Taihoku College
- Four other colleges

KWANTUNG

- Ryojun (Port Arthur) Technical University
- Preparatory College for the same
- Four private colleges

Foreign Teachers and Students

The number of foreign teachers and students at the end of March 1938, was as follows:

Schools	Teachers			Pupils & Students		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Elementary	4	3	7	286	178	464
Normal	—	—	—	5	—	5
Higher Normal	6	—	6	128	—	128
Woman's Higher Normal	—	—	—	—	25	25
Middle Schools	38	5	43	28	—	28
Girls' High Schools	3	65	68	—	2	2
Higher Schools	69	2	71	115	—	115
Universities	108	1	109	1,778	54	1,832
Colleges	106	73	179	918	226	1,144
Business Colleges	54	—	54	252	3	255
Business Schools	29	10	39	19	—	19
Young People's Schools	—	1	1	—	—	—
Blind Schools	—	1	1	—	—	—
Miscellaneous	101	181	282	893	806	1,699
Total	518	342	860	4,422	1,294	5,716

EDUCATION

The comparison for the seven years, 1932-1938, is as follows:

Year	Teachers	Students	Year	Teachers	Students
1932	908	2,761	1934	883	2,765
1933	1,059	2,232	1935	912	4,681
			1936	906	6,942
			1937	915	8,026
			1938	860	5,716

CHAPTER XXIX
RELIGION

THE BEACON OF GREATER EAST ASIA

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CHAPTER XXIX

RELIGION

General Survey

From prehistoric ages Japan has had an indigenous cult which is now known as Shinto. Buddhism and Confucianism were introduced through Korea and China later, and Christianity more recently still. Islam, however, never gained a footing on her soil until but recently though its literature has been introduced to some extent.

Shintoism is the Japanese national religion which has its origin in the ancient traditions connected with ancestral gods. The peculiarity of Shintoism is that it has no doctrine or creed of any kind other than worship offered to the Imperial ancestors and the ancestral spirits. It is not an idolatry, as foreigners commonly understand, since there is no image enshrined in any of the Shinto shrines. A shrine is simply a place of worship dedicated to a guardian deity whose spirit is represented by a metal mirror placed on the altar. Shintoism has taught the people simplicity and purity of heart and fostered loyalty to the Imperial House and love for the country throughout the ages.

It is now divided into two, namely, national Shintoism, which is represented by the shrines, and sectarian Shintoism, which developed towards the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

Confucianism is rather a code of moral precepts than a religion, except in that it teaches some vague ideas regarding a heavenly God. In the realm of moral culture it has exerted great influence on the minds of the Japanese people and on their principles of daily life; that influence being very noticeable in the Imperial Rescript on Education of the Emperor Meiji.

Buddhism has had still greater influence on all phases of Japanese life. Its fatalism has had a retarding effect on the material progress of the Japanese as with other Oriental nations, but has induced a habit of dauntless composure in their behavior, and its broad philanthropy has given rise to a spirit of mutual help among the people, subduing egotism or individualism. Its philosophi-

cal literature fed the national thought, while its fine art has left many masterpieces enriching the cultural life of the Japanese. Buddhism is still the most powerful among the religions in Japan.

Christianity has made valuable contribution towards the civilization of Japan with its world-wide nature and positive teachings on human life. The number of believers is comparatively small, but its influence on the people's thought and morals is said to be even greater than that of Buddhism. It has raised Japan's moral standards, waging war against licensed prostitution, the low position of women, drinking and smoking, and polygamy as practised in a certain section of society. It has still to amalgamate itself with the life of the people in order to exert greater influence upon them.

Shinto Shrines

While the sectarian Shinto denominations are under the Education Ministry as other religious bodies, most Shinto shrines are supervised by the Shrine Bureau of the Home Ministry, which consists of one chief official and 64 minor officials.

The Isé Grand Shrine is the most honored of all as the first national shrine. The Goddess enshrined in it is Amaterasu-Omikami, which may be translated as Heaven-Shining-Great-Goddess. According to the Japanese mythology, Amaterasu-Omikami sent down her grandson to the Nippon Islands to rule the people by the 'Kingly Way,' giving him the Three Sacred Treasures, which have been handed down even to the present Emperor as the sacred symbols of the Imperial Throne (see Appendix, The Constitution of Japan: The Imperial Household Law Article X; and Chapter III). In the Grand Shrine and appendant shrines more than 10 gods, who represent the august Imperial ancestors, both heavenly and earthly, are installed besides the principal Goddess.

The name of the shrine comes from its location in Isé province or more accurately on the Isuzu river, city of Ujiyama, Mie prefecture. The whole sac-

red area of the Grand Shrine includes 13,135 acres.

About 74 priests are attending it under a chief priest. There are established a seminary for the education of priests, a police station, two museums, and a library in connection with the shrine.

According to the report of the Shrine Bureau, the Home Ministry, the number of shrines at the end of June 1941 was as follows:

Governmental and national shrines	308
Prefectural and village shrines	49,579
Private shrines	60,532
Soldiers' shrines	129

The number of private shrines in Japan proper has been steadily decreasing since 1889, lessening from 136,783 in that year to 60,532 in 1941, or a decrease of 76,251, less than in the previous year. There were many too superstitious and barbarous ones among them and the decrease indicates the healthy progress of the religious ideas of the people and the radical policy of the government.

The total area of the sacred campus of these shrines in 1933 (not including soldiers' shrines) covered 76,948,646 tsubo, 65,721,332 of it being government property.

The total number of priests in Japan proper at the end of June 1941 was 15,500.

For the education of priests there are one seminary of college grade at Isé as mentioned above, a department in Kokugakuin (Japanese literature) College of junior college grade, a middle school grade seminary affixed to the one at Isé, and 26 smaller places for giving a course of study.

A list of important shrines other than the Isé Grand Shrine is given below:—

IMPORTANT SHRINES

Name	Location	Date of Festival
Asama-jinja	Shizuoka Pref.	Nov. 4
Aso-jinja	Kumamoto Pref.	July 25
Atsuta-jingu	Minami Ward, Nagoya	June 21
Chosen-jingu	Keijo, Chosen	Oct. 17
Dazaifu-jinja	Fukuoka	Aug. 25
Futarayama-jinja	Tochigi Pref.	Apr. 17
Hakozaki-gu	Fukuoka	Aug. 15
Heian-jingu	Sakyo Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 15
Hie-jinja	Kojimachi Ward, Tokyo	June 15

Name	Location	Date of Festival
Hikawa-jinja	Saitama Pref.	Aug. 1
Hirano-jinja	Kamikyo Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 2
Hiyoshi-jinja	Nishinomiya, Hyogo	Mar. 18
Hirota-jinja	Shiga Pref.	Apr. 14
Ikutama-jinja	Tennoji Ward, Osaka	Sept. 9
Ikuta-jinja	Kobe	Aug. 15
Inari-jinja	Fushimi Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 8
Itsukushima-jinja	Hiroshima Pref.	June 17
Iwashimizu-hachimangu	Kyoto	Sept. 15
Izumo-taisha	Shimane Pref.	May 14
Kamakura-gu	Kamakura	Aug. 20
Kamo-jinja	Sakyo Ward, Kyoto	May 15
Karafuto-jinja	Karafuto	Aug. 23
Kashii-gu	Fukuoka	Oct. 25
Kashima-jingu	Ibaragi Pref.	Sept. 1
Kashiwara-jingu	Nara Pref.	Feb. 11
Kasuga-jingu	Nara	Feb. 13
Katori-jingu	Chiba Pref.	Apr. 14
Kirishima-jingu	Kagoshima Pref.	Sept. 19
Kitano-jinja	Kamikyo Ward, Kyoto	Aug. 4
Kumano-hayata-ma-no-jinja	Shingu, Wakayama	Oct. 15
Matsuo-jinja	Sakyo Ward, Kyoto	Apr. 9
Melji-jingu	Shibuya Ward, Tokyo	Nov. 3
Minatogawa-jinja	Koto Ward, Kobe	July 12
Mishima-jinja	Shizuoka Pref.	Aug. 16
Nogi-jinja	Akasaka Ward, Tokyo	Sept. 13
Sapporo-jinja	Hokkaido	June 15
Shiramine-gu	Kamikyo Ward, Kyoto	Sept. 21
Sumiyoshi-jinja	Sumiyoshi Ward, Osaka	June 30
Suwa-jinja	Nagano Pref.	Apr. 15
Taiwan-jinja	Taihoku	Oct. 25
Togo-jinja	Shibuya Ward, Tokyo	June 1
Toshogu	Nikko, Tochigi	June 1
Toyokuni-jinja	Higashiyama Ward, Kyoto	Sept. 15
Tsurugaoka-hachimangu	Kamakura	Sept. 15
Usa-jingu	Oita Pref.	Mar. 15
Yasaka-jinja	Higashiyama Ward, Kyoto	June 15
Yasukuni-jinja	Kudan, Tokyo	Apr. 30
Yoshino-jingu	Nara Pref.	Sept. 27

Sectarian Shintolism

Shinto Sect This sect is called by the general name given to the national cult before its later branches had developed. The principal ideas of the sect are to follow the "Great Way of the Gods," and to propagate the national cult indigenous to the people of this country. Its believers and devotees consider it their most important duty to cultivate reverence for the gods, cherish the spirit of patriotism, elucidate Heavenly Reason and Humanity, pay homage to the Emperor, and observe all the Imperial ordinances.

Kurozumi Sect This was founded by Munotada Kurozumi (1780-1850), who was born at a small village in Okayama prefecture. His main idea was to inhale, while contemplating the Goddess Amaterasu-Omikami, the energy of the

sun, and thereby to fill up the heart with satisfaction and complaisance. He teaches to avoid the following seven evils, which are against the will of the gods: (1) to be faithless to the country of the gods in which one was born; (2) to get angry and to worry over things; (3) to be arrogant and spiteful; (4) to entertain evil desires from seeing others do evil; (5) to neglect one's household affairs while in good health; (6) not to have sincerity even when one is entering upon the path of sincerity; and (7) not to accept things gratefully for which one ought to be grateful every day.

Other sects of Shinto are as follows—the teachings of all being much the same, except that some lay particular stress on the worship of one or another of the early gods:—

Shinto-shusei	Founded by Kumimitsu Nitta (1820-1902) born in Chiba Prefecture.
Taisha	Preached by Sompuku Sengé (1845-1918)
Fuso	Founded by Takekuni Fujiwara (1541-1646) and preached by Han Shishino.
Taisei	Founded by Shosai Hirayama (1815-1890)
Jikko	Founded by Hanamori Shibata (1809-1890)
Shinshu	Founded by Masamochi Yoshimura (1836-1916) of Okayama prefecture.
Ontaké	The chief center of this sect is Mount Ontaké, where the spirits of certain gods are enshrined.
Misogi	The sect of Water Purification. Founded by Masakané Inouyé (1790-1849) of Mié prefecture.
Shinri	Founded by Tsunehika Sano (1834-1906)
Konko	Founded by a farmer, Bunjiro Kawaté (1914-1863)
Tenri	Founded by a woman, Miki Nakayama (1798-1887) of Nara prefecture. Of all these sects the Tenri-kyo has perhaps the greatest number of believers; it lays emphasis on personal conduct and mental discipline, in addition to patriotism and obedience to the Emperor and Imperial ordinances. It particularizes the "eight forms of dust which must be swept away"; they are grudging, evil desires, impure attachments, hatred, enmity, anger, covetousness and arrogance.

Buddhism

It was in the thirteenth year of the Emperor Kimmel (552 A.D.) that Buddhism, first founded in India, came over to Japan after passing through China and Korea. Prince Shotoku, Regent from 593 to 628 A.D. and a devout Buddhist, was largely responsible for its rapid spread throughout the country. Six schools of Buddhism, that is, Saran, Hosso, Jofitsu, Kushi, Ritsu, and Kegon, were introduced one after another. In the reign of the Emperor Kwammu (782-805 A.D.), Tendai and Shingon flourished. New schools such as Jodo, Zen, Shin, Nichiren and others

then gradually developed. Through these long periods of its history Buddhism became further divided, owing to differences in the exposition of the doctrines and in the methods of propagation, into many sub-sects. Eleven of the principal sects still in existence are Hosso, Kegon, Ritsu, Tendai, Shingon, Yuzunembutsu, Jodo, Shin, Ji, Zen, and Nichiren; and these eleven are subdivided into fifty-eight branches.

Hosso Sect This sect was introduced into Japan by Dosho (628-700), a Buddhist priest who went to China in 653 and studied its teachings under Hsuan-tsang.

Kegon Sect Roben (688-776) of Todaiji Temple, Nara, the first propagator of this sect in Japan, learned its doctrines from the Chinese Buddhist priest Dokel who visited Japan during the Tempyo Era (729-749). The head-temple of this Sect is Todaiji in the city of Nara.

Ritsu Sect The Ritsu or the Sect of Moral Discipline ("Vinaya" in Sanskrit) was first propagated in Japan by Ganjin (686-763), a Chinese Buddhist priest, who came to Japan during the Tempyo Era (729-749). It obtains its name from the Vinaya-pitaka, according to which its followers strictly regulate their daily conduct. Toshodaiji in Nara prefecture is the head-temple of this Sect.

Tendai Sect The founder of this sect was Chisho Daishi (537-597) of the Sui Dynasty.

The Japanese priest Saicho (Denkyo Daishi, 782-835) went over to China in the year 782 during the Yennyaku Era, and studied the principles of Tendai there. On his return to Japan, he became the chief exponent of the sect in this country.

There are three sub-sects or branches in this sect, each of them having its own head-temple. They are: (1) the Tendai Branch, whose head-temple, Yennyakuji, is in Shiga prefecture; (2) the Jimon Branch, which has its head-temple in Onjoji in Shiga prefecture; and (3) the Shinsai Branch, the head-temple of which is Sakyoji in Shiga prefecture.

Shingon Sect The first exponent of this sect in Japan was Kukai (Kobo Daishi, 773-835), who went over to China soon after Saicho, the Japanese founder of Tendai.

This sect is sub-divided into eight branches, which are: Koya, Omuro, Dakakuji, Daigo, Toji, Yamashina, Ono, and Senyuji.

Three hundred years after the death of Kukai, the Japanese founder of the Shingon Sect, a priest called Kakuban known as Kokyo Daishi (1094-1143), established a new school of Shingon. Under this there are two branches now, one of which is Chizan and other Buzan. The head-temple of the former is Chishaku-in, Kyoto, while that of the latter is Chokokuji (Hasedera), in Nara prefecture.

Yuzu-nembutsu Sect The head-temple of this sect is Dainembutsuji of Osaka prefecture.

Jodo Sect The founder of this sect

was Genku, known as Yenke Daishi or Honen (1133-1212), and it was established in 1174. The head-temple, Chion-in, is in Kyoto.

One of Genku's disciples, called Shoku (1178-1247), established a new separate school at Nishiyama, which is known as the Selzan Branch of Jodo. This branch is again subdivided into three: (1) Zenrinji, its head-temple bearing the same title, is in Kyoto prefecture; (2) Komyoji; and (3) Fukakusa, Selgwanji, Kyoto, is its head-temple.

Shin Sect Shinran (1173-1262), who is known as Kenshin Daishi, founded the Shin Sect.

There are at present ten branches of the Shin Sect: Hongwanji, Otani, Bukkoji, Takata, Kibe, Kosho, Idzumoji, Yamamoto, Seishoji, and Sammonto.

Ji Sect This was first promulgated by Ippen (1239-1289).

The head-temple, Shojokoji, is in Kanagawa prefecture.

Zen Sect Under this name three Sects are comprised: Rinzai, Soto, and Obaku.

The Rinzai Sect of Zen was first taught by Yelsai (1140-1215) who came back from China in 1192. Soto finds its first Japanese exponent in Dogen (known as Joyo Daishi, 1199-1253) who studied Zen in China during the Sung Dynasty and returned to Japan in 1234. Obaku was introduced to Japan by a naturalized Chinese priest Yin-gen (1592-1673) in 1653.

There are fourteen branches in the Rinzai Sect: Kenninji, Kenchoji, Tofukoji, Engakuji, Nanzenji, Daitokoji, Myoshinji, Tenryuji, Yengenji, Shokokoji, Hokoji, Buttsuji, Kokutaiji, and Kogakuji. The Soto Sect has two head-temples, Eiheiji, and Sojiji. Obaku is undivided, and its head-temple is Mampukuji, Uji, Kyoto prefecture.

Nichiren Sect This was founded by Nichiren (1222-1281) on the merits of the Saddharma-pundarika Sutra.

This sect is sub-divided into nine branches: (1) Nichiren-shu (the head-temple, Kuonji, is in Yamanashi prefecture); (2) Hommon-shu, (Hommonji at Ikegami, Tokyo, and six other temples in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (3) Hokke-shu (its head-temple, Honjoji, is in Niigata prefecture); (4) Kempon-hokke-shu, (Kochoji and four others in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (5) Hommyo-hokke-shu, (its head-temple is Honryuji, Kyoto); (6) Nichiren-selshu, (its head-temple is Dalsekiji in Shizuoka prefec-

ture); (8) Nichiren-shu-fujufuse-ha, (its head-temple is Myokakuji in Okayama prefecture); and (9) Nichiren-shu-fujufuse-komon-ha, (the head-temple, Hon-

kakuji, is also in Okayama prefecture). (Teachings and doctrines of these Buddhist sects are mentioned in the Japan Year Book, 1939-40, pp. 656-659.)

IMPORTANT BUDDHIST TEMPLES

Sect and Branch	Head Temple	Location
Tendai Sect		
Tendai-shu	Enryakuji	Sakamoto, Shiga
Jimon-ha	Enjoji	Otsu
Shinsai-ha	Selkyoji	Sakamoto, Shiga
Kogishingon Sect	Kogobuji	Koya, Wakayama
	Dalkakuji	Sakyo, Kyoto
	Ninnaji	Sakyo, Kyoto
Shingon Sect		
Daigo-ha	Daigoji	Uji, Kyoto
Toji-ha	Toji	Kujo, Kyoto
Senyuji-ha	Senyuji	Imakumano, Kyoto
Yamashina-ha	Kanshuji	Uji, Kyoto
Zentsuji-ha	Zentsuji	Zentsuji, Kagawa
Shingishingon Sect		
Chizan-ha	Chisekkin	Kyoto
Buzan-ha	Hasedera	Nara
Shingon-ritsu Sect	Seldaiji	Fushimi, Nara
Ritsu Sect	Toshodaiji	Nara
Jodo Sect		
Jodo-shu	Chion-in	Sakyo, Kyoto
	Zojoji	Shiba, Tokyo
Nishiyama-zenrinji-ha	Zenrinji	Sakyo, Kyoto
Nishiyama-komyoji-ha	Komyoji	Kyoto
Nishiyama-Fukakusa-ha	Selganji	Nakakyo, Kyoto
Rinzai Sect		
Tenryuji-ha	Tenryuji	Saga, Kyoto
Sokokuji-ha	Sokokuji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Kenninji-ha	Kenninji	Higashiyama, Kyoto
Nanzenji-ha	Nanzenji	Sakyo, Kyoto
Myoshinji-ha	Myoshinji	Ukyo, Kyoto
Kenchoji-ha	Kenchoji	Kamakura, Kanagawa
Tofukoji-ha	Tofukoji	Higashiyama, Kyoto
Daitokuji-ha	Daitokuji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Enkakuji-ha	Enkakuji	Kamakura, Kanagawa
Eigenji-ha	Eigenji	Takano, Shiga
Hokoji-ha	Hokoji	Okuyama, Shizuoka
Buttsuji-ha	Buttsuji	Takasaka, Hiroshima
Kokutaiji-ha	Kokutaiji	Ota, Toyama
Kogakuji-ha	Kogakuji	Shiroyama, Yamanashi
Soto Sect		
	Eiheiji	Shibiya, Fukui
	Sojiji	Tsurumi, Kanagawa
	Mampukuji	Uji, Kyoto
Obaku Sect		
Shin Sect		
Honganji-ha	Honganji (Nishi)	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Otani-ha	Honganji	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Takata-ha	Senshuji	Mie
Kosel-ha	Koselji	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Bukkoji-ha	Bukkoji	Shimokyo, Kyoto
Kibe-ha	Kinshikiji	Nakazato, Shiga
Izumoji-ha	Gosetsuji	Mimano, Fukui
Yamamoto-ha	Shoseiji	Shin-Yokoe, Fukui
Seishoji-ha	Seishoji	Sabae, Fukui
Sammonto-ha	Keishoji	Toyo, Fukui

Sect and Branch	Head Temple	Location
Nichiren Sect	Kuonji	Minobu, Yamanashi
Nichiren-shu	Hommonji	Ikegami, Tokyo
Nichiren-sei-shu	Dalsekiji	Ueno, Shizuoka
Kempon-hokke-shu	Myomanji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Hommon-shu	Hommonji	Kitayama, Shizuoka
Hommon-hokke-shu	Kochoji	Kanaoka, Shizuoka
Hokke-shu	Honnoji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Hommyohokke-shu	Honseiji	Sanjo, Niigata
Fujufuse-ha	Honyuji	Kamikyo, Kyoto
Fujufuse-komon-ha	Myokokuji	Kanagawa, Okayama
Ji Sect	Honkakuji	Kanagawa, Okayama
Yuzunenbutsu Sect	Seijoji	Fujisawa, Kanagawa
Hosso Sect	Dainenbutsuji	Hirano, Osaka
Kegon Sect	Horyuji	Horyuji, Nara
	Kofukuji	Noborioji, Nara
	Todaaji	Zoshi, Nara

Christianity

Before the Restoration Christianity was first introduced into Japan by Francis Xavier, a Jesuit Father, who came to Kagoshima in 1549. This was the time when Nobunaga Oda was at the height of his power, and he gave great encouragement to the spread of the Christian religion. Hideyoshi Toyotomi, his successor, too, was kindly disposed towards it. Combined with the devout and untiring work of the missionaries, this attitude on the part of the authorities made it possible for Christianity to gain followers with wonderful rapidity. Their number is reported to have run into hundreds of thousands.

Hideyoshi, however, changed his policy later on. Christianity was interdicted, its followers were persecuted, and the missionaries had to leave the country. When the Tokugawa Shogunate was established, still stricter measures were adopted, especially after the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637. Christianity had now no hope of prospering under the rigorous Government policy of exclusion. The only port open to foreigners was Deshima, Nagasaki, where the Dutch traders were allowed to carry on their business.

The American envoy, Commodore Perry, came to Uraga in 1853, demanding a friendly commercial treaty with his country. The Shogunate Government granted this request in 1854 not only to America, but to Russia, England, France and Holland, and in the year following the three ports of Kanagawa, Nagasaki, and Hakodate were opened to foreign trade. A party of American missionaries were the first to avail

themselves of the opportunity thus offered to them. Among them were the Rev. J. Liggins, of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States of America, and the Rev. M. C. Williams, who came to Nagasaki in 1859. These were soon followed by Dr. G. F. Verbeck, of the Presbyterian Church (1859), and J. Goble, of the American Baptist Missionary Society (1860), and others. In 1864, the Rev. J. H. Ballagh, of the Dutch Reformed Church, came from America, and in the following year came Dr. Thompson, of the American Presbyterian Church.

In 1869, the Rev. D. C. Greene made Kobe the basis of his mission work representing the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The first woman missionary, Miss Kidder, of the Dutch Reformed Church, arrived here in the same year. In 1873, the American Methodist Episcopal Church and the Canadian Methodist Church sent their missionaries, and in 1876 the Evangelical Association of North America started its propaganda work.

The Restoration. When the Tokugawa feudal system collapsed and the Imperial House was restored to power, the edicts prohibiting "Kirishitan" were withdrawn, in the sixth year of Meiji (1873), and missionaries were officially permitted to establish schools, publish religious tracts, and preach their doctrines in all the sea-ports open for foreign trade. In 1872, the Rev. Brown and Rev. Ballagh of Yokohama established, aided by their young followers, a Christian church to be known as the Yokohama Yaso Kyokai, which was the beginning of the Union Church. In the following year a sister church was organized at Tsukiji, Tokyo.

This was the first Christian church in the metropolis. In 1876 Nagasaki saw another church established. Later all these churches were federated under the name of the United Church of Christ in Japan. This was the origin of the Nihon Kirisuto Kyokai. The Rev. D. C. Greene who started his mission work in Kobe established a church known as the Settsu First Christian Church. This was the first Congregational Church ever organized in Japan, and developed into the present Kobe Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In the same year the Umemoto-cho Church came into existence in Osaka, which later came to be called the Osaka Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. Some time before this, 35 students of the Kumamoto Foreign School, who were converted to Christianity under the influence of their American teacher, Captain Janes, came up to Kyoto, and entered the Doshisha College just established by J. H. Neeshima, who had lately returned from America. After their graduation from the college they grew active as propagators of Christianity, and built up the foundations of the Nihon Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In 1872, the Rev. Loomis and Rev. Ballagh conducted a Bible class for young men in the above-mentioned Church at Yokohama every Sunday afternoon. In 1873, a Congregational Missionary, Dr. Berry, set up in Kobe a Sunday-school, probably the first one conducted in the Japanese language. As to the vernacular translation of the Bible, in which Dr. Brown had been engaged for some time, the work progressed rapidly early in the Meiji Era, and the New Testament was completed in December 1879, and the Old Testament in 1886. The chief translators were Brown, Verbeck, Greene, and Maclay, while among the native assistants were Takakichi Matsuyama, Masatsuna Okuno, Masahisa Uyemura, Kajinosuke Ibuka, Goro Takahashi, and others.

Y.M.C.A. In 1880, the Young Men's Christian Association was first organized in Tokyo, and among the leaders must be mentioned Hiromichi Kozaki, Kajinosuke Ibuka, Masahisa Uyemura, and Yoshiyasu Hiraiwa.

In 1870, Miss Kidder opened a school for girls in Yokohama. This was the first institution of the kind in Japan, and from it developed the present Ferris School for Girls. Four years later another girls' school, Kobe Jo Gakuin, was erected in Kobe by the Congregationalists.

According to the statistics of 1882, there were in that year 145 foreign missionaries, 93 organized churches, 13 of which were self-supporting, 4,367 adult members, 39 mixed schools, 15 girls' schools, 9 middle schools, 7 theological colleges, 109 Sunday-schools, 49 ordained preachers, 100 assistant preachers, 37 Bible women, and 5 hospitals.

In 1883, the Church of Christ sent missionaries to Japan, and in 1885 the Presbyterian Church of the United States of America did the same. The American Society of Friends, and the Evangelical Protestant Missionary Society of Germany and Switzerland also despatched their agents. In 1886, missionaries came from the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and in Osaka a hall was set up for the Young Men's Christian Association. In 1887 the missionaries and representatives of the Episcopal Church of England and America had a conference, the result of which was the organization of the Holy Catholic Church of Japan. In the same year, the American Unitarian Association sent its representative, the Rev. A. M. Knapp, and following him came the Rev. Clay McCauley.

Freedom of Faith. On February 11, 1889, the Constitution was promulgated, and freedom of faith was definitely guaranteed by Article XXVIII. In that year, L. D. Wishard, International College Secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association, came and planned out a summer school for Bible study for the first time in this country. Since then every summer sees its work carried on. The United Church of Christ in Japan changed its name to the Church of Christ in Japan, compiled a fundamental law, settled on its creeds, and at last became an independent organization. Soon after, they put up a Board of Missions and made progress towards financial independence.

In 1890, the Universalist General Convention of America sent its missionaries. In 1895 officers of the Salvation Army came, and Gumpel Yamamuro joined it, and they at once started on their propaganda work. In the same year, the United Brethren in Christ started a mission.

Until 1901 the foreign missionaries had not been allowed to hold land in Japan, which greatly inconvenienced their activities. In that year the Home Minister gave permission to the Baptist Missionary Society in Japan to organize a corporation which could hold and man-

age lands and buildings for missionary purposes.

In 1905 the Japanese Congregationalists planned to be financially independent of the foreign mission by the end of that year; in this they were later successful.

In 1907 representatives of the Methodist Church of Canada, the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and the Methodist Episcopal Church convened in Tokyo with a view to effect a confederation of the three denominations in Japan. The First General Conference of the Methodist Church of Japan thus took place, and Yoichi Honda was chosen to be its first Bishop and was duly consecrated. In the same year F. L. Brown, of the International Sunday School Association, arrived and the outcome of this visit was the organization of the Sunday School Association of Japan, marking an epoch in the history of the Sunday School of the Christian Church. The conference of the World's Student Christian Federation was also held this year in Tokyo, in which 160 foreign visitors took part representing 25 nations. This was the first world's convention of any kind in Japan.

Roman and Greek Churches The Catholic Church has been active ever since the opening of the seaports for foreign trade. Missionaries from the *Société des Missions Étrangères* in Paris are working all over the country, which is now divided by them into seven districts: Tokyo, Osaka, Hakodate, Nagasaki, Shikoku, Niigata, and Sapporo, with a Bishop resident in Tokyo. In Shikoku there is a Spanish Dominican mission, while in Hokkaido the Franciscans have found their principal fields of activity, where are two Trappist monasteries. The Jesuit missionaries reached here again in 1908, but instead of following up their predecessors' work, they have now a college established in Tokyo and concentrate their efforts on education. Besides the Jesuits, those that are chiefly engaged in educational work are the *Missionnaires de Marie*, *Société des Soeurs de Saint Paul*, *Société de Sacré Coeur* and others. In the prefecture of Nagasaki, Catholics, who have been at work for the last 300 years, though secretly, are still in the ascendancy.

The activities of the Greek Church centered in the person of the Russian priest, Father Nicolai, who came to Japan first as priest attached to the Russian consulate in Hokkaido in 1859. He reached Japan after crossing Siberia, and after

settling in Hakodate he baptized Takuma Sawabé and two other Japanese. In 1872 he came to Tokyo where he began missionary work. In 1884 he started to build a fine large church in Tokyo, which was completed in 1891. The church was regarded at that time as the greatest and finest building of the sort throughout Japan. The internal disturbances in Russia which followed the World War made it very difficult to maintain this beautiful edifice, until in 1919 the followers succeeded in organizing an independent church known by the name of the "Orthodox Church of Christ in Japan."

Islam

Among the world religions Islam has exercised the smallest influence over the Japanese people. The Koran was translated into Japanese early in the Meiji Era (1868-1912), but the faith could not obtain many adherents, because it was introduced to Japan without political or economic elements accompanying it. Islam is not yet officially recognized by the Japanese Government and the number of Islamites in Japan is unknown, although it is believed that there are several hundreds of them.

In August 1937, the Islam Cultural Association was organized in Tokyo. Its president is Ryusaku Endo, and it issues a magazine "Islam" for the promotion of Islamic culture in Japan. A mosque was built in Tokyo, early in 1938, by Japanese Islamites. The friendly attitude of the Islamites in China and Islam countries toward Japan since the occurrence of the Sino-Japanese Conflict in 1937 has aroused the general sympathy and interests of the Japanese people in the religion and its believers.

State Regulation of Religions

Supervising Office A wholesale change of the governmental system took place at the time of the Restoration, and in the third year of Meiji (1870) the *Mimusho* was established to take care of various affairs of the state, such as general home affairs, communications, etc. In the fourth year, this office was abolished, and the office of religious affairs was transferred to the Finance Ministry. With the establishment of the *Kyobusho*, or Ministry of Religions, in 1872, the shrines and temples were placed under the care of the new office. Afterwards the *Kyobusho* was abolished

too, and all the business conducted by this office up to that time was transferred to the Ministry of Home Affairs which was established in 1873. In April 1900, the former Bureau of Shrines and Temples was divided into two sections, i.e., the Bureau of Shinto Shrines and the Bureau of Religions. All administrative policy concerning the Shinto Shrines is now in charge of the former and is entirely independent of the policy governing religions. The Bureau of Religions was transferred to the Education Ministry in 1913 and is under its jurisdiction at present.

While all the Shinto and Buddhist sects were placed under the direct supervision of the Government, giving official recognition, it gave no official recognition as regards the Christian denominations. In the case of Christianity, therefore, the official supervision did not go further than looking after its missionary activities, selection of preachers, establishment of churches or preaching halls, etc. But times have changed and a bill for Control of Religious Organizations (*Shūkyō Dantai Hōan*) was presented and approved by the 74th session of the Imperial Diet, and the new law was enforced as from April 1, 1940.

New Religious Law

The new law is comparatively simple in form and consists of 37 articles.

Essential Points 1. The new law is to be applied to both religious organizations and religious societies. A religious organization (*Shūkyō Dantai*) is understood to be an association of believers organized for the purpose of advocating a religious faith and of conducting rituals; its establishment is recognized by the Minister concerned or by the Prefectural Governor according to specific regulations provided in the law. A religious society (*Shūkyō Keshūha*) is understood to be an organization of believers organized similarly for the purpose of advocating a faith and of conducting rituals, but which is not considered by the State as coming under the category of a religious organization. As a matter of fact, the religious society is a new name for bodies hitherto known as "groups of believers in a faith analogous to a religion" (*Ruiji-Shūkyō Dantai*).

2. The proposed law groups all religious bodies into five classifications: Shinto sects (*Kyōha*), Buddhist denomi-

nations (*Shūha*), Christian and other religious organizations (*Kyodan*), temples, and churches. Actually, the first three of these include the latter two.

In regard to Shinto sects and Buddhist denominations, there has existed a basic law, however incomplete it may have been, known as Ordinance No. 19 of the *Dajōkwan* (predecessor of the present Cabinet) issued in 1884. Christian churches and other religious organizations have been left untouched, placed outside the purview of the Ordinance. The proposed law, therefore, includes them as religious organizations similar to Shinto sects or Buddhist denominations.

In principle, Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity are to be treated equally in accordance with the terms of the law. They have, however, different historical and social backgrounds. Accordingly, the law gives separate names to these religious bodies (the above-listed Shinto sects, Buddhist denominations and religious organizations belonging to Christianity and other faiths) to place a certain demarcation between them. However, in contrast to the old regulations which spoke of the religion "other than Shintoism and Buddhism," the new law names Christianity as a religious organization.

3. Establishment of the religious organizations prescribed in the law must obtain official recognition of the competent Minister in the case of the first three groups mentioned in Paragraph 2, or that of the Prefectural Governor in the case of individual temples or churches. Official recognition shall be given only to those organizations that have good traditions and stand on sound foundations, spiritual and material, and make laudable contributions to the nation and to society. The State undertakes to give protection and award special privileges to the religious organizations thus recognized.

According to the proposed law, for example, (1) the privilege of exemption from the income tax, which was hitherto enjoyed only by Buddhist temples, shall be extended to all other religious organizations; (2) the land tax shall not be levied, in principle, on the precincts of temples and churches; (3) the local surtaxes shall not be levied on the income of religious organizations as well as similar taxes on the precincts or buildings of temples and churches which are

already exempted; (4) the privilege of being exempt from registration fees shall be extended to the registration of the precincts and buildings of temples and churches; and (5) attachments on the buildings or their lots which are used for public worship by the organizations and on the treasures of temples and churches are, in principle, prohibited.

4. As to protection, the special provisions included in the new law for the creation of a juridical person by the religious organizations provides for a new method of protection.

At present Buddhist temples only are allowed to create such legal persons, although the provisions pertaining to legal persons in the civil code have rarely been applied to them. No regulation exists for the creation of a juridical person by either Shinto sects or Buddhist denominations or Christian organizations.

The new law prescribes that Buddhist temples shall be juridical persons, and that Shinto sects, Buddhist denominations, Christian and other religious organizations and churches may be juridical persons. The law also contains many other provisions relative to this matter. With legal entity thus established, the organizations may be able to solve many of their financial problems and function in a less involved manner.

5. When they meet with bankruptcy, the religious legal bodies are to be dissolved just as secular corporations are, according to the law. But the dissolution of religious organizations merely on account of financial insolvency or acquirement of heavy debts, without taking into account their spiritual aims, origin, history, traditions and existing status, may appear unreasonable.

Accordingly, the proposed law, which may order dissolution of a religious organization, makes a series of special provisions to ameliorate this situation. In case the organization becomes bankrupt, (1) the State may leave it as a recognized religious organization for the time being; (2) the competent Minister may cancel his recognition as such when he comes to the conclusion that the organization cannot be saved by any means; and (3) with the cancellation of recognition, dissolution may take effect.

These provisions may be described as legal grace granted to religious organizations in recognition of their spiritual nature. Application of legal measures

against a spiritual body only for secular reasons is contrary to the spirit of the new legislation.

6. The new law states that "the representatives (Sōdai) of the laymen shall assist the head monk or the superintendent of a temple or church in matters of administration." Formerly, the relations between spiritual leaders and the representatives of the believers were very harmonious and the latter were proud of being "great supporters" or "secular protectors" of the spiritual institutions and willingly lent their services to them. But the recent trend in and out of Buddhist temples demonstrates that this custom is on the wane. The insertion of this provision in the new law is aimed at the sound management of secular affairs indispensable to the existence of temples or churches. Harmony between a temple and its parishioners, in particular, is indispensable for the effective management of temple affairs and at the same time may give a spiritual basis to the dealings of members of communities among themselves.

7. The important protective measures and privileges given to religious organizations by the law, as outlined in foregoing paragraphs, are to be extended only to religious organizations and not to religious societies, as defined in Paragraph 1.

Application for establishment of a religious society must be made by a proper representative to the Prefectural Governor within two weeks of the founding. Neglect in this regard or the presentation of a false report is punishable by fine.

In regard to the formation of new religions or quasi-religious cults, this has hitherto been placed under the jurisdiction of the police. But in view of the present state of ideological affairs, the new law assumes partial jurisdiction and applies to such religions those regulations concerning application for recognition and other conditions specially prescribed for the supervision of the religious societies, with the purpose of halting the unworthy ones in the bud or fostering the worthy ones to healthy growth. According to the provisions of the proposed law, a way is opened to the religious societies to advance to the status of religious organizations.

The inclusion of these societies in the Law for Control of Religious Organizations may be criticized as incongruous

But it is a matter of no little importance in encouraging the general growth of religions that the law gives them a place side by side the major religious organizations defined in Paragraph 2 and affords them the opportunity of raising their status.

8. The new law includes many regulations for supervision over religious organizations and societies, but reference here shall be limited only to those which have relation to Article 28 of the Constitution of the Japanese Empire.

Article 28 states: "Japanese subjects shall, within limits not prejudicial to peace and order, and not antagonistic to their duties as subjects, enjoy freedom of religious belief." Thus, although the Government has been empowered to resort to any means of restraining against the deeds of religious believers prejudicial to peace and order and antagonistic to their duties as subjects, no special regulations have been enforced to this effect.

The new law provides measures of restraint against religious preaching, rituals or conducts contrary to the prohibition clauses of Article 28 of the Constitution, giving the competent Minister power to cancel the official recognition of the establishment of religious organizations.

9. According to the provisions of the new law, religious groups may appeal to or sue the courts for redress against unreasonable decisions on the part of supervising authorities. This is a new feature in religious regulations in Japan. Where (1) the recognition of the establishment of the religious body is cancelled; where (2) preaching, rituals or other religious functions are restricted or prohibited as prejudicial to peace and order and antagonistic to the duties of the members as subjects of the Empire; and where (3) their conducts are ordered to cease or are prohibited as detrimental to

public welfare, the aggrieved group or individual in the group may appeal for redress. Religious organizations who feel that their rights have been injured by the alleged unlawful cancellation of recognition or establishment may appeal to the Court of Administrative Litigation.

10. After legal organization of the religious organizations is completed and their finances are stabilized according to the law, the greatest problem connected with their activities is the human problem of obtaining the fittest persons for preaching and execution of rituals so that their faiths may be spread among the people and their organizations gain spiritual influence in society. The ability of these ecclesiastical leaders (the new law designates them as "teachers") bears direct consequence on the success of the religious organizations.

The new law, however, includes no provision for fixing the qualifications of the religious teachers and leaves the matter to the private regulations of the different bodies themselves, not from any neglect of the importance of the problem but to avoid possible friction with the traditional usages of different bodies which have their own individual standards, differing from those of other groups in doctrines, creeds, history and traditions. Any unification of such qualifications throughout different religious bodies may be considered an interference with their free religious activities and might, in the end, "kill the bull to strengthen its horns," as a Chinese proverb relates.

Many other important matters exist which the new law leaves untouched solely because the State wishes to respect the self-government of each religious organization and refrain from bringing different religious bodies under a single sweeping standardization.

New Order of Buddhism and Renaissance of Shinto

Introduction Not since 551 A.D. when the seeds of Buddhism were sown in the soil of this country has Buddhism in Japan been hit so hard as it is today by the storm of nationalism, except at the beginning of the Meiji Restoration (1868).

It is true that the persecution in the first years of Meiji, sent all Buddhists in the land staggering into their hiding places as their temples were burnt by

mobs and the images of the Buddha and Bodhisattvas were destroyed by excited crowds fanned by a bunch of so-called super-patriots.

Yet the followers of Buddha somehow managed to weather the storm by maintaining that Buddhism, although alien in its origin, was in perfect harmony with the national polity. Abruptly, priests embarked upon various social and educational undertakings to divert

the attention of these champions of nationalism to whose eyes everything foreign was detrimental to the maintenance of the prestige and purity of the nation.

Dark clouds had been hanging low over the world of religion in Japan as if to warn the men of Buddhist faith, who had been leading a soft and easy-going life after the termination of the Buddhist persecution toward the end of the first decade of Meiji. The outbreak of the China Affair signalled the outbreak of the storm. The storm reached its climax in the latter part of 1940, and it is not likely to stop unless the world of Buddhism is completely cleansed of the dust piled upon for the past 60 years.

The Education Ministry openly announced its plan regarding the establishment of a new order in the country's religious world as in the fields of politics and economics in October 1940. The officials of the Bureau of Religious Education expressed hope that every denomination of Buddhism would take steps immediately to reform itself so as to meet the requirements of the times.

High priests of every sect hurriedly set to work and held conferences day and night in order to discuss first of all the amalgamation of the numerous branch-sects, in accordance with the principle laid down by the Education Ministry, "One Founder, One Sect."

However, the task of making large denominations absorb small ones was not so easy as generally expected, even with the authority of abbots and the power of the Education Ministry.

First of all, the relationship between a sect and its branch-sects is not like that between a business corporation and its subsidiaries. Although the main and branch sects worship the same founder in most cases, their cardinal doctrines vary based on the different interpretations placed on the founder's teachings.

From October 1940 to March 1941, the whole order of Buddhism in Japan was aflame with heated and endless debates over the advisability of merging branch-sects with main ones. By September 1941, the merger of 20 branch sects was completed, reducing the number of branch sects in Japan from 56 to 27. It was the most epoch-making event which took place in the annals of Japanese Buddhism since its

transmission from China via Korea in 552 A.D.

Commenting on the movement to set up a new order in Buddhism, Tokujū Sato, a noted scholar of Buddhist philosophy and admirer of Dogen, the founder of the Soto Zen Buddhism in Japan bluntly declared in his article published by the Asahi in March 1941: "To place the existing Buddhist order on a new set-up is like putting an aged man, wearing an armor on a high-spirited horse. It is all well for him to ride a horse to make a rush for a new goal, but before reaching the goal, the rider might succumb to the weight of his armor."

"One may know the outline of Buddhism by studying books, but the Buddhism that breathes the breath of Sakyamuni and beats with the heart of that Indian sage is not found in the sacred scriptures written in Sanskrit or Pali. As Buddha once said, a man who tries to see Buddha in color, in form, and in words, will never see him."

"The real Buddhism is in the practice of what Buddha taught. One important end of Buddhism is to discover the meaning of new life and find new values. The leaders of various Buddhist sects in Japan today seem to have no ambition to build an ideal country in the minds of themselves and their followers. The only thing they seem to do is to cling fast to their parishners for the support of their living and for the maintenance of their temples."

Ataru Ishimitsu, a noted commentator on religion said: "The merging of one branch sect with another or the elimination of a third, will not serve to pave the way for a new order in Buddhism. On the contrary, it may kill off the very life of Japanese Buddhism. The real end of the establishment of a new order in Japanese Buddhism, it is clear, lies not in the merger or the elimination of branch sects, but in the renovation of the life of Buddhist priests and monks."

New Order of Buddhism (1) Merger of Branch Sects of Buddhism. It was in October 1940, the third year of the start of the China Affair, that the Government openly announced its deliberate plan to introduce a new order in Buddhism in Japan. The officials of the Bureau of Religion of the Education Ministry declared that all branch sects of Buddhism should be merged together just as the financial, industrial, and commercial corporations

had done in order to meet the requirements of the times.

Responding to the call of the Government, the leaders of all Buddhist sects in Japan held a conference in Tokyo on the 27th of the month to study the concrete measures to be taken by them for the amalgamation of sub-sects.

In view of the important nature of the conference, Vice Minister of Education Toyosaburo Kikuchi, and the directors of the Bureau of Religion and the Religious Section of the same Ministry attended the conference to explain the intention of the Government with respect to the unification of branch sects to the delegates from 13 large denominations.

The Vice Minister of Education told the delegates that all Buddhist priests in Japan should awaken to the gravity of the situation in which Japan is finding itself today, and that as the time to register the constitution and covenants of each sect under the provisions of the Religious Bodies Law was fixed at the end of March 1941, every sect had to make preparations for it.

After listening to the speeches by these officials in which they emphasized the dire necessity to merge various sub-sects together to pave the way for a new order in Japanese Buddhism the representatives of the 13 sects including the famous scholar Rev. Daijō Tokiwa of the Otani branch sect of Jodo Shin Sect, Rev. Ryocho Shōjiri of Tendai Sect and Rev. Kozū Gasan of the Soto branch sect of Zen, agreed to take steps immediately in the direction marked by the Government.

They also declared that all Buddhist sects in Japan should take advantage of the enforcement of the Religious Bodies Law to create a new order in the Buddhist world, and carry on an intense drive for patriotism in the heart of its believers.

Soon 180,000 priests, monks, and nuns in 70,000 temples and monasteries of 13 sects started moving toward the goal designated by the Government.

The Nichiren Sect, the denomination which was born and reared in this land unlike most other sects, and which has strong nationalistic and even militant color, led the procession, followed by the Shingon Sect, one of the oldest sects in Japan, founded in the first years of the ninth century by Kūkai, better known as "Kobo Daishi." Not falling far behind them, the Rinzai Zen

Sect rose from the seat of meditation, and began to shake all sectarian elements off its body. Within a short period, 13 sub-sects of Rinzai became one denomination.

At about the same time, three groups of the Seizan branch sects of the Jodo Sect were swiftly moving toward amalgamation, and the time finally ripened for the Tendai Sect to attempt a merger of its sub-sects.

While most denominations were steadily marching on in the same direction, the Soto Sect, one of the largest denominations in Japan failed to fall in line with them. The long standing conflict between the Eiheiji and the Sojiji factions which originated from the scramble for the leadership of the sect flared up again with the Education Ministry officials expressing the opinion that those belonging to the Eiheiji faction ought to occupy better seats in the sect, because the Eiheiji Temple is the one built by Dogen, the founder of the sect whereas Sojiji is a temple founded by Dogen's disciple. For a time, the independence of these groups as the Eiheiji Sect and the Sojiji Sect seemed unavoidable. But finally a compromise was made just in time to register at the Education Ministry on March 31.

As a result of this drive for amalgamation of sub-sects by the Education Ministry's order, the number of sub-sects of the 13 Buddhist sects in Japan was reduced to 27 from 56 by the beginning of April. However, the 13 main sects remained unchanged, which are in the chronological order as follows:

Name of Sect	Founder	Time of Establishment
1 Hosso	Dosho	574 A.D.
2 Kegon	Dosen	736
3 Ritsu	Kanjin	754
4 Tendai	Saicho	788
5 Shingon	Kukai	806
6 Yuzu-nenbutsu	Ryonin	1117
7 Jodo	Genku	1175
8 Rinzai	Eisai	1191
9 Shin	Shinran	1224
10 Soto	Dogen	1227
11 Nichiren	Nichiren	1253
12 Ji	Chishin (Ippen)	1275
13 Obaku	Ryuki (Ingen)	1654

(2) Enforcement of the Religious Bodies Law. The Religious Bodies Bill passed the 74th session of the Diet in 1939 with some difficulty after being

shelved a few times in the preceding sessions of the Diet. The law was enforced in April 1940, requiring all religious bodies in Japan to send in the necessary documents for registration to the Bureau of Religion of the Education Ministry by the end of March 1941.

Although the enforcement of the law is not likely to cause radical changes in the traditional Japanese manner of worship of Buddha, it is evident that the law is aimed to put the various sects and sub-sects of Buddhism in order once and for all as well as to make them serve the ultimate end of the State by placing their activities under the control of the Government.

As a matter of fact, the activities of Buddhist denominations in Japan have been left almost unchecked by the Government for more than 60 years since the beginning of the Meiji Era. The Governments in the periods of Meiji and Taisho showed no particular enthusiasm for establishing definite policies for religious administration.

It was not until the spread with incredible speed of the treasonous, superstitious and immoral teachings of Omoto-kyo and Hlonomichi-kyo whose founders were convicted of Lese-majeste, and of attacking a daughter of one of his followers respectively among the credulous people of this country in the first years of the Showa Era that the Government was alarmed. It was not until the outbreak of the present China Affair that the Government began to take up seriously the matter concerning religion, and think of the utilization of the influence of Buddhism for the defense of the country from the spiritual point of view.

Another object of the enforcement of the law, therefore, is the elimination of all superstitious beliefs by preventing the association of people who might propagate unsound religious doctrines and do queer things in the name of Buddha or God which are detrimental to the maintenance of peace and order of society.

Concerning this, Article 16 of the law stipulates that if and when the propagation of doctrines by religious bodies or by the preachers appointed by the bodies, and the religious rituals and ceremonies to be conducted by the bodies and the preachers are found detrimental to the maintenance of peace and order, and contrary to the duties of Japanese subjects, the competent

Minister shall restrict or prohibit the propagation of such doctrines and the performance of such rituals, and ceremonies and revoke his approval order given for the formation of such bodies.

Before the enforcement of this law, the Government, as a matter of policy, avoided to interfere with the activities of sects, and the happenings within sects as much as possible, and entrusted to the head priests of sects the task of controlling all affairs concerning their denominations.

This rather indifferent attitude of the Government toward the Buddhist denominations, however, is to be abandoned according to the provisions of Article 17, which stipulates that if any when religious bodies violate the laws of the State or the constitutions of sects and the regulations governing sects and temples, or act in a manner harmful to the public good, the competent Minister may, according to his discretion, prohibit or restrict the activities of such bodies.

(3) Activities of the International Buddhist Society in 1940-41. Amid the upheaval and twists and turns in the world of faith all through the period between the closing months of 1940 and the summer of 1941, the International Buddhist Society headed by Dr. Tezjuro Inoue, one of the foremost authorities of Buddhism in Japan, kept his head cool, and carried out numerous undertakings, contributing greatly toward the better understanding of the teachings of Buddha by the Occidental minds.

Besides publishing books and magazines on Buddhism in English and other European languages and inviting the students of Buddhism in America and Europe to this country, the society made extra efforts during the period to bring together the Mahayana Buddhists in Japan with the Hinayana Buddhists in French Indo-China, Thailand, Burma and India, by introducing the particular faith and customs of these southern Buddhists to the people of this country, and demonstrating, in turn, the accumulated assets of the Mahayana Buddhism in Japan to the people of the Hinayana countries through movies, photographs and publications.

Apparently, the society's activities in this new field were accelerated as the national interest in the southern regions gradually deepened as a result of the developments of the China Affair.

and as the number of American and European students of Buddhism visiting the Orient gradually diminished due to the aggravation of international relations.

Under the auspices of the society, meetings were held from time to time in Tokyo in 1940, for the study of the history of Hinayana Buddhism in the southern regions as well as the current activities of Hinayana Buddhism.

The Pali Language School was established by the society on April 8, 1941, with Indian monks and Japanese scholars on Pali in its faculty staff.

Crowning the activities to bridge the space between the Mahayanists of Japan and the Hinayanists of French Indo-China, Thailand, Burma, and India, Vesak, a Hinayana festival to commemorate the birth and death of Buddha, and to celebrate his attainment of Buddhahood, was held at the Hibiya Public Hall, Tokyo on July 5, 1941, before an audience of 3,000 spectators.

The ceremony was officiated by the Indian monk Rashtrapal Shandilyayana, sutras were chanted in Pali, and lectures were given by Dr. Inoue, president of the society and Dr. Nobumi Ito, president of the Board of Information to the audience among which were the Turkish Ambassador, the Mexican, Greek, and Panamanian Ministers, and other distinguished members of the diplomatic corps in Tokyo.

It was the first time in the history of Japan that the Hinayana festival was celebrated with such grandeur in this land of Mahayana Buddhism.

No less important was the publication of various books on Buddhism by the society. The 3rd volume of Studies on Buddhism in Japan was published in the summer of 1941, a collection of essays in English, French, German, and Sanskrit, written by Dr. Hakuju U, professor of Tokyo Imperial University, and the foremost authority on Indian philosophy in the world today and other Buddhist scholars in Japan.

Other publications include the Awakening to the Truth in English, The Japanese Spirit and Buddhism in Siam in 1941, and Master Hohen, the Luther of Japan in English in 1940.

Renaissance of Shinto (1) The Rise of Nationalism and Shinto. The heyday for Shinto came in the wake of China Affair. The start of a war between Japan and China in 1937 was followed

by waves of nationalism which pushed all alien elements before them, and washed clean the whole structure of Shinto.

Patriots from all sections of national life have solemnly declared that if the Japanese could understand Shinto clearer the national polity would be clarified and the morale of the nation will be enhanced further.

The Government has borrowed the phrase "Hakko Ichiu" the literal meaning of which is "The eight corners of the universe under one roof" from an old Shinto book to explain the object of the Holy War, and commentators, columnists and newspaper editors have demanded all people to look back to Shinto upon which the Japanese Empire was founded some 2,600 years ago.

For several months before and after the creation of the Board of Shinto by the Government in December 1940, all newspapers and magazines lavished ink upon the printing of the articles explaining the origin and history of Shinto and the inseparable relations between it and the national life.

Despite its having been born in the soil of Japan, Shinto has not been able to hold a strong sway over the masses as Buddhism has for the most part of Japan's 2,600 years of history. Shinto, it seems, has been standing aloof from the life of the people. Except for the grand festivals in spring and autumn, Shinto priests did not come in close contact with common people while the followers of Buddha tried hard to win the hearts of the majority by giving food to the poor, providing the sick with medicine, and praying for the dead.

Shinto remained quiet and inactive until the last days of the Tokugawa Shogunate when an attempt to restore it was made by Hirata Atsutane, a disciple of Motoori Norinaga, the greatest scholar of classic national literature and Shinto philosophy of the day.

The movement to revive Shinto ran side by side with the persecution of Buddhists. It was at this time that a great number of priests, monks, and nuns were murdered, the images of Buddha burnt and temples destroyed.

With the arrival of the Meiji Renovation, the Government took a hand in restoring Shinto, and in the first year of Meiji, a Shinto office was established by the Government.

For a time, Shinto prospered, but for

some reason or other, its influence over the people of this country began to decline between 1874 and 1876 and held but a rather obscure position in the spiritual world of this country until the start of the present China Affair.

Buddhism's mishap has always Shinto's opportunity. While Buddhists were plunged into great confusion in 1940 by the Government's order to weed out insignificant sub-sects, various Shinto sects recovered their lost territories. Riding high on the waves of nationalism, learned Shinto priests knocked the door of journalism to advocate the practice of Misogi, a time-honored Shinto rite, for the purification of the nation's mind and body so that they can clearly see the original figure of the Japanese people.

(2) The Misogi Movement. With the beginning of 1941, the impact of the war in China and Europe was felt heavier by the public. The Government felt more keenly the importance of the national unity. It, then, took up the antique Shinto practice of Misogi, examined it closely, and discovered that it could serve the immediate purpose of the Government to awaken the public to the gravity of the situation at home and abroad.

In the early months of the year, Misogi became the most absorbing topic at dinner tables; newspapers and magazines devoted much of their space for the discussion of that Shinto rite of ablution; heated verbal war was waged between those for and those against it, rivetting the eyes of the whole nation on the subject.

The people at large hardly reached a general conclusion on the problem when retired generals and admirals, nationally known politicians and businessmen, high Government officials, and even college and university professors and a few writers jumped into the cold water in early spring to realize the "Way of the gods preserved from time immemorial."

The literal meaning of the word "Misogi" is "Purification of one's body by water." According to some Shinto scholar, Misogi has its origin in the prehistoric days. Tradition says that Izanagi-no-mikoto took a bath in the streams of a river in the Tsukushi Province, Kyushu, to cleanse his body of impurities after returning from the world of death where he had met his dead consort Izanami-no-mikoto.

There is a definite method of practicing Misogi. The rite begins with Amu-no-torifune, a sort of warming-up exercise — a series of bodily movements closely resembling the motions of rowing a boat. This the modern Shintoists interpret as representing the coming of Yamato ancestors across the sea to this land thousands of years ago regarded as the forefathers of the present-day Japanese. Next comes the most essential part of the rite, Misogi in which one stands or sits in a stream, river or in the sea with the water coming up to one's neck. For about five minutes one stays submerged in this fashion, calling loudly the holy names of ancient gods.

The ablutions over, the physical jerks are conducted again on the banks of the river or on the shores of the sea before entering a Shinto house to perform "Furi-dama," literally the shaking of soul. The eyes are closed, and the hands lightly clasped in front of the chest are shaken down violently while each one is reciting the holy names of gods. Following the recitation of gods' names, they chant the words of Sun-goddess Amaterasu-Omikami, the Imperial rescript on education granted by Emperor Meiji and the poems by the same Emperor—the epilogue of the rite.

During the seclusion period of Misogi, the participants get up at dawn and go into the water twice a day in the morning and in the afternoon before they retire at about nine o'clock at night.

They are not permitted to eat more than a bowl of rice porridge with salt sprinkled over it, and a piece of salted plum a day and are not allowed to drink intoxicants and smoke cigarettes during the whole period of training.

It would be no exaggeration to say that the Misogi movement swept throughout the country from the beginning of May to the end of August.

The first Misogi training on a large scale was held at Kugenuma, Fujinawa city, Kanagawa Prefecture for five days from May 24, 1941 under the auspices of the Central Spiritual Training Office of the Imperial Rule Assistance Association.

Sixty representatives of all prefectures in Japan except Okinawa Prefecture participated in it, dressed in white robes, and tried hard to grasp the spirit of Japan in its purest form through this antique ritual of Shinto.

INDIGENIZING TRENDS IN JAPANESE CHRISTIANITY

Introductory The creation of an independent, self-supporting and self-propagating church in Japan was, from the beginning of Christian Missions, an axiomatic objective of all true missionaries and their converts. This objective had gradually been achieved more or less by individual Christian churches, notably by those of the larger Protestant denominations in the country. But with the outbreak of the Manchurian incident of 1931 when Japan had to withdraw from the League of Nations to follow her independent course and with the increasing aggravation of the Sino-Japanese Conflict which had to be conducted against the French-Anglo-American policies in China, the entire Christian churches in Japan, influenced by these national and international movements, became manifestly conscious that they must be firmly planted in the soil of the country as a constituent part of its life and culture. This process of indigenization in Japanese Christendom, accelerated by the further world-wide political and economic tensions, the consequent exodus from the country of Anglo-American Protestant missionaries within the past few years, and by the enactment of the Religious Organizations Law which went into effect April 1940 to June 1941, in the last issue of the Japan Year Book. What follows is an outline statement of the increasing indigenization process, during the year under review, July 1941 to June 1942, concurrent with the extension of the China Affair into the colossal War of Greater East Asia, within the principal Christian bodies in Japan, particularly those of Protestant affiliation.

The Greek Orthodox Church This Church commenced its work in Northern Japan by the famous Bishop Nicolai in 1859, who at his death in 1912 was succeeded in the work by Bishop Selgie. In 1917 at the time of the Communist Revolution, the church was forced to become financially independent of Russian support and had since been carrying on its work quite successfully under the able leadership of the new Bishop Selgie. He in 1940, to be in-line with the New National Structure under the growing emergency, resigned his position to be filled by a Japanese bishop. Over the question of having a Japanese Father as its bishop, the church was

divided into a conservative and a reform parties. After many months of disagreement between the two parties, the question was finally settled by the intervention of the Educational Ministry of the Japanese Government and Father Kilchil Ono of the conservative party, who had been ordained to the bishopric April 1941 in Harbin, was formally recognized as Bishop of the church at its special General Assembly July 1941 with the understanding that Shintaro Fujihira of the reform party also be ordained a bishop of the Orthodox Communion. Owing, however, to the entangled feeling between the two parties, he has not yet been ordained to its bishopric. Because of the unhealed schism in this church, it has not been able, to date, to obtain an official recognition of the Government under the Religious Organizations Law. Consequently the Greek Catholic Communion has decided to have its churches to secure their individual recognitions by the prefectural governments for the time being, hoping on the other hand to obtain a legal recognition from the Central Government in a near future. In the meanwhile this Catholic body, with 184 churches having a total membership of 41,251 communicants, headed practically by Bishop Ono and his immediate associates and the local priests under him, is conducting its ordinary work and is endeavoring to make itself naturalized to the soil of Japan. This church since the beginning of the work in 1859 had for its principal leaders the only two missionaries, Bishops Nicolai and Selgie, the rest of its workers being Japanese nationals, and so it has been largely Japanese controlled and propagative, especially so with the resignation of Bishop Selgie at which its official relation with the Central Russian Church came to an end. As the financial support of the church from foreign sources was discontinued in 1917, it was one of the first Christian communions in Japan to become self-supporting in its work. This does not, of course, mean that the church is financially strong; on the contrary it has to struggle hard to hold its own, burdened with the unhealed schism and the economic pressure of the times, while working earnestly in cooperation with the other Christian bodies to further the accomplishment of the purposes of the Japanese Government in the China Affair and the Greater East Asia War. Notwithstanding

the church has not secured its official recognition of the Government to date, its main efforts are being directed toward becoming fully autonomous and self-propagating in conformity with the requirements of the Government under war, thus to be a real part and parcel of the life of the Japanese nation.

The Roman Catholic Church The Church of Rome has the honor of first introducing Christianity into Japan through the great Jesuit missionary, Francis Xavier in the middle of the 16th century. Phenomenal success was achieved by him and his fellow missionaries in converting many local princes and their subjects, especially in Southwest Japan. However, under the Shogunate government, Christianity became a forbidden religion and severe persecutions followed, practically exterminating it from the country. With the opening of the nation in 1858, Catholic missionaries returned and the resurrection of the church was effected. Since then it has been making steady progress in a very quiet way, reaching various classes of the people through its religious, educational, social, and publicational work, mainly under the direction of foreign missionaries and by liberal contributions from foreign sources; and it has today 231 parishes with a membership of 117,760 believers, 16 bishops, 311 foreign and 147 Japanese priests, 126 foreign and 152 Japanese brothers, and 507 foreign 772 Japanese nuns, showing a considerable power of foreign control in the work of the church (with the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia, the Roman Catholic missionaries, about 160, from the Anti-Axis countries are not allowed to do their religious services, being interned at their homes or in special places). Up to the summer of 1941, all of the 15 dioceses of the church in Japan except those of Tokyo and Nagasaki had foreign bishops; the parishes, schools and other institutions were under the control of foreign priests and workers. In response to the requirements of the New National Structure and with the recognition of the church under the Religious Organizations Law in 1941, a revolutionary change was made in its organization and management. Archbishop Tatsuo Doi, who had been elevated to this high position by the Holy See Dec. 3, 1937, was recognized by the Government as Official Head, "Tōrisha," of the church. All the heads

of the dioceses are Japanese Bishops, being appointed to the positions not by the Vatican as hitherto but by Archbishop Doi. He and the diocesan Bishops form a kind of a synod which controls the entire work of the church. In this way the Catholic church in Japan has no organizational relation with Rome except "a spiritual relation." There is a considerable number of foreign priests and workers but they are now under the control of Archbishop Doi and his Japanese associates. Moreover, at the General Assembly held in summer 1941, the church declared itself independent of foreign support. Up till then the church was receiving large sums of foreign aid; since then all the work was to be carried on by the contributions of its communicants who had not given previously as liberally as they might because of the foreign support. The financial independence of the church is held to be no difficult of achievement. (It is said that the foreign workers connected with the church are supported by some special funds held by the Catholic Church in the Orient). Further, the Catholic church in Japan has been in complete agreement with the spirit and ideals of the New National Structure as well as with the purposes of the China Affair and the War of Greater East Asia as held by the Japanese Government. The Roman Church, being catholic, has quite a power of adaptatoin to the needs and aspirations of the countries in which it works. In the matter of creeds it is said to be uncompromising but with respect to their propagation the church adapts itself to local and national conditions. In the constitution of the Catholic church in Japan as recognized under the Religious Organizations Law, we read the following statement of its creed and on the method of propagation it to the people:

Art. VI. The Creed

1. We believe in God the creator.
2. We believe in the unity and trinity of God.
3. We believe in Jesus Christ, born savior of the world, as the second person of the trinity.
4. We believe in the resurrection of the body and in eternal life.

Art. X. Propagation of the Articles of Faith

The propagation of faith shall be done in conformity with the Way of the Imperial Nation so as to give to

its people sound faith and to have them practise their duties as loyal subjects to the Imperial Throne.

In accordance with the Article X, the Catholic church in Japan distinctly avows to order its believers to be faithful subjects of the Japanese Empire; and to put this aim into effect, this church, on September 4, 1941, organized "The Board of War-time Service," which was later enlarged with the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia, ordering all its members to serve the nation in every possible way. In this and in the other respects already indicated, the Roman Catholic church in Japan is becoming quite indigenous to the land and it is becoming so by converting families and even larger groups (some villages and towns, for example, in Nagasaki Prefecture are Catholic) into its faith and urging them to be true citizens of the nation, thus erasing the odium once put upon the church as being alien and inimical to the country.

The United Church of Christ in Japan Its Organizational Development. The historic meeting of founding a union Protestant church in Japan was held in Tokyo, June 24-25, 1941, attended by 300 delegates, representing the 11 blocs comprising 34 denominations with a membership of 260,000 believers and 3,500 ministers and evangelists; and the church became a fact in the history of Christianity in this country. The organization of the united Protestant church as founded embraces three divisions, the central, regional, and local church divisions. The central division consists of a council and an executive committee representing the 11 blocs, headed by the Torisha, the official head of the church. It has 8 boards, that is, on General Affairs, Evangelism, Sunday School, Education, Finance, Woman's Work, Social Welfare, and Publication, each organized with respective committees. Japan proper and Chosen and Taiwan are divided into 11 Kyoku, regional sections, with necessary committees headed by their respective chairmen. The local churches are headed by their respective pastors. All the officers and committees for the united church have been appointed and every division is fully organized. The church thus founded and organized is not a completely united church; it is a kind of federal union consisting of the 11 blocs, each retaining more or less its former denominational characteristics.

Because of the existence of such blocs and of other minor considerations, the new church was unable to obtain official recognition under the Religious Organizations Law soon after its organization in June 1941, as it was hoped. The government authorities urged for a complete amalgamation of the blocs at once, while the church leaders felt that they would have to continue several years for the adjustment of their respective organizational, financial and other important matters before they could be completely merged into a real union. After four months of constant negotiations with the government authorities, the final agreements between them and the church leaders on certain changes in the constitution of the church, especially on the existence of the bloc system for the time being, were reached with the understanding that the system of blocs should not exist indefinitely for years, but the phrase "time being" was to mean not more than three years from the time of recognition; and formal recognition of the new Church of Christ in Japan was granted on November 24, 1941, by the Educational Ministry of the Government under the Religious Organizations Law and Rev. Mitsuru Tomita, of the former Japan Presbyterian Church, was legally recognized as official head of the new church on the same day. All who had been following with keen interest the developments for church union greatly rejoiced over the official recognition under the new law. Freedom of religious belief is guaranteed by the Constitution of the Japanese Empire and Christianity is recognized as one of the three religions of the country in the Religious Organizations Law; but the newly organized Japan Christian church, so far as the Christian Religion is concerned, is the second body to receive legal recognition under the law. Such recognition means, no doubt, a great privilege for the church but it also signifies its serious duty. It has to become a really united church, discarding all denominational differences which are unnecessary foreign importations; it has to be a part of the very life of the people in order to function as a vital element in the nation. In the manner of its growth and in the matter of its outward organization, the church is quite native to the soil of Japan; and there is every reason to believe that it will be completely united in a very near future even before the expiration of the three

years of grace because the pressure not only from the outside but from within the blocs require it. This was voiced by M. Tomita at his inauguration as Head of the new church, held on February 7, 1942, in Tokyo when he urged in his address that the church must first of all be one in organization and in faith at an earliest possible date to meet the pressing needs of the time. When a complete union of the blocs is effected, the new church would have realized the great desideratum in its organizational development, thereby responding to the call of the nation under the growing emergency.

Activities of the United Church Among the activities of this church the following may be mentioned:

The Holding of a Retreat at Kutsukake. To unify and to mobilize the forces of the newly united church, it was felt very imperative that they should get together for mutual fellowship and spiritual communion in an unhurried conference. To this end, soon after the founding of the United Church, an important retreat was held under the auspices of its Board of Evangelism at Kutsukake, near the famous summer resort, Karuzawa, on August 26 to 29, attended by about 50 of the outstanding leaders of the new church, including many of the newly appointed chairmen of the regional conferences. They considered the various problems of nation-wide evangelism and sought for spiritual insight in guiding and directing the new church in this field of its work. A vital sense of responsibility and reconsecration in view of the great tasks confronting the church characterized the discussions and addresses of the four-day conference. The prominent speakers at the conference were Rev. Tamechiro Kanai, Chairman of the Board of Evangelism, Dr. Toyohiko Kagawa, and Mr. Jiro Fukui, a famous Japanese missionary to Chinese in North China under the East Asia Evangelistic Society founded in 1933 by the late General Hibiki of Japan. The spirit and aim of the conference was reflected in Dr. Kagawa's words at the meeting: "Now that the Church of Christ in Japan has been realized, the thing which concerns me most deeply is what kind of a message we have for the masses of the people throughout the country. What is our task? . . . The task facing the church as it launches out on its great mission

is to introduce to the Japanese people the Savior of the Cross. This is the only means whereby this or any other nation in this suffering world can regain its life. Without this there is no hope." The character of the conference was also portrayed in the following message it sent to all the churches in Japan: "We are profoundly convinced that the Church of Christ in Japan was established under God's special providence at this time of national emergency in order to Christianize the Fatherland. Let us therefore prayerfully avail ourselves of this opportunity, aggressively strengthen the evangelistic front and strive to realize an epoch-making advance on the part of our churches." Those present at the retreat left it all inspired, reconsecrated and resolved to undertake the great tasks of the new church. A similar retreat was held again early August 1942.

Nation-wide Evangelistic Campaign. Among the various activities of the United Church, none is more important than evangelism. The population of Japan proper is approximately 75,000,000 of which Christians of all communions number less than 400,000. Christian churches and institutions are found in many places of the country; but there are scores of regions untouched by the Gospel. These untouched areas must be reached by Christianity, not to speak of the need of strengthening the existing churches and organizations. The new church was keenly aware of this fact from its very beginning and shortly after its organization adopted, under its Board of Missions, a comprehensive plan for nation-wide evangelism, embracing such matters as the appointment of special evangelistic speakers, organization of evangelistic teams, use of religious films by the evangelistic teams, organization of prayer groups of all sorts, holding of training conferences for Christians in each prefecture, holding of conferences for the promotion of self-support, organization of city and rural evangelistic campaigns, literature evangelism and the promotion of medical evangelism. Many of these matters have been put into effect. Able speakers of wide fame as Dr. Kagawa, Rev. Kanai and others have been secured. They have been conducting evangelistic campaigns, since the fall of 1941, throughout the length and breadth of the country, under the direction of the Central Board of Missions in close co-

operation with the regional sections (Kyōku), reaching thousands of people and winning many to Christ (according to reports for the first six months of 1942, they have spoken to 53,000 people and won 300 converts, which is an encouraging result under the existing emergency).

The church is also fully awakened to its great responsibility of Gospel service on the Asiatic Continent with the growing China Affair; and with the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War, it feels its mission to the South Sea Islands and peoples. Several steps have already been taken in this direction. It is quite probable that the work of the East Asia Evangelistic Society in China and that of the South Seas Evangelistic Society will be transferred to the foreign section of the new church's Board of Missions.

The Merging of Protestant Magazines The question of merging magazines and papers published by the blocs constituting the new church was taken up with its organization. A first merger of the three papers belonging to the blocs, 2, 3, 4, former Methodist, Congregational and Baptist bodies respectively, was effected at the end of 1941 and the first number of the merged weekly paper under the name, *The Christian World*, was published in the first week in January 1942. Simultaneously with the merging of the above papers, there was brought about a merger of several Sunday School magazines into one monthly magazine, "*The S. S. Teacher's Friend*" and its first number appeared also in January 1942. A further merging of other Protestant papers and magazines has been urgently discussed under the auspices of the Board of Publication of the new church by those concerned; and a tentative plan arrived at by the Board with them embraces the following 8 kinds of papers and magazines: one monthly organ for the United Church which is now being published under the title "*The Church Bulletin*"; two weeklies, one for the blocs 1 to 5 (former Presbyterian, Methodist, Congregational, Baptist and Lutheran bodies) and the other for the blocs 6 to 11 (former Sei Kyokwai—a Holiness branch,—Japan Evangelistic Christian Church, Japan Holy Church, Kiyome Kyokwai—a Holiness branch,—Federated Independent Church, and Salvation Corps); the fourth is a bi-monthly paper for evangelistic purposes; the fifth is the present

"*The S. S. Teacher's Friend*"; the six is a Christian home journal; the seventh is a magazine for children; and the eighth is a journal of theological study combining several similar magazines now being published by different organizations. This plan is expected to be adopted and put into effect in a near future. These publications will then be all put under the management and control of the Publication Board of the new church, which can thereby unify the thoughts of its constituent bodies while presenting a united front along several lines of literary work to those outside the church.

New Church S. S. Board Incorporates Japan S. S. Ass'n. The Japan S. S. Association, which had rendered great service in the religious education of the youth in the Protestant churches during more than 35 years of its history, voted, at the 23rd convention held in Tokyo on December 1, 1941, to dissolve itself and to turn over its entire property and work to the S. S. Board of the United Church of Christ in Japan. The property of the Ass'n thus transferred to the new church consists, in part, of 227 tsubo of land in the central part of Tokyo, 353 tsubo of a re-enforced concrete building on it with necessary equipment, furnitures, and other accessories which will all be owned and used by the church as its headquarters. The work of the Ass'n will be carried on by the S. S. Board of the new church. The Board will have heavy responsibility in directing nearly 3,000 Protestant Sunday Schools with about 150,000 pupils. Fortunately it is well organized with able officers and secretaries and is already vigorously engaged in the work of religious education in close relation with local S. S. associations.

Efforts Toward United Theological Education The matter of theological education had been discussed intermittently for decades among all Protestant denominations because of the existence of too many ill-equipped inadequate seminaries with sectarian tendencies; but it had been very difficult to arrive at a unanimity of opinion on this subject. However, with the birth of the new united church, the question of theological education came to be taken up from a new angle. The church felt that it should maintain a theological seminary or seminaries of its own to train men for the work of the church. A special committee on theological

education was appointed simultaneously with the organization of the new church; it has since been constantly at work in consultation with the authorities of the Government; and it has reached a plan at its session in Tokyo on June 2, 1942. The plan reached calls for two men's theological seminaries, one for the Tokyo-Yokohama region and the other for the Kobe-Osaka-Kyoto region, of 6 year grade above the middle school, each with a 4-year special Biblical course, with a full Government recognition; and a similar theological institution in the Tokyo district for the training of women workers in the church. These theological institutions will be placed under the Educational Board of the new church. The plan will be submitted at the General Assembly of the church to be held in fall 1942 for its approval. When it is adopted and actually carried out, a great benefit will thereby be derived in the simplification and unification of theological education on a standard basis, fully competent to meet the requirements of the age and the work of the church.

Laymen's Financial Move for the Church Efficiently and properly to execute the varied work of the church, a staff of fully competent and highly trained men, needless to say, is required above all things. Next to this fundamental need, is the means to finance them and their work. With a distinct purpose of financing the newly organized united church, there was organized in Tokyo on September 17, 1941, "The Japan Christian Laymen's Association," which adopted three main objectives as follows:

1. To strive for the realization of perfect fusion and for the spirit of union within the newly united church.
2. To seek cooperation with the Christian churches of Manchoukuo, China and other lands.
3. To provide the necessary financial resources for the activities of the new church.

The purpose of the Association is clearly set forth in the following statement: "We are deeply moved by the fact that the Christian Churches of Japan have united and organized The Japan Christian Church. At this time when a new East Asian order is being established, this United Church becomes an organized force, re-enforcing the

nation spiritually in her mighty task. The future of the church is therefore pregnant with great possibilities.

"With indomitable determination the flag of evangelism has already been unfurled. A staff of trained and tried leaders has been secured. The organization of the new church has been perfected. A campaign of aggressive evangelism has been launched. It is our duty to see that those who are out on this evangelistic front are not burdened by unnecessary cares. We lay Christians have unexpectedly received a divine command to organize the Christian Laymen's Association in order to serve the united church through providing financial help, striving to realize a spirit of real union and cooperating with the Christian churches throughout the world."

The Association was fully organized with prominent laymen as its officers such as: for President, Dr. S. Uzawa, member of the House of Peers and President of Meiji University in Tokyo; for Vice-presidents, Mr. T. Matsuyama, member of the House of Representatives, Dr. T. Yamamoto, Dean Technical Department of Waseda University, and Mr. M. Toyama, another leading layman; and for Chairman of the Board of Trustees, Mr. T. Takahashi, General Secretary of the Japan Trade Association. The annual membership fee is 100 yen. The first general meeting of the Association, since its organization, was held in Tokyo on May 2, 1942, at which time it was reported that it had secured 75 members and received 12,000 yen for the church. Its initial aim is to enlist 500 members. Hitherto it has been working largely in Eastern Japan, but now it is extending its activities to other parts of the country, establishing branches in large cities. Indeed this organization of laymen is meeting an imperative need of the church. Many of the laymen already members of the Association are those who were in great favor for a united church and now this church is realized, and they are rallying to its support.

Protestant Organizations outside the United Church. Most of the Protestant denominations and some organizations have become included in the united church; but still there is quite a number especially of the latter category that are maintaining their separate existence and doing the work in their respective fields. Here we may mention a few of them.

The Japan Episcopal Church This church, having declined to be a part of the united Protestant church at its inaugural meeting, has since prepared its constitution and presented it to the Government for recognition but so far failed to secure it. Hence it has practically decided to have its churches to make preparations for securing individual recognitions from their respective prefectural governments. One of its churches in Arakawa Ward in Tokyo, named Shinai (Faith-Love) Church obtained its recognition from the Tokyo prefectural government on March 14, 1942; and the other churches of the communion are advised to follow the example of this church until the Episcopal denomination as such obtained Government recognition—which of course is quite doubtful. The Japanese Government is urging it to join the united church and many in the Episcopal communion want to follow the Government advice. But the communion still continues to remain outside the united church. In this the Episcopal church is taking a course contrary to the requirements of the New National Structure under emergency. In all other respects, however, the church is completely in agreement with all the policies of the Government. Since the fall of 1941, it became financially independent of foreign support and its positions of authority have all been filled by Japanese nationals including those of its Rikkyo University, St. Luke's Hospital (both in Tokyo) and other important institutions. Its bishops (now all Japanese) are constantly urging the believers to take their full material and spiritual share of the heavy national burden under the existing situation. Nevertheless it is greatly hoped that this denomination, which has 200 churches with 30,000 communicants and which is Protestant in origin and in essential character, shall soon be within the fold of the united church to perform the common tasks and duties in the nation.

The Japan 7th Day Adventist Church This church first came to Japan in 1896 and has since been carrying on evangelistic, educational, social work and has now 22 churches and 13 preaching places with a membership of 1,300 believers. It became completely independent of foreign support in March 1941 when its last missionary left Japan for America who was succeeded by a Japanese as head of the church. Because of its small

size, it cannot apply for Government recognition; its churches can apply only for their individual prefectural recognitions; and owing to its peculiar beliefs, it has to remain outside the united church. And yet it is endeavoring, as all other Christian communions, to make its contributions towards the needs of the nation.

The Japan Christian Educational Association This Association, organized some 30 years ago, has been a potent educational force in moulding the mind, the body and also the spiritual nature of thousands of youth in Japan. It represents approximately 100 institutions between university and middle-school grades with about 55,000 students. For special reasons, not, however, inimical to the new church, it has not as yet joined with it to become incorporated with its Board of Education. It has no property or other assets as such, but the schools, it represents, have resources of men and means. These educational institutions, being under direct control of the Government, are completely in harmony with its policies far more than other Christian bodies and institutions and are rendering great services to the nation. Unnecessary to say, they are Japanese controlled, managed, and maintained in every respect, particularly since the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia.

The Japan Bible Society and the Proposed Old Testament Revision The Society, the history of which goes back to more than 50 years, had been doing great work in spreading the knowledge of the Bible in close relation with the British and American Bible Societies, receiving considerable aid from them in matters financial and otherwise. The society had two branches, one in Tokyo and the other in Kobe, connected respectively with the American and British Bible societies. On account of the international tension, particularly of the freezing of Japanese assets by the United States and Great Britain in 1941, the society felt it wise to unify the organization and this become independent of foreign aid and control. So as a result of the action of its Board of Trustees on July 29, 1941, the society was reorganized to have a General Secretary for the Tokyo office and an ordinary secretary for the Kobe branch and to increase the number of maintenance members from 5 to 9, and so forth; and also to become

wholly independent of the foreign Bible societies. This step was taken by the society to be in line with autonomy policy of the new united church, though it did not vote at that time to be a part of the new church (The society has been publishing and distributing whole Bibles and its portions in large numbers. During the year 1939, it sold 827,417 copies of Bibles and portions and during the first half of 1940, 511,499 Bibles and portions). As a work commemorating the reorganization of the Society, it voted at the above trustees meeting to undertake a revision of the Japanese Old Testament. The present O. T. in Japanese was translated in 1887, based largely on the Chinese Bible, lacking in unity of style and in the use of words and the like; and so a need for its revisions had long been felt by O. T. scholars and others. The trustees appointed a committee of five to attend to the matter of revising the O. T. to meet the need. In Feb. 1942, the Society entrusted the revision to a central committee of six actually to undertake it. This committee has since been meeting every week and actual work of revising the O. T. is started and Japanese O. T. scholars are engaged in the work. It is to be completed within five years at a budget of about 65,000 yen.

The National Y.M.C.A. Council of Japan This Council, organized in 1903, having now under it 25 city and 160 student Y.M.C.As. in Japan proper and in Chosen and Taiwan, has been an important factor in the Christianization of the young people of the country. It was in full sympathy with the movement for a united church and intended to become a part of the church when it was realized, as indicated in the action taken by the Council on Sept. 9, 1940, namely: "The National Y.M.C.A. Council of Japan desires the establishment of a united church and when it becomes a fact, it will endeavor, by becoming a wing of the church, to be a spiritual propulsive power of it, in accordance with its traditional advocacy for cooperation among churches." But it has not, for some reasons, taken this action into effect in joining the united church. The council, however, is following the same policy of autonomy and independency as that of the united church. As a matter of fact, it achieved its autonomy even before some of the important Protestant bodies. Until recently it had an honorary foreign secretary; but now no such

personnel is connected with it. Moreover, it is intensely conscious of its responsibility to the nation under war and is attempting in every way to be one of its vital elements. Among its principles of action, we have the following: 1. We revere the Imperial Household, esteem the National Structure, and render loyalty to the Empire; 2. We follow the spirit of national foundation, and with mutual faith, love and cooperation, endeavor to exalt the Imperial Honor and establish world peace; and 3. We are determined, in the spirit of Christ, to cultivate faith, train the body and mind, and perform sincere services as good and loyal citizens of the Empire. As a practical demonstration of these principles, in addition to its services in the country, the Council has established and is maintaining four Y.M.C.A. organizations in Peking, Shanghai, Nanking and Canton, thereby contributing towards understanding between Japan and China from the Christian standpoint. For this work it has spent no less than 140,000 yen. Up to the end of 1941, in view of its cosmopolitan characteristics, the Japan Council was a member of the International Y.M.C.A. Council at Geneva. With the outbreak of the Second World War, the Y.M.C.A. Councils of Germany and Italy severed their relations with the Geneva Council. Now the War of Greater East Asia having been declared against America and England, the Y.M.C.A. Councils of which are the leading members of the International Council, the Council in Japan sees no reason for remaining in the Council at Geneva. As the result of its vote at the 42nd conference held on Dec. 13, 1941, the Japan Council withdrew from the Geneva Council and has since been devoting its entire energy as a distinctly Japanese council to the interests of the Empire. The Japan Y.W.C.A. Council is following a similar course.

The National Christian Council of Japan The Japan Christian Council was organized in November 1927, succeeding the Japan Federation of Protestant Churches. After its organization, the Council had been a very important agency in relating Christian forces in Japan with those of other nations, presenting a united Christian front to the nation, cultivating moral and spiritual ideals in the country, promoting nationwide evangelistic campaigns, fostering the spirit of cooperation among Christian bodies and in hastening the estab-

lishment of a united Protestant church in Japan. With the realization of one of its objectives, namely, the founding of the United Church of Christ June 1941, there immediately arose a question as to the continued existence of the Council and as to its character if continued. After much study and discussion, in view of a considerable number of Protestant organizations remaining outside the united church, as shown above, and of the Christian communions other than Protestant, the Greek and Roman Catholic Churches, all of which requiring close relation with each other properly to function in promoting the entire Christian movement and in furthering friendly relations with the other religious bodies and movements in the country as well as unitedly to serve the nation under the existing emergency, it was decided in the fall of 1941 to continue the Council under the new name in Japanese, the Nippon Kirisutokyo Rengokwai, Japan Christian Federation, though retaining the old name, the National Council of Japan in English, with certain changes in the organization. The Council as it is reorganized has a president, vice-presidents, an executive committee of 20 members, a general secretary and other officers. The Council is composed of the various Christian communions and national Christian organizations of the Empire as the United Church of Christ, the Japan Episcopal Church, the National Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. Councils, Japan Christian Educational Association, the Japan Bible Society, Women's Christian Temperance Union, Japan Christian News Agency etc. Leaders of the Roman and Greek Catholic Churches have been approached in regard to their cooperation with the council. They have expressed their favorable attitude toward the proposal. It is early to predict what form of cooperation they will agree to take. At any rate a need is felt by all the Christian communions and organizations that they should unite their forces under the common Christian name to take their full share of the national responsibility in the Orient. The Council can meet this need. It will promote intimate relations and cooperation between various Christian communions and organizations; cultivate relations with other evangelistic agencies working in Japan; and to further relations with Christian movements in other lands especially on the Asiatic Continent. In these and other

ways the Council can still function much until all the churches in Japan shall be completely united into one church and all the other Christian organizations shall be incorporated into this church as its constituent elements. The coming of that time is keenly awaited by all concerned including those of the Council itself who will welcome its developmental dissolution into a completely united church of Christ truly native to the soil of Japan.

Christian Movement and the Greater East Asia War Christianity is a religion of peace and universal brotherhood and Christianity in Japan forms no exception to these fundamental principles. So when the China Affair was started July 1937, the Christian Church in Japan was alarm-struck, as it had been constantly praying and working for friendly Sino-Japanese relations. But once the Affair had commenced, the church rallied to the support of the Government for the accomplishment of its objectives, while earnestly hoping a speedy and amicable settlement of the Affair. The same attitude is shown towards the War of Greater East Asia. The fact that the Christian church in Japan was intensely interested in the maintenance of the traditional and cordial relations which had been existing between the country and England and, particularly, America, was amply manifested in sending a Japanese Christian delegation to the United States early 1941 when the political and economic tension between the Japanese and the Anglo-American nations was becoming increasingly acute, as messenger of peace to prevent any unhappy clash. When, however, the Emperor, on Dec. 8, 1941, declared war on the United States of America and the British Empire, the Christians of all descriptions in Japan fully realized the inevitability of the war and its importance to the national existence and to the accomplishment of the Government policies in East Asia, and therefore have been completely in agreement with the national objectives in this war possibly more than in the case of the Sino-Japanese Conflict. They see in the war aims which are the protection of the national self-existence, the deliverance of the peoples in East Asia and the South-seas in the establishment of a sphere of Greater East Asian co-prosperity, the hand of God in using Japan, as he did of old with the Persian Empire, for the execution of his will in the creation of a new

order in Greater East Asia as well as in the world at large. Hence they are offering everything at the disposal of the nation at war and acting thoroughly in accordance with the orders of the Government, while praying for an early establishment of peace on equitable and permanent bases. All this can be read in the statements issued both by the Roman Catholic and Protestant branches of Christianity following the declaration of the war by the Emperor, which we may here give. Dr. Mitsuru Tomita, official head of the United Church of Christ in Japan, on the day just after the war was declared, sent, to its constituent churches and organizations, an urgent message as follows:

"The Imperial Rescript having been granted on Dec. 8, 1941, our nation, which had been long enduring, has taken up arms against the United States of America and the British Empire, to settle the unprecedented issue. This, for the self-defense of our country and the establishment of lasting peace in the Orient, is absolutely unavoidable course for us to take. We Christians, as loyal citizens of the Japanese Empire, should, with clear understanding of the meaning of the war, offer ourselves to the nation, put forth our utmost efforts for the protection of the Fatherland with no hesitation, and must fully perform our services on the home front. We Christians, under the emergency, particularly should be conscious of our great spiritual responsibility to the nation and should rise up to our given mission and by engendering unconquerable belief among the people and by fostering in them the spirit of perseverance, steadfastness, resoluteness, indomitableness, we should perform our distinctly Christian duty to the Fatherland." He further urged that Christians should unitedly pray for the Fatherland, show forth the spirit of their sincere patriotism in unison, in their several walks of life, perform the services out of their hearts to be examples to the fellow nationals, and should, under any circumstances, not lose their calmness and self-possession but exhibit all the more the virtues of faith, love and hope. And Archbishop Doi, of the Roman Catholic Church in Japan, on Dec. 25, 1941, issued his statement in the following words:

"The Imperial Rescript declaring war on the United States of America and

the British Empire was graciously granted on Dec. 8, 1941, clearly showing the way to be followed by the entire people of the country. We were struck with awe at the profound wisdom and thought of H.M. the Emperor. Now is the time when one hundred million Japanese people in one mind should reverently accept the Will of H.M. the Emperor and concentrate our whole resources to avert the grave danger to the national existence and to accomplish the aims of the war as set forth in the Rescript. We the believers of the Roman Catholic Church in Japan and all as children of H.M. the Emperor must perform our duties as loyal subjects, especially as teachers and believers in the Christian religion, must practice the virtues, inculcated in us by the religion, of perseverance, sacrifice, and consecration and, further, with firm conviction in the final victory, be exemplary in responding to the urgent call of the Empire under the emergency." And he later ordered a nationwide prayer service to be held in all the Roman Catholic Churches throughout the country at the second monthly observance of the granting of the Imperial War Rescript held on February 8, 1942.

Creating Japan Christianity Occidentalism in form and thought had been a marked characteristic of Christianity in Japan. Christianity introduced in modern times to this country was not the Christianity of the New Testament; it was rather a Christianity which had taken to itself many of the elements in the Greco-Roman, Germanic and Anglo-Saxon civilizations of the West. So when the Christian movement was started in Japan, it was patterned after Western forms and ideas. But with the marked growth of national consciousness during the decade beginning with the Manchurian Incident and especially under the present emergency, the study and insistence on things Japanese have become very prevalent among the people and the Christians in Japan do not remain immuned to this tendency but they fully share in it. They are awakened to the fact that the time has come for them to discard all unnecessary foreign features and elements and create a Christianity wholly congenial to the soil of Japan. Buddhism and Confucianism in coming to Japan have completely been embedded into the very life and structure of the nation. They see no reason

why Christianity cannot become such in the country. As there are Greek, Latin, Teutonic, and Anglo-American types of Christianity, so they feel there should be a Japan type of Christianity, built on the cultural background of the country, conformed to its national structure and spirit and ideals. Such a Christianity is greatly desired both within and outside the Christian circles in Japan. This desire had been expressed from the very beginnings of Christian missions in modern times but it is distinctly a very noticeable aspect in the Christian movement today. Books and magazine articles on the subject of producing a Japan type of Christianity are appearing in any number. Among the books on the subject the most representative is a treatise by Prof. T. Ueki of the Divinity School, Doshisha University, on "The Spiritual Tradition of Japan Christianity," in which he shows the possibility and need of a Japan type of Christianity in close relation with the Buddhist, Confucian, and native cultures of Japan. The Christian religion is to be cast into, and be born of, the mould of Japanese spiritual heritage. On the same subject of giving birth to a Christianity in Japan, Mr. Kenzo Ahara, head Religions Bureau, Education Ministry of the Government, in an address at a Protestant Ministers Institute June 1942 in Tokyo, said more or less to the following effect: "During the 80 years of Christianity in Japan in modern times, its leaders have made much contribution to the development of national prosperity. But the Christianity they spread has had many Western elements—they were transplanted in the country whole-sale hardly with any modification. Now we have entered into the Greater East Asia War, striving to build up a new order and a sphere of co-prosperity in this part of the world based on the Japanese traditional principle of making 'One Family under Heaven.' Hence it behooves Japanese Christians to reshape the religion fully consonant with our national ideals and objectives. They have hitherto depended too much on foreign models and ideals of Christianity. It is time that they make a thorough-going cut with Western influences and establish truly a Japan type of Christianity, both in name and in fact. The building up of a united Christian church in Japan is not merely a matter of organizational business but of establishing its genuine Christianity. It does not

mean simply to explain Christianity according to Japanese points of view, etc., but really to produce a Christianity based on the Japanese consciousness and understanding of the significance of the national structure, which will truly contribute towards the development of the nation's prosperity—a Christianity built firmly on the basis of Japanese world-view, that will perform its mission to the nation and to the ever-growing sphere of the world over which Japanese influence is extending."

In the above remarks, Mr. Ahara touches the crucial point, a clarification of which is essential to the production of Japan Christianity. In the matter of attaining organizational consolidation, native autonomy, independency and aggressive evangelism, and of necessary adaptability to the spirit and ideals of the nation at war, that are, as shown in the preceding pages, quite manifest, especially, during the year under review, Christianity has decidedly become Japanese in character. But so far it has not clarified its distinct attitude with respect to the national structure and a political philosophy based on it. Here is a vital problem for Christianity and many are at work to solve the problem. So before long there will be a Christianity cast not only in the mould of Japanese spiritual tradition but also in that of the national structure and its political philosophy. Furthermore we might note in closing that the ideas and thought-forms of Christianity in Japan have not yet, on the whole, passed beyond the stage of foreign importation; they are largely borrowed from the West. They should be born of the matrix of Japanese life. Happily much thought and attention, for instance, is being given to the drafting of a creed for the United Church of Christ that will truly be Japanese in its nature. There are many other instances showing the efforts of Japanese Christians to produce theological ideas and systems native to the soil of Japan. Such efforts will, no doubt, be crowned with success, particularly, in these days when the nation, because of the war, is on the whole severed intellectually from the West on one hand, and, on the other, is strongly conscious of its distinctive characteristics and also its great mission, especially, to Greater East Asia. In proportion to the progress of these intellectual efforts and of the other efforts in the Christian movement, Christianity will increasingly be indigenized

in the soil of Japan; and what some Japanese Christians, as reported by Lafcadio Hearn, a famous writer on Japan, in one of his books in 1893, desired, i.e., "to create a new and peculiar Christianity, to be essentially Japanese and

essentially national in spirit," and what many Christians strongly advocate respecting their religion in the country will see their fruition in this day of national awakening and enterprise unprecedented in the history of the Japanese Empire.

STATISTICS

The following are the statistics of preachers and believers in major religious faiths in Japan reported by the

Education Ministry as outstanding at the end of 1940:

Secretarian Shinto in Japan Proper

Denomination	Preaching Halls (in 1938)	Priests and Preachers (in 1938)	Believers (in 1940)
Shinto-Dalkyo	624	5,002	1,259,572
Kurozumi	452	3,893	478,890
Shinto-Shusei	213	2,171	78,190
Taisha	201	3,076	3,383,184
Fuso	520	4,127	502,052
Jikko	249	2,166	294,857
Taisei	175	2,630	546,170
Shinshu	306	2,575	876,011
Ontake	861	10,949	2,085,556
Sinri	374	2,046	1,513,182
Misogi	37	1,476	343,256
Konko	1,332	3,454	1,196,529
Tenri	16,666	85,052	4,336,568
Total	22,010	128,617	16,994,017

Buddhism

(End of 1940)

Denomination	Temples	Priests	Temple Members	Adherents
Tendai	4,422	2,953	937,086	1,213,270
Shingon	11,915	8,298	3,641,596	4,716,324
Ritsu	23	11	10,561	51,431
Jodo	8,244	6,746	3,030,034	647,815
Rinzai	5,976	4,655	1,863,723	643,816
Soto	14,272	12,062	6,536,387	328,993
Obaku	501	374	44,430	87,519
Shin	19,848	16,235	13,206,900	453,141
Nichiren	5,037	4,503	2,121,362	1,358,730
Ji	495	360	242,577	111,101
Yuzunenbutsu	355	237	165,674	4,658
Hosso	41	23	4,555	42,833
Kegon	36	26	850	33,080
Total including others	71,282	56,482	31,832,218	10,451,790

Christianity

(End of 1940)

Denomination	Believers	Denomination	Believers
Roman Catholic	113,116	Japan Seventh Day Adventist	1,046
Greek Church	11,127	Fukuin Dendo	1,042
United Church of Christ	183,730	Others	15,202
Japan Episcopal	32,153	Total	357,466

CHAPTER XXX

SOCIAL WORK

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CHAPTER XXX

SOCIAL WORK

The recorded history of social work in Japan begins with 593 A.D. as was mentioned on p. 669, the Japan Year Book, 1939-40. Social work before the Meiji era, however, was rather spasmodic and local. National social movement and systematized work began in early years of the 20th century as mentioned below.

Meiji Era The Nagoya earthquake in 1891, the North-Eastern tidal wave damages and the famine in 1896, had quickened the development of orphanage work, and at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars relief work for soldiers, child protection, and free medical treatment were also being taken up but mostly by philanthropic individuals so they hardly differed from the old-fashioned benevolent and rescue work. The World War served as a great stimulus for the development of modern social work, for the economic, social and moral changes suddenly brought about at that time and after the great conflict raised various kinds of social problems and at the same time accelerated progress in all kinds of social work, such as relief of the poor, free medical treatment, provision of houses, employment exchanges, child protection, settlement work and the like. The great earthquake of 1923 was an epoch-making event from the standpoint of the development of such work.

From the beginning of the twentieth century the Japanese Government has passed many laws on social work, the most important of them being:—the Military Relief Act of 1917, the Tuberculosis Prevention Act of 1919, the Employment Exchange Act and the Housing Association Act of 1921, the Health Insurance Act of 1922, and the Insanitary Houses Improvement Act and the Public Pawnshops Act of 1927.

Ministry of Welfare In regard to the administrative organization of social work, before the World War there were only a few officials engaged in reform and relief work, and these were tucked away in one corner of the Ministry of Home

Affairs. But in August 1917, a relief section was established in its Local Government Bureau. In 1910 this section was called the Section of Social Affairs and in 1920, it became the new Bureau of Social Affairs and a central organization for social work; in 1922, the independent Social Bureau came into existence and the administration of all social work throughout the country was brought under its control. In January 1938, the Bureau was merged into the Ministry of Welfare.

Social Work Law The Social Work Law was promulgated on April 1, 1938 and put into force on July 1 the same year, with the purpose of strengthening control and promotion of social work in Japan. The social services which come within the purview of the law include asylums for the aged, poor relief work, orphanages, day-nurseries and other services for children, medical relief work, institutions for economic relief and such services as are specially designated by Ordinance, excluding social work carried on under other laws or Imperial Ordinances, protective work connected with justice and police, military relief, temporary social work, work carried on by industrial associations and any social work which cares for less than 5 persons. (In regard to the national budget for the promotion of social services see the items of expenditure of the Ministry of Welfare and other ministries).

On May 23, 1941, the seventh general meeting of the National League of Social Workers was held at Tokyo. In the meeting the representatives of 3,266 social work organizations made decisions pertaining to the present national conditions which are undergoing radical changes along with the progress of the China Affair and the second World War. They promised to make every effort for cooperating with the village community and city district councils and the near-neighbor groups to promote the welfare of the people, to enlarge facilities for aiding those who are compelled to change occupation in the emergency by

increasing the number of institutions established for this purpose which is 60 at present, to extend helping hands to the bereaved homes of soldiers which fall outside of the Military Relief Law by increasing the number of hospitals and nurseries which is about 1,000, to help wounded or sick laborers in co-operation with factory owners, to protect ex-convicts and juvenile offenders in a more thoroughgoing way, to educate social workers to make them more efficient workers in handling new social problems and to foster young men and ladies who wish to take up this important work as their life work.

Block Committee

Legalization of Homen In (Block Committee) System The Homen In or Block Committee system consists in the appointing, by prefectural governors or other responsible bodies, of honorary committees of those private persons who are interested in social work and are able to get in easy touch with the people who need relief, so that proper relief is given the poor and the maximum results obtained. The system originated with the establishment of an advisory committee to the Saiseikai association in Okayama prefecture in 1917. Since then, partly because of the recent trend in social affairs and partly by the re-

cognition of the good results brought about by the activities of the Committees, the system has spread not only to all prefectures in Japan proper, but also to Taiwan and Chosen. The promulgation of the revised Relief Law in 1931 called for greater activity on the part of the committees.

At the end of February 1942 the number of Block Committees reached 83,000 for 10,000 blocks in Japan proper. The managing bodies of this system are the prefectural authorities, though there are a certain number of city, town or other private organizations.

The number of cases handled by the Block Committees increases every year, the figure for 1936-37 being 4,970,750.

CONDITIONS OF THE WORK OF THE BLOCK COMMITTEE

(March 1937)

Number of Committees	
Prefectural	43
City	6
Town and village	26
Private bodies	3
Total	80
Number of Blocks	
Municipalities	9,028
Blocks	9,427
Committeemen	46,204

Number of Poor Families and Their Members Which Are Registered

Kinds	Registered		Total
	Serious Cases	Ordinary Cases	
Families:			
Cities	134,361	141,695	276,056
Towns and villages	69,300	213,329	282,629
House members:			
Cities	507,804	594,170	1,101,974
Towns and villages	221,705	877,696	1,099,401

Child Protection

Child protection in Japan is divided into the following nine main classes:— (1) Care for women in pregnancy or confinement, (2) care for infants, (3) for weakly children, (4) for children of the very poor, (5) for the education of children, (6) for child-workers, (7) for maltreated children, (8) for children to be reformed, (9) for abnormal children and (10) for mother and child.

Women in Pregnancy or Confinement

The infant mortality rate of Japan was lower until 1900 than in Western coun-

tries, but since then it has gradually risen, till it reached the deplorable figure of 189 deaths for every 1,000 births in 1918. Though there has been a decrease since then, in 1938 the rate was still as high as 114. As for the still-birth rate, though there was some tendency towards decrease, it was 4.9 for every 100 births in 1938, the total number of still-births reaching 69,525. The greatest emphasis in child protection is laid on the protection and aid of expectant mothers, or the protection of children before and at the time of birth. For this kind of work there are at

present such organizations as maternity hospitals, visiting midwives and confinement advisory institutes, besides legislation for maternity protection. In March 1936 there were 52 maternity hospitals throughout the country, while visiting midwives' organizations numbered 493. Legislation for maternity protection is included in the Factory Law, the Mining Law and the Health Insurance Law. The first two laws provide that owners of industrial and mining plants shall not require expectant mothers to work if they apply for leave of absence; after child-birth the mother shall not be required to resume work for 6 weeks, though if she requests work after 4 weeks and a doctor certifies her as fit, she may be allowed to resume it.

According to the Health Insurance Law, persons insured are to receive 20 yen for the expenses of confinement and also a daily amount corresponding to 60 per cent of each day's wage throughout the non-productive period for 28 days before and 42 days after child-birth.

Infant Protection The institutions now existing are divided into the following four kinds:—(a) hospitals for the unweaned pauper infants, (b) day-nurseries, (c) institutions for providing milk or other nutritious food for sickly and undersized children, and (d) infant health consultation institutes.

(a) **Infant Hospitals.** There were 29 infant hospitals in the country in March 1936. Of these 5 were established by public authorities and the rest were managed by private bodies or individuals.

(b) **Day-nurseries.** The demand for this work has become greater year by year, owing to the recent development of industry and the influx of population into cities. The oldest institute for this work was the one established by Shōji Akazawa in the city of Niigata, June 1890. In March 1937 there were 974 in the country, of which 163 were public establishments.

(c) **Institutions for Providing Nutritious Food.** The work for providing milk was first undertaken by the Hygiene Bureau of the Home Office with the help of the city of Tokyo as an emergency measure immediately after the Earthquake of 1923, for infants whose parents were quartered in parks or other places of the city. There were 6 such organizations.

(d) **Infant Health Clinics.** The first independent organization for this kind of work was the Osaka Children's Clinic established in 1919. In March 1936 there were 152 such advisory institutes.

Child-Protection As for the legislation for the protection of poor children, it is provided for in the part concerning children in the Regulations for Relief of the Poor promulgated on April 2, 1929. According to the national survey made by the Bureau of Social Affairs in 1926, the number of widows and their children and children of widowers or whose parents were destitute of daily necessities was 133,588.

(a) **Orphan Asylums.** As was the case in Western countries, the orphanage may be said to have been one of the earliest institutions that led the Japanese toward social relief work in general. The work has made remarkable progress and is supported by the public with better understanding and large contributions. In March 1936, there were 131 orphan asylums in the country of which only 5 were founded by public bodies. The total expenses of these asylums in 1935-36 were ¥1,087,208 for 7,813 children, chiefly met by incomes from the funds, incomes from business, subscriptions and public or private donations.

(b) **Protection of Weakly Children.** Physically weak children are cared for in recreation houses located near the sea or in the woods. The first example of this kind of work was that of the Tokyo Child-Nursing Institute which took a number of weakly children to the seashore of Chiba prefecture in 1900. Later, in June 1926, the Child Protection Society, a corporation established in the compounds of the Bureau of Social Affairs, took up the work and has since provided a model example. As for the medical treatment of weakly children, the Children's Charity Hospital and the Children's Department of the Osaka Branch Hospital of the Japan Red Cross Society have been producing good results. In March 1937, there were 212 institutions for the purpose with 8,838 weakly children protected.

(c) **Protection of Children of School Age.** The elementary school attendance in Japan surpasses most of the nations of the world in its high rate. But there are a certain number of children who are kept from school partly through the operation of Article 33 of the Regula-

tions for Elementary Schools, which recognizes as right in certain cases the non-attendance of children of school age, and partly because of poverty of the family. In March 1937, the number of such children was 47,468. Encouragement of school attendance of these children, in some way or other, is made by the Government and various private bodies. Every year the Education Ministry gives Common Education Encouragement Grants to prefectures for the purpose of encouraging children to attend school. Owing to this help, the rate of school attendance of children in general has increased in a notable degree, and the percentage of daily attendance was 99.59 in the school year 1936-37.

The number of schools for giving poor children compulsory education and the number of those which have evening classes for the same purpose was 40 with 6,165 pupils in 1935-36, the expenses for them amounting to ¥119,722. Besides these schools there were 15 nurse-maids' schools with 351 pupils, at the end of March 1936.

The heavy depression in farm and fishing villages deprived many elementary school children of their lunch and the Government bore the expenses for providing lunches beginning with the year 1932, the amount granted to local governments in 1936-37 reaching ¥660,000. The number of children benefited was 922,584 in 12,264 schools during 1936-37, with an expenditure of ¥1,473,476, including ¥1,168,548 borne by public bodies and ¥304,928 borne by private bodies.

(d) Protection of Child Workers. The International Labor Conference paid great attention to this problem of protection of child workers, and its first conference, in 1919, adopted an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers employed in industries and to child night work; at the second Conference, in 1920, an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers at sea, was reached; and at the third Conference, in 1921, an agreement relating to child workers in agriculture was arrived at. In Japan, there had been some laws in force already, but the International Labor Conference, and recent labor conditions necessitated the revision of these laws and regulations. The legislative measures now in force for protection of child workers are the

Revised Factory Law of 1923, the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law of 1923, the Regulations for Relief of Minors of 1926, the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law of 1923, and the Store Law of 1934. In the Revised Factory Law Article III provides that children under 10 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day (exception being 15 hours for certain kinds of occupations.) Article IV prohibits their night work, and Article VII states that they shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed in industrial work, but those children over 12 years of age who have finished the ordinary elementary school course shall be exempted from this rule. In the Regulations for Relief of Minors Article VI provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day, and Articles XII and XIII that children under 16 years of age shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed, and Article III that in case of children under 18 years of age employed a doctor's certificate of health must be obtained. In 1935, there were 241,202 boys and girls under 16 years of age employed in factories, comprising about 10 per cent of the total number of workers. The national conference of social workers held in Tokyo on July 26, 1937, presented a petition to the Government for enforcing these protective measures more effectively.

(e) Reformatory Work. In March 1900, the Reformatory Law was enacted and the establishment of prefectural reformatories was encouraged by the Government. According to this law, however, their establishment was voluntary. In 1908, the law was revised and Prefectural authorities were compelled to found reformatories. Within two years of the enactment of the Law 30 reformatories were founded, both public and private. In August 1917, an ordinance in regard to the founding of a national reformatory, which had been pending for many years, was promulgated, and in March 1919, a State Reformatory, named the Musashino-Gakuin, was founded in

a suburban village of Tokyo. The bills for juvenile courts and houses of correction, passed by the Diet in April 1921, as the Juvenile Law and the House of Correction Law were revised and promulgated in May 1933, as the Juvenile Protection Law, effective from October 10, 1934.

In March 1939, there were 31 reformatories, with 2,914 children. The expenses amounted to ¥952,591 for 1938-39. In addition to these reformatories, there are 31 Correction Societies which are taking care of boys and girls who are not under the direct care of the reformatories.

(f) Protection of Abnormal Children. In March 1937 blind and deaf-mute children were taken care of in 78 schools for the blind and 62 schools for the deaf-mute, pupils numbering 5,041 and 5,525 respectively. The number of organizations for protecting feeble-minded and other mentally defective children was 113 in all, and the aggregate number of inmates was 1,281, in March 1937.

(g) Prevention of Maltreatment. The Law for the Prevention of Child Maltreatment, which was promulgated with Law No. 40 in April 1933, lays down the power of prefectural governors to give adequate warning against maltreatment of children by the people who have power over them, makes provisions for putting such children under the care of suitable persons when neces-

sary; and prohibits having such children engage in such performances as acrobatics and circuses or in infamous houses. It was put in force on October 1, 1933 and in the half year from October 1, 1933 to March 31, 1934, the number of children protected by the Law was 593; of the total 179 were those subjected to maltreatment by parents or relatives, while 414 were forced to overwork in petty shows or as street singers, geisha girls, etc.

In 1938 the number of juveniles protected under the Law was 504.

Mother and Child Protection With the institution of this new law the State has taken the responsibility of assisting unsupported mothers, who are unable to educate their children on account of poverty. According to investigations made by the Social Bureau in August 1937, there were 41,789 such mothers and 91,119 children in Japan proper.

In order to make the relief of these mothers and children more complete the new Mother and Child Protection Law was passed at the 70th session of the Diet. Article 1 of the Mother and Child Protection Law states that those mothers or grandmothers who have children under 13 years of age and have to earn a living by their own effort and cannot live or bring up children because of poverty are protected in accordance with the provisions of the law.

RELIEF OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN

(Amount in yen)

Fiscal Year	Children under 13 Years of Age		Nursing Mothers		Total	
	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money	Number	Relief Money
1932-33	63,140	1,301,395	1,352	35,571	64,492	1,337,096
1933-34	84,566	1,984,723	1,758	58,098	86,324	2,042,821
1934-35	91,946	2,052,264	999	19,445	92,945	2,071,709
1935-36	97,375	2,222,915	1,089	23,726	98,464	2,246,641
1936-37	100,080	2,232,412	1,206	24,342	101,286	2,256,754

Economic Protection

Supply and Improvement of Houses
(a) Building and Management of Houses by Public Bodies. In the year 1918, to meet the pressing need for economic and sanitary housing a note was issued to encourage public bodies to build and supply houses, the building cost of which might be loaned from the Funds of

the Deposits Bureau of the Finance Ministry. This loan together with a loan from the Reserve of the Post Office Life Insurance greatly facilitated the building work. Several other means were adopted to facilitate the work, namely, the sale of building materials produced from Government forests at low cost, reduction in or exemption from freight charge for transportation

of building materials, application of the Land Expropriation Law, if necessary, in case of buying land for the building of houses of public bodies, and freedom from the Registration and Construction Taxes.

The Government issued the Housing Association Law in April 1921, and it was put into force the same year. Associations are to be legal persons possessing several privileges in respect of taxation, acquisition of land, etc., working funds being loaned to the associations from the Funds of the Deposits Bureau of the Finance Ministry through the prefectural offices. The Dojun-kai, a building corporation, established immediately after the great earthquake of 1923 with a fund of ¥10,000,000, a part of the contributions for the reconstruction of Tokyo and Yokohama, has supplied many dwellings and apartments for the people in these two cities, independent of the government measure.

The sum of low interest-rate money advanced by the Government since 1921 amounts to more than ¥135,000,000. Demands for dwelling-houses gradually decreased after 1929, and the sum advanced for the purpose has decreased accordingly. The number of dwelling-houses built under the law up to November 1938 reached 83,000 (of which 6,000 were built through the Wooden Stores Construction Fund.) The number of building societies was 3,060 with a membership of 32,902, and total sum defrayed for buildings reached ¥72,190,000.

In 1941 the National Housing Association was created under the auspices of the Government with the purpose of building 300,000 dwelling houses under a 5 year plan beginning 1941. In 1942 or the second year of the plan 60,000 houses will be constructed in larger city districts, and the association will also provide factories and mines with lumber and other materials for housing their workers, the number of houses to be built by them reaching 31,445.

(b) Enforcement of the Insanitary Dwelling Site Improvement Law. Supply of dwellings is one aspect of this question and their improvement is another. The first step taken by the Government in the latter was to improve and remake the sites in cities where poorly built houses were crowded together. A nation-wide investigation made in June 1925, showed that there

were 217 such quarters with over 72,800 families and over 309,900 inhabitants. The land level was generally low, the quarters naturally damp, and an intricate network of unpleasant narrow roads, together with a congestion of small but not at all compact houses lacking in proper light and ventilation, made the place an unplanned hodge-podge. For the start of their program, the Government, taking up a plan to remake such quarters existing in the six largest cities (Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya, Kyoto, Kobe and Yokohama) and in the rural districts contiguous to them, enacted in March 1927, the Insanitary Dwelling Site Improvement Law which was enforced in the same year. Subsidies granted to local governments from the national treasury for this purpose amounted to ¥3,200,000 in 1927-1932. The work is to be continued till 1943 with a subsidy amounting to ¥1,707,685.

Public Lodgings Single working men, unemployed persons and the like, as a rule, sleep in imperfectly-equipped dorm-houses or cheap lodgings, or live with others. In 1925, there were 8,873 dorm-houses with 92,861 monthly sojourners who had families, 200,518 single persons and 208,775 one-night lodgers, amounting to 502,154 persons in all. This situation was not at all desirable viewed from any angle, and the preparation of cheap yet healthy public lodging-houses seemed an urgent need for the welfare of laborers and the like. The number of such lodgings in March 1937, was 155, with 3,599,897 one-night lodgers in 1936-37. Of the total number of lodgings 66 were free, the rest charging from 5 to 55 sen a night.

Public Markets The public markets are retail markets managed by public bodies or public welfare organizations having as their aim a cheap supply of food-stuffs and other daily necessities. According to the investigation made in November 1921, by the Bureau of Social Affairs, the average cost of food-stuffs of poor families in the city of Tokyo was 54.7% of their total living expenses. In August 1918 a rice riot which was started by poor housewives at a small village of Toyama prefecture spread over the country like a prairie fire. The situation awakened Imperial solicitude, and ¥3,000,000 was granted for relief from the Privy Purse. The Government also provided ¥10,000,000

and the amount of contributions by wealthy men and benevolent persons reached ¥25,000,000. This money was used in giving rice to the poor in the country and in opening establishments where rice was sold at lower prices. In December of the same year, the Government issued a note encouraging the establishment of public markets, and made loans available at a low rate of interest for the necessary expenses in establishing such markets. In March 1939, there were 260 such markets and sales for the fiscal year 1938-39 amounted to ¥51,364,781.

Lunch Rooms The object of the people's lunch rooms, whether attached to a public lodging-house or independent, is to provide laborers, small-salaried men and the like with simple, wholesome and sanitary meals at cheap rates. In March 1939, there were 42 of these people's lunch rooms, most of them managed by public bodies and located in cities and towns, with 7,574,400 meals taken in 1938-39. Each meal costs from 7 to 25 sen, and the total amount paid by customers reached ¥1,054,573.

Public Baths Japanese people greatly enjoy their baths, but only a small proportion of them can afford private baths. The majority have to utilize public baths. Moreover, it is not very infrequently the case that people take fewer baths than they require as the bath-charges are not low enough. Herein lies the need of sanitary, well-equipped, cheap or free public baths. The number of public baths in March 1939, was 146, patronized by 20,571,215 bathers in a year, and total charges reached ¥253,576.

Public Pawnshops The pawnshop and

the money-lender are utilized by people of small means as a simple and popular means of monetary circulation. The Public Pawnshop Law, promulgated in 1927, regulated managing bodies subsidies of 50 per cent of equipment expenses from the national treasury, loans, computation of interest and term of pledge. The financial depression throughout the urban and rural districts had caused unprecedented tightness of money among the salaried men, laborers and farmers of smaller means, and the need for public pawnshops has become more acute.

The number of public pawnshops which was only 71 at the time of the enactment of the Public Pawnshop Law, has increased every year since and reached 1,134, at the end of March 1938. Since the economic crisis of 1932, money has become tight in the rural districts, so that the Government has been making special efforts to establish pawnshops in those districts.

However, when the above mentioned number of public pawnshops is compared with that of private pawnshops which numbered 12,585 at the end of 1935, the former is still lagging far behind. In view of this the Government is determined to make further efforts for their establishment.

In examining the number of people who are benefiting from the use of pawnshops, classified according to occupation, it is found that laborers are greatest, followed by small retailers, small-scale manufacturers, farmers, salaried men and fishermen in the order named. It will be specially noted that the member of fishermen and farmers has increased conspicuously since 1932.

PAWNERS AT THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

	Pawn-shops	Labor-ers	Pawners				Total		
			Salaried men	Small Industrialists	Small Merchants	Farm-ers		Fisher-men	Others
1932-33	510	465,012	139,498	151,957	293,249	96,091	48,456	237,707	1,432,000
1933-34	765	567,355	154,810	200,600	394,526	142,487	86,964	311,070	1,857,812
1934-35	999	709,782	182,742	258,423	500,101	207,571	118,473	404,270	2,381,362
1935-36	1,079	876,966	209,984	294,519	608,453	254,466	146,809	487,403	2,878,600
1936-37	1,118	965,741	234,561	299,361	627,886	262,422	140,466	509,456	3,039,883
1937-38	1,134	972,930	255,907	302,095	630,052	271,032	141,427	495,022	3,068,465

STANDING LOANS OF THE PUBLIC PAWNSHOPS

Pawnshops	Number of Loans	Amount of Loans (In yen)	Average Standing Amount per Loan (In yen)	Amount of Loans at the End of the Fiscal Year (In yen)
1932-33	510	1,731,476	4.89	4,031,242
1933-34	785	2,254,220	5.23	5,248,027
1934-35	999	2,900,872	5.41	8,213,794
1935-36	1,079	3,497,487	5.49	8,800,083
1936-37	1,118	3,726,077	5.78	10,100,188
1937-38	1,134	3,802,078	5.74	11,520,325

Protection of Unemployed

Employment Exchanges There have been from olden times private employment exchanges called "Kelan" or "Kuchireya" conducted by individuals. But there were no free exchanges until 1901, when in Hongo Ward of the city of Tokyo there was established a free lodging-house for low class laborers and the unemployed, and along with this charitable work the first private free employment exchange was founded for the lodgers in 1905. The earliest public employment exchanges were established in Tokyo in 1911. At the close of the Great War the Home Office felt the urgent necessity of extending and developing the employment exchanges in order to meet the needs of the time. In 1920, the Office put into circulation a low interest loan for the establishment of employment exchanges to cope with the demands caused by an extreme business depression. And in June of the same year, the Home Office, in order to systematize the work of employment exchanges, took charge of all the affairs relating to them, and in order to extend, unite and develop them, allowed the Kyocho-kai to start a central managing office of all the employment exchanges in the country.

Complying with the general demand, the Employment Exchange Law was issued in 1921. According to this Act, employment exchanges are, in principle, public organizations. They are voluntarily established and conducted by the heads of cities or towns, but in some instances the Home Minister gives orders for their establishment in places where he thinks the conditions demand them. The National Government subsidizes them to the extent of one-half of the expenses for buildings and equipment at the beginning, and one-sixth or less of other expenses. One Central and several Local Employment Exchange Bureaux

have been founded for the employment exchanges in the country, and the work is under the supervision of the Home Minister and the Directors of these Bureaux. A standing committee is established to direct the management of the exchanges. There may also be established private free employment exchanges with the permission of the administrative authorities, and the aid afforded by all these employment exchanges must be free of charge.

After the enforcement of this Law, in November 1922, the convention relating to unemployment, adopted by the First International Labor Conference at Washington, was ratified and published for the encouragement of this kind of work. In addition to the provision above mentioned, the Regulations for Enforcement of the Employment Exchange Law were revised, in 1924, in order to systematize the connections among employment exchanges, and there were also newly-introduced regulations for the establishment of seasonal-employment exchanges, and of employment exchange committees in cities and towns for the promotion of this work. It is true that there are still a great many employment exchanges run for profit, but owing to the increase and improvement of public employment exchanges they are gradually decreasing. And to conform with a resolution adopted at the Washington Conference of 1919, the National Government enforced from the 1st of January, 1927, Regulations for the Control of Employment Exchanges for Profit.

In 1936 an improvement was made in the administrative organization concerning employment exchange and a subsidy was granted, as a piece of relief work, for the establishment of facilities for training the unemployed.

In view of the results obtained so far since the enactment of the laws in

connection with employment exchanges the Revised Employment Exchange Law was passed at the 69th Session of the Diet in 1936, and put in force as from September of the same year.

Important points of the revision are as follows: (1) According to the old system coordination, control and supervision of the work was in the hands of the central and local employment exchange bureaux, seven in all, but this has now been transferred to the Home Minister and prefectural governors.

(2) In the past, the principal managing bodies have been, as a rule, cities, towns and villages. But the new Act has made it possible for prefectures to act in that capacity, thus doing away with any financial difficulty and making the selection of suitable locations for the employment exchange offices easier.

(3) The revised Act makes those who intend to employ laborers en masse notify prefectural governors as to the items necessary for employment. This has been an entirely new addition, and is intended to enable prefectural governors to have ready knowledge as to the demands on labor.

In February 1941 the 378 State-operated exchange bureaux in the country were reorganized under new regulations. These were renamed the Kokumin Shokugyo Sidōsho (Bureaus for the People's Vocational Guidance) on that date, which had been known for a long time as the Shokugyō Shōkaijo (Em-

ployment Bureaus).

Accordingly the employment bureaux, in addition to the old functions connected with employment exchange, national registration, prevention of unnecessary shiftings of labor, restrictions in the employment of young men and boys, now assume to encourage, advise and guide those desiring to change occupations.

The staff of the employment bureaux in many cities, therefore, have recently been reinforced by full-time officials newly chosen from among the public to take charge of such guidance. Besides these, it has been arranged that vocational directors be commissioned for the city areas and also for such towns and villages as may require them, for the purpose of giving advices and guidance individually to employers and employees who desire to change occupations. Like the members of the district social welfare commission these directors are to be chosen from among those who are well versed and keenly interested in industrial and economic trends and the actual conditions in industrial circles. In giving advices to those desiring to make a fresh start in life, the vocational directors are required constantly to keep in touch with the employment bureaux in their respective districts.

The readers are referred to Chapter XXVI on Labor for further information of labor conditions and Governmental measures.

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE

	1933	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
General						
Situations vacant	1,451,998	1,917,983	2,297,211	2,804,162	2,930,714	3,690,400
Situations sought	1,528,291	1,679,568	1,778,145	2,092,348	2,048,192	1,928,400
Situations filled	663,315	741,642	812,327	986,141	971,083	1,118,000
Day-laborers						
Men wanted	16,897,143	12,988,711	12,561,136	10,595,992	9,177,964	8,754,628
Jobs wanted	20,124,272	14,463,730	13,666,837	11,102,030	8,921,099	7,739,225
Day's work secured	16,779,159	12,867,295	12,270,660	10,196,061	8,391,599	7,436,994

Note: The table does not include private profit employment exchanges the number of which was 1,520, the number of men wanted was 670,000, jobs wanted 403,900 and work secured through them 267,100 in 1939.

Poor Relief

General Poor Relief The Regulations for Relief of the Poor were promulgated as early as 1874. The revised Relief Law was promulgated on April 2, 1924 and was put in force on January

1, 1933. The regulations maintain the old spirit of mutual help among relatives and neighbors and, at the same time, emphasize social solidarity and public responsibility of relieving impoverished people. Those who are relieved by the law are old poor people above 65, help-

less juveniles under 13, pregnant poor women, helpless invalids and cripples, those who are handicapped by sickness, wounds or mental disorders, and poor mothers who are nursing infants under one year of age.

The period of relief should generally be for as long as it is required, but sometimes, especially when the case is taken up by a Block Committee, it is fixed, for example, at three or four weeks. The method of relief is of two

kinds, indoor and outdoor, and as for the former, such large cities as Tokyo or Yokohama have their own homes or other relief institutions, otherwise the smaller municipalities entrust the relief of the poor to those orphanages, asylums or charity hospitals which are managed by private persons or organizations.

The results of the operation of this Act since 1933 are given in the following table:

RESULTS OF RELIEF WORK
(Units 1,000 people and ¥1,000)

Kinds of relief	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937
Living cost:					
(1) Number of the relieved	176.8	185.9	166.7	190.0	199.1
(2) Expenses defrayed	4,548.1	5,055.9	4,377.3	5,414.2	5,025.1
Medical treatment:					
(1) Number of persons	33.1	34.7	49.6	32.9	35.7
(2) Expenses defrayed	608.4	738.6	1,288.3	757.2	786.7
Maternity cases:					
(1) Number of women	3.2	2.4	2.3	1.5	1.2
(2) Expenses defrayed	14.8	11.1	12.0	7.0	5.7
Help for working:					
(1) Number of persons	0.4	0.5	0.9	0.4	0.4
(2) Expenses defrayed	5.0	4.7	15.8	4.6	5.8
Total					
(1) Persons	213.5	223.5	219.7	225.0	236.5
(2) Expenses defrayed	5,176.2	5,810.3	5,894.5	6,183.1	6,423.4

Special Poor Relief Special poor relief, as against general poor relief, includes: Proper attention for those found sick, dying or dead by the roadside, and relief of sufferers from natural calamities.

Regulations now in force, issued in 1899, aim at relieving those people who are found sick on the road, the disposal of dead bodies, and care of the children who are with them. The heads of the cities or towns where they are found must apply to the prefectures concerned for authority to take charge of them in case there are no relations on whom they can depend. The expenses for their relief, if not met by those who are relieved themselves or their supporters, must be defrayed by the prefectures concerned, and they may be handed over to public or private institutions for further help. There is no limit of time fixed for their relief. In 1935-36, there were 8,030 persons found sick and the money expended for their care amounted to ¥607,194, and 4,515

deaths cared for with an expenditure of ¥58,765.

Calamity Relief Japan suffers particularly from natural calamities owing to its climate and volcanic activities. To relieve the sufferers from these calamities, the Natural Calamities Relief Fund Law and Sea Disaster Relief Fund Law were issued in 1899.

In April 1939, the total of the Natural Calamities Relief Fund amounted to ¥90,260,822, and, if Okinawa prefecture and Hokkaido were excepted, the average fund for each prefecture reached ¥1,980,000. Though particular items for which the fund is expended differ and change according to the nature of calamities, the largest amount of the fund is expended on food, shelters, and for business funds. The money expended for the relief amounted to ¥3,710,071 in 1934, ¥753,211 in 1935, ¥240,865 in 1936, ¥515,618 in 1937 and ¥1,075,818 in 1938.

The annual number of marine disasters off the coasts of Japan is over

1,000, and the average number of persons killed, injured or missing in these disasters reaches 600 or 700 a year. For the relief of these persons, the Sea Disaster Relief Law was issued in 1899, by the terms of which the heads of municipalities are invested with certain powers to give relief at the expense of the captain or owner of the ship concerned, but in case the money is not refunded by the captain or owner, or the relief proves insufficient, the expense incurred is paid by the National Government.

Military Relief The Military Relief Act has been in force since January of 1918, a part of it being revised in March 1931. It aims to give relief at State expense to those non-commissioned officers and men who are injured or suffer illness in war or during their term of service, and are, on that account, dismissed from the services, or to their families or the bereaved; to the families of soldiers and sailors who are called up for service; and to the bereaved of those soldiers and sailors who die of injuries or during their service if they find it difficult to get a living.

The relief, given under this Act, has greatly increased in recent years owing to the economic depression, the effects of the Manchurian Campaign and the China Affair. In April 1928, the Board for the Protection of Wounded Soldiers was established, then, in July the same year, the Military Protection Board was created by the amalgamation of the Temporary Military Relief Section of the Home Ministry and the Board for the Protection of Wounded Soldiers. The budgetary estimate of the Military Protection Board amounts to ¥108,000,000 for the fiscal year, April 1941-March 1942, of which ¥13,000,000 is earmarked for new works of relief, which include 20 per cent increase of the amount of grants to soldiers' homes which come under the Military Relief Law, extension of similar relief to Japanese soldiers' homes in Manchoukuo, increase of the number of tuberculosis sanatoriums from present 25 with 12,500 beds to 29 with 15,000 beds, establishment of 50 factories for giving the weak or deformed ex-soldiers suitable jobs, etc.

Health Protection

From very long ago, the Imperial Household has paid attention to the care of the sick. Hospitals for the Poor were established in 593, by Prince Sho-

toku. The present Saisei-Kai, a foundational juridical person, established by the wish of the Emperor Meiji to give medical treatment to the poor, continues the work of these ancient hospitals.

Free Medical Treatment There are many organizations which give free medical treatment, hospitals, medical consultation offices, visiting treatment societies, visiting nursing societies, etc. The Government decided to extend the work to farm-villages and fishing communities with ¥6,000,000, a part of which was donated by the Imperial House. There were 191 public hospitals and 570 smaller branch hospitals or medical clinics, according to the statistics of 1936-37. The cases treated numbered 1,163,863.

In 1941 there were 3,650 villages in Japan proper where no medical practitioners were found, and the Government commenced the work of hiring graduates of medical colleges who are to stay at these villages compulsorily for a fixed number of years.

Sanatoria, Asylums and Special Hospitals There is to be found a regulation concerning mental disease in the Taiho Laws issued in 701. But the number of sufferers increased in direct proportion to the advancement of civilization. Statistics record the fact that at the end of 1912 there were 32,964 insane persons, by the end of 1922 the figure had risen to 50,891, and in March 1939 it stood at 49,358, a decrease of 181 as compared with the preceding year, the ratio being 12.37 in every 10,000 of the population, a decrease of 0.2 as compared with the preceding year.

(a) Laws and regulations concerning insane persons. The Law for the Custody of Insane Persons was enacted in 1900, with the object of protecting the public from harm at their hands. It provides for the appointment of a responsible person to take an insane person under his custody, and if necessary, by the approval of the prefectural governor, to confine the said insane person. The expenses, according to this law, shall be borne by the estate of the insane persons or by responsible persons, as the case may be, and in case any insane person protected by the order of the head of a municipality is unable to reimburse the money advanced by the municipality, the prefecture shall bear the expenses.

The Insane Asylums Law, which may be taken as a sub-division of the previous one, gives power to the competent Minister to order and bring prefectures, if necessary, under obligation to establish insane asylums or hospitals (Art. 1), and makes provisions concerning the State subsidy.

(b) Present condition of insane asylums and hospitals. At the end of 1939 there were 7 public hospitals for the insane and 72 private asylums. There were 5,800 inpatients in these hospitals and asylums.

(c) Tuberculosis. It is almost impossible to get the exact number of cases of tuberculosis in this country, but the ratio of patients per 1,000 of the examined in accordance with the provisions of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis was 0.26, a decrease of 0.05 as compared with the previous year. In 1937, 104,962 died from pulmonary tuberculosis, that is 14.7 in every 10,000 deaths. The Government issued regulations in 1914 for the establishment of tuberculosis sanatoria in cities of more than 30,000 population, and regulated the State subsidy thereto. The present Tuberculosis Prevention Law was enacted in 1919. At the end of October 1939, there were 52 sanatoria with 12,850 patients. In 1939, H. I. M. the Empress donated a large sum of money for the relief of the patients.

(d) Leprosy. For the prevention of leprosy, the Leprosy Prevention Law was issued in 1908. By this law, aid for indigent lepers out of public funds, the order of the competent Minister for the establishment of leper-asylums by united prefectures, or the

use of private ones in lieu of public ones and other such matters are provided for. The whole country, in conformity with this law, was divided into five Divisions. Besides 9 public leper-asylums, there are 8 private ones. The Koyama Fukusei In, established by the Roman Catholic Church in Shizuoka prefecture, the Ihai En in Tokyo prefecture, the famous Kumamoto Kaisun Byoin founded by an English lady, Miss Riddell, and the Tairo In in Kumamoto prefecture have done valuable work for many years, being managed by Christian missionaries. In 1930, H. I. M. the Empress Dowager donated a large sum of money for the work. At the end of November 1939, there were 19 leper-asylums, 6 of which established by the Government and 5 by public bodies, with 8,370 patients. (See Chapter XXXI on these subjects.)

Other Social Work

There are other social work not mentioned in this chapter such as social cultural work, social reform work (abolition of the licensed prostitution system, prohibition of smoking among young people, temperance movement), the National Spiritual Mobilization movement, naturalization of Koreans, various protective work for discharged prisoners and juvenile offenders (mentioned in Chapter XXVII) and social works in overseas territories (mentioned in chapters on those territories).

Social reform is carried on by the National Temperance League of Japan, the Japan Woman's Christian Temperance Union and other temperance associations.

CHAPTER XXXI

MEDICINE AND SANITATION

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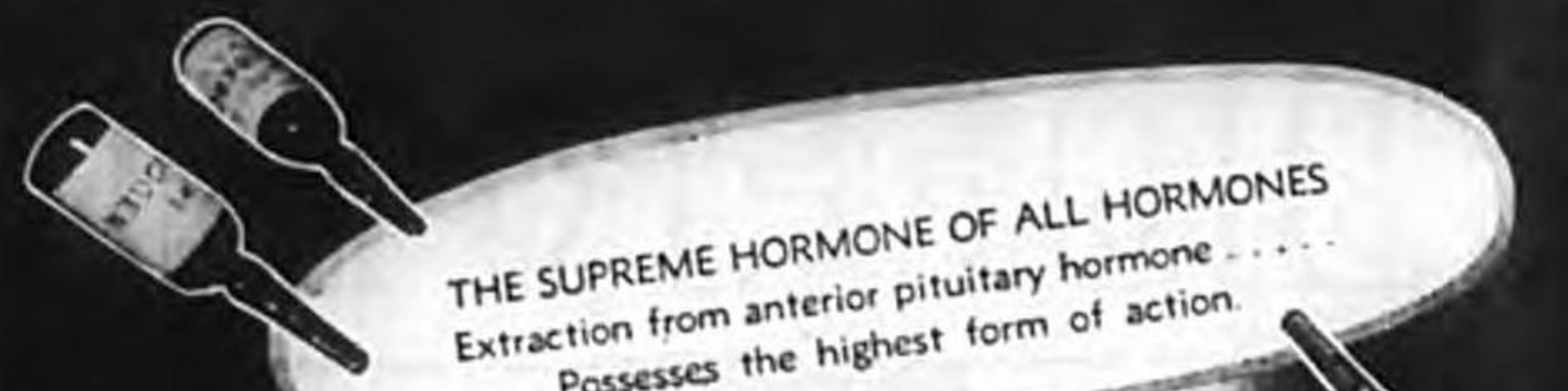
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CHAPTER XXXI

MEDICINE AND SANITATION

Sanitary affairs of the country were placed under the supervision of the Sanitary Bureau, Home Ministry, until 1938 when the Bureau was transferred to the new Welfare Ministry, and the business which had been carried on by the former Sanitary Bureau are divided into 3 Bureaus in the Welfare Ministry, i.e. the Physical Power Bureau, the Sanitary Bureau and the Disease Prevention Bureau.

Health Preservation Work

Control of Foods and Beverages
Milk In the following table are given

the quantities of milk produced during 1938:—

MILK	
Milk plants	6,377 *43
Number of milk-cows	117,207 *796
Quantity of milk produced	288,835,131 (Liters) *2,379,564
Quantity of milk handled	178,948,530 *2,105,262

Note:—* Refers to special milk.

GOAT MILK

	1938	Compared with 1937 (Liters)
Number of goat-milk dairies	634	20 (incr.)
Number of milk-goats	6,272	210 (decr.)
Quantity of goat's milk produced	3,338,651	1,762,885 (incr.)

MILK-PRODUCTS

	1938 (kg.)	Compared with the preceding year (kg.)
Condensed milk	17,216,073	6,517,385 (decr.)
Unsweetened condensed milk	5,942,153	33,070 (incr.)
Condensed skimmed milk	4,580,576	1,922,696 (incr.)
Powdered milk	1,254,061	359,415 (incr.)
Unsweetened powdered milk	885,185	628,922 (incr.)
Powdered skimmed milk	159,832	122,913 (incr.)
Butter	5,088,299	1,495,625 (incr.)

Snow and Ice The number of traders in snow and ice (those who gather and sell natural ice, and those who manufacture ice artificially and sell it for the purpose of consumption) at the

end of 1938 and the quantity of snow and ice gathered and manufactured during the year compared with the figures for the preceding year are given in the following table:—

	1938	Compared with 1937
Traders in snow and ice	1,648 persons	12 (incr.)
Artificial ice	2,520,620,982 kg.	178,418,137 (decr.)
Natural ice	146,070,972 "	86,779,907 (incr.)
Snow	234,768 "	80,016 (incr.)

Non-alcoholic Drinks The number of manufacturers of non-alcoholic drinks at the end of 1938 was 3,431 showing an increase of 84 over the preceding year,

	Compared with	
	1938	1937
Mineral water and plain soda water	697	29 (incr.)
Ramuné	1,754	81 (decr.)
Cider	1,502	40 (decr.)
Lemonade (including fruit water, peppermint water and cinnamon bark juice)	2,002	44 (incr.)
Fruit juice, syrup and others	1,602	29 (decr.)
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	234	4 (incr.)

The following table gives the quantity of non-alcoholic drinks manufactured in 1938:

	Compared with the preceding year	
	1938 (Liters)	
Mineral water and plain soda water	14,726,408	6,838,436 (incr.)
Ramuné	45,510,858	1,766,011 (")
Cider	102,287,296	50,109,923 (")
Lemonade (including fruit water, peppermint and cinnamon bark juice)	19,174,621	688,326 (")
Fruit juice, syrup and others	18,890,332	1,216,811 (")
Acid drinks made from milk or milk-products	31,442,179	28,489,198 (")
Total	232,031,694	88,904,705 (")

Waterworks During the year from April 1938 to March 1939, sanction was given for the construction of waterworks in 9 localities.

Undertaken by	No. of Waterworks to be constructed	No. of Waterworks Completed
Public bodies	529	489
Associations	8	7
Private parties	115	108
Total	652	604

On April 1, 1938, there were 657 waterworks in operation.
(See Chapter XX, Public Utilities.)

Sewerage During the year 1937, permission to construct sewers was given to three places, namely; Seto city, Aichi prefecture, Himeji city and Sumiyoshi village, Hyogo prefecture.

On April 1, 1938, the places which had already obtained permission to construct sewers were 40 places, consisting of 41 cities, 8 towns and 2 villages.

Slaughter-houses The total number of

slaughter-houses at the end of 1938 was 721, of which 105 were established by cities, 381 by towns and villages, 51 by livestock raisers or industrial associations, 184 by private individuals.

Slaughtering The number of animals of various kinds slaughtered in 1938 for food purpose and its comparison with the figures for the preceding year are given here (those slaughtered in emergencies or for household use are not included):

Kind of Animals	No. of head slaughtered	
	in 1938	Compared with 1937
Cattle	366,692 head	21,307 (incr.)
Calves	35,182 "	8,479 (decr.)
Sheep	2,880 "	326 (incr.)
Goats	6,840 "	2,633 (")
Pigs	1,175,673 "	46,576 (decr.)
Horses	39,587 "	11,840 (")

The following table gives the weight of meat yielded in 1938 by the slaughtered animals and a comparison of the yield with that of the preceding year:

	Total Weight		Average Weight Per Head	
	1938 kg.	Compared with 1937 kg.	1938 kg.	Compared with 1937 kg.
Cattle	69,416,192	4,893,070 (incr.)	189.30	2.48 (incr.)
Calves	1,649,141	998,488 (decr.)	46.87	13.77 (decr.)
Sheep	52,633	5,706 (incr.)	18.40	0.12 (decr.)
Goats	79,382	35,728 (incr.)	11.61	1.23 (incr.)
Pigs	59,262,653	780,096 (decr.)	50.41	1.29 (incr.)
Horses	5,675,371	4,821,780 (decr.)	143.36	3.60 (decr.)

Inspection of Imported Meat The total amount of meat imported in 1938 at the ports of Yokohama, Tsuruga, Osaka, Kobe, Ujina, Shimonoseki, Moji, Nagasaki and Izuhara was 8,081,360 kilograms, of which 160 kilograms were condemned. Compared with the preceding year, the amount of meat inspected decreased by 5,005,124 kilograms, and condemned meat by 3,359 kilograms. Classified by the kinds of meat, it was as follows:

	Weight of meat inspected (in kg.)	Weight of meat condemned (in kg.)	Ratio of condemned meat (%)
Fresh beef	148,756	—	—
Chilled beef	1,558,631	—	—
Frozen beef	4,044,588	110	0.02
Mutton	15,813	—	—
Pork	313,512	70	0.01
Total	8,081,360	160	0.01

Poisoning The total number of persons poisoned in 1938 was 10,380 (a decrease of 2,284 on the preceding year), of which 5,060 (48.67 per cent) were poisoned intentionally, 5,298 (51.04 per cent) by accident and 22 (0.21 per cent) through other's injuries; and of these persons poisoned 2,476 died, of which 2,134 were those poisoned intentionally, 329 those poisoned by accident, and 13 those poisoned by others, so that 87.81 per cent of those intentionally poisoned died, 13.28 per cent of those accidentally poisoned also died, and 0.50 per cent of those poisoned through

other's injuries also succumbed. Of poisonous substance the most frequently used in intentional poisoning and poisoning through other's injuries are chemicals, especially a preparation containing phosphorus; accidental poisoning is mostly due to eating poisonous animals, plants or putrefied food.

Burials and Cremations The total number of burial-grounds at the end of 1938 was 973,342 and their total area was 24,194 hectares, making the average area of burial-ground 0.02 hectare, and the total number of crematoria at the end of the same year was 34,487, in which 736,829 bodies were cremated during the year, so that a crematorium burnt on an average 21.37 bodies. In the same year 633,486 bodies were buried uncremated so that those cremated came to 53.77 per cent and those buried uncremated to 46.23 per cent of the total number of burials, which, when compared with the percentage for the preceding year showed an increase of 0.01 per cent in those cremated.

Insane Persons The total number of insane persons at the end of 1938 was 90,610, showing a decrease of 385 from the preceding year. Its ratio to the population of the country in that year was 12.55 per 10,000, which, compared with the preceding year, shows a decrease of 0.22.

Tuberculosis The following table shows the results of health examinations conducted in 1938 by the prefectural governments, in accordance with the provision of Art. IV, Clause I of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis:

	1938	Compared with the preceding year
Estimated number of persons requiring health examination	1,759,210	163,200 (incr.)
Number of persons examined	1,322,977	70,863 (")
Number of persons diagnosed as tuber-	*85,517	*12,164 (")

	1938	Compared with the preceding year
culosis patients	516	85 (decr.)
Ratio of the patients per 1,000 of the examined	0.37	0.08 (")
Number of persons ordered to suspend from work	61	29 (")

Note:—The figures marked with an asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

In 1940 the Ministry of Welfare made a health examination of 2,300,000 young men, 17-19 years of age, under the National Physical Strength Law enacted in 1940, and found 115,000 tuberculosis patients (5 per cent of the total).

Trachoma The following table shows the results of examinations conducted by the prefectural governments during 1938, in accordance with provision of Art. IV, Clause 1 of the Law for the Prevention of Trachoma:

	1938	Compared with Preceding Year
Number of persons examined	5,790,199	732,355 (decr.)
	*368,222	*335,560 (")
Number of trachoma cases:		
Severe cases	33,203	6,250 (")
Mild cases	340,977	68,518 (")
Suspected cases	114,125	9,424 (")
Total	488,305	84,192 (")
Ratio of cases per 100 persons examined	7.93	0.01 (incr.)
Number of patients ordered to refrain from work	64	143 (decr.)

Note:—The figures marked with an asterisk are those for whom more than two examinations were made.

Health Examination of Prostitutes
The prostitute quarters actually existing at the end of 1938 (the term prostitute quarters does not here and hereinafter necessarily mean segregated quarters, but is also intended for convenience's sake to include all places where licensed prostitutes have been permitted to carry on their trade) numbered 377, being a decrease of 15 from the preceding year. The daily average during the year of licensed prostitutes in these quarters was 42,624, showing a decrease of 2,284 from the preceding year.

The number of health-examination stations for these prostitutes was 348, showing a decrease of 20 from the preceding year, and the total number of examinations made in these stations was 2,648,680, showing a decrease of 121,747 from the preceding year, and in 74,220 cases the prostitutes were found diseased. The ratio of cases of diseases to the total number examined was 2.80 per cent, i.e. 0.65 per cent higher than in the preceding year. The number of hospitals for admitting these diseased prostitutes (including places for treatment lacking hospital accommodations) was 135, and the average num-

ber of times a prostitute was admitted into hospital during the year was 1.74, showing an increase of 0.42 over the preceding year.

Cholera The total number of cases of cholera in 1938 was 18 with 11 deaths, showing a decrease of 39 cases and 9 deaths as compared with the preceding year. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 0.00 cases and deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing a decrease of 0.01 both in the number of cases and deaths as compared with the preceding year. Below are given prefectures where cases of cholera broke out:

Prefecture	Cases	Deaths	No. of cases per 10,000 inhabitants
Okayama	9	6	0.07
Hiroshima	6	3	0.03
Fukuoka	2	1	0.01
Nagoya	1	1	0.01

Of the above total number 9 cases broke out in urban districts, and 11 represents 50.00% of the total number for the whole country. There were 5 deaths therefrom. The rate of above cases and deaths to the urban popula-

tion was 0.00 in both cases and deaths to 10,000 inhabitants.

Dysentery, including Ekiri The total number of cases of dysentery in 1938 was 80,221 and there were 20,218 deaths therefrom which, when compared with the figures for the preceding year, shows an increase of 1,937 cases and 1,791 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 11.11 cases and 2.90 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.12 cases and 0.21 deaths.

Typhoid Fever The total number of cases of typhoid fever in 1938 was 42,132 with 7,076 deaths, showing an increase of 3,590 cases and 459 deaths compared with the preceding year. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 5.83 cases and 0.42 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.42 cases and 0.05 deaths.

The total number of cases of typhoid fever reported for urban districts only, during the year was 19,403 which corresponds to 46.05 per cent of the cases for the whole country. Of the above number, there were 3,542 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 7.48 and 1.37 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, a decrease of 0.05 for cases and an increase of 0.03 for deaths.

Paratyphoid Fever The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever in 1938 was 6,117, of which 303 ended fatally, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 1,837 cases and 11 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 8.05 cases and 0.04 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, which shows, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.22 cases while the death-rate remained unchanged.

The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever reported for urban districts only in 1938 was 2,808 which corresponds to 45.90 per cent of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the deaths therefrom numbered 141.

The ratios of cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 1.08 and

0.05 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.26 cases, but with no change in death-rate.

Smallpox In 1938 the total number of cases was 30 with 6 deaths. Compared with the figures of the preceding year, there was a decrease of 30 cases but no change for death. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the total population in the same year were 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. The largest number of cases occurred in Saga prefecture, it being 28 cases with 2 deaths; in the other prefectures the number of cases was less than 8. (In 1937 there were 90 cases with 6 deaths). The total number of cases of smallpox in urban districts was 25 (3 deaths), corresponding to 41.67 per cent of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the ratio to 10,000 of urban population shows 0.01 cases and 0.00 deaths.

Typhus No cases of typhus occurred in 1938.

Scarlet Fever The total number of cases of scarlet fever in 1938 was 19,002 with 402 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures an increase of 1,399 cases and a decrease of 78 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 2.63 cases and 0.06 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. When compared with the preceding year an increase of 0.16 case but a decrease of 0.01 death.

Diphtheria The total number of cases of diphtheria in 1938 was 28,420 with 3,853 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 309 cases but a decrease of 206 deaths.

The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 3.94 cases and 0.54 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, a decrease of 0.01 cases and 0.03 deaths.

Epidemic Cerebrospinal Meningitis
The total number of cases of epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis in 1938 was 996, of which 528 ended fatally, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 157 cases and 47 deaths. The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 0.14 cases and 0.07

deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing an increase of 0.02 cases over the preceding year, but with no change in death-rate.

Plague No cases of plague occurred in 1938.

Vaccination The total number of the 1st period vaccinations performed in 1938 was 2,079,919, of which 1,951,483 proved positive and 68,847 negative while 59,589 were not examined for the result of vaccinations. Compared with the figures of the preceding year, there was an increase of 48,087 in the total number of positive vaccinations, of 2,475 in negative vaccinations, and of 2,906 whose result was not examined.

The total number of the 2nd period vaccinations was 2,011,751, of which 1,194,173 proved positive, 785,497 negative while 32,081 were not examined of their result, showing, compared with the figures of the preceding year, an increase of 377 in the total number vaccinated, and a decrease of 20,976 in the positive takes, and an increase of 20,008 in the negative, and of 1,345 in the number of unexamined cases.

The special vaccinations were carried out in 1938 in 40 prefectures, including Tokyo, Kyoto, and Miyagi, and the total number of persons vaccinated thereby was 3,693,210.

Port Quarantine The total number of vessels inspected in 1938 by harbor offices of the Custom Houses and by temporary port quarantine stations was 19,852 Japanese vessels (with a total tonnage of 73,778,108) and 4,917 foreign vessels (with a total tonnage of 31,805,608), making a total of 24,769 vessels (with a total tonnage of 105,583,776). The total number of persons inspected was 2,144,765, of which ships' crews numbered 1,377,771 and passengers 766,994. Compared with the corresponding figures of the preceding year, the number of vessels decreased by 5,490 and that of crew and passengers 732,821. By these inspections were found 12 persons suffering from small-pox, 1 person from typhus and 51 from other notifiable infectious diseases, making a total of 64 cases. Compared with the preceding year, this shows a decrease of 29 cases.

Of the above mentioned vessels inspected, 375 vessels and 2,329 persons thereon were subjected to disinfection. When compared with the preceding year, there was an increase of 111 ves-

sels but a decrease of 3,448 persons. The vessels subjected to detention numbered 14, being a decrease of 79 when compared with the preceding year. The destruction of rats and insects was carried out on 1,269 vessels and 5,880 rats were caught, which, compared with the preceding year, shows a decrease of 162 in the number of vessels but an increase of 1,480 in that of rats.

Rabies In 1938, there was no case of rabies in men. The number of rabid dogs in 1938 was 4 reported in Tokyo and 2 in Hyogo prefecture showing an increase of 1 compared with the preceding year. (In 1938 there was no rabid animal other than dogs). The number of persons bitten by rabid dogs in 1938 was 5 in Tokyo and 11 in Hyogo prefecture, showing an increase of 13 over the preceding year. The number of persons who had preventive injection for rabies in 1938 was 1,770, showing a decrease of 1,978, as compared with the preceding year. Of the above number, 16 were those who had been bitten by rabid dogs, and 1,754 by animals suspected of rabies.

Bacteriological Laboratories The number of bacteriological laboratories at the end of 1938 was 194, consisting of 145 established by prefectural governments, 24 by cities, 1 by towns and villages and 24 by private individuals, showing a decrease of 1 in the total number on the preceding year.

If we examine the number of these laboratories according to locality, we find that Shizuoka prefecture had the largest number with 13, followed by Hyogo prefecture with 12, Osaka and Nagasaki prefectures with 8 each, Hokkaido, Miyagi, and Hiroshima prefectures with 7 each, Ibaraki, Yamaguchi, Fukuoka and Kumamoto with 6 each while the rest of prefectures all had less than five.

The number of bacteriological examinations made by these laboratories in 1938 were 4,902,400, of which those connected with the notifiable infectious diseases were 4,246,248 and those not connected therewith 656,212, showing an increase of 456,067 in the total number of examinations on the figures of the preceding year.

Medical Affairs

Medical Practitioners The total number of medical licences issued in 1938

was 7,368 (besides, 3 to foreigners), showing an increase, compared with the preceding year, of 9 licences (the number issued to foreigners decreased by 14).

Dental Surgeons The total number of licences issued to dental surgeons in 1938 was 1,164, being an increase of 32 when compared with the preceding year.

The total number of dental surgeons at the end of 1938 was 22,735, showing an increase over the preceding year of 643 (number of foreigners decreased 3).

Of the above number those who were actually engaged in practice numbered 20,152 which corresponds to 88.64 per cent of the total number of dental surgeons.

The total number of those dental surgeons who were actually in practice was at the rate of 2.79 per 10,000 of the population, and if we examine the ratio of the dental surgeons in prefectures, we find that the highest ratio was that of Tokyo prefecture with 6.14 per 10,000 inhabitants, followed by Osaka with 3.50, Kanagawa with 3.50, Hyogo with 3.23, Aichi with 3.19 and the lowest ratio was that of Okinawa which was 0.66, followed by Iwate with 1.20, Yamagata with 1.33 and Miyagi with 1.54.

As to the distribution of dental surgeons in cities and districts of the country the ratio was 4.74 for cities and 1.70 for districts per 10,000 inhabitants.

At the end of 1938, besides the above mentioned number of dental surgeons, there were 79 medical practitioners who specialized in dentistry.

Pharmacists The total number of pharmacists' licences issued in 1938 was 1,709, showing an increase when compared with the preceding year, of 117 licences.

The total number of pharmacists at the end of 1938 was 28,766, showing an increase, compared with the preceding year's figures, of 610 (the number of foreigners decreased 1).

Of these pharmacists, (1) the number of practising pharmacists (those who were engaged in the dispensing of medicines in the pharmacy, those who were engaged in the sale of medicines and those who were engaged in the manufacture of medicines) was 19,190 (2) the number of those who being employed by hospitals or other dispensaries, were engaged in the dispensing

of medicines was 3,270 and (3) those who were exclusively engaged in the sale of patent medicines numbered 1,682. Those coming under (1) correspond to 66.71 per cent of the total number of pharmacists while (2) and (3) represented 11.37 and 5.85 per cent respectively.

Pharmacies and Traders in Medicines.
Pharmacies. The number of pharmacies at the end of 1938 was 13,189, of which 12,821 were run by pharmacists and 368 by non-pharmacists, showing an increase, when compared with the preceding year, of 62 pharmacies run by the pharmacist and 61 pharmacies managed by non-pharmacists.

Traders in Medicines. The total number of persons engaged in the sale of medicines at the end of 1938 was 30,894, showing a decrease of 28 persons compared with the preceding year; among them, the qualified pharmacists who were engaged in the sale of medicines without opening pharmacies numbered 734 and druggists 30,160. Of these druggists those who were qualified to deal in designated medicines numbered 4,211, of which those employing pharmacists were 2,399, those coming under the provisions of Art. XXXVII, Item 4 of the "Regulations for the Trade in Medicines and the Handling Thereof" were 77 and those coming under the second clause of the supplementary provisions of the same regulations were 1,735.

Medicine-Manufacturers. The total number of medicine-manufacturers at the end of 1938 was 3,959, being a decrease of 115 from the preceding year. Of these manufacturers, 1,042 were pharmacists, 1,321 those who employ pharmacists, and 1,596 neither pharmacists nor those employing pharmacists.

Midwives The total number of midwives at the end of 1938 was 62,209 (besides two foreigners), showing an increase of 477 (no change in the number of foreigners) over the preceding year; they may be classified into 5,753 persons who completed the course in designated schools or training institutes, 53,796 who passed the examination, and 2,290 who have been in practice from time prior to the operation of the Midwives Regulations, and 369 who practise in limited districts.

Distribution of Midwives The total number of midwives was at the ratio of 8.61 per 10,000 inhabitants, being a decrease of 0.05 from the preceding

year; as to the distribution of midwives between urban and rural districts of the country, the ratio was 10.77 in the urban districts and 7.40 in the rural districts per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the ratio in the preceding year, a decrease of 0.24 in the urban districts and an increase of 0.01 in the rural districts.

Nurses The total number at the end of 1938 of nurses who had obtained licence from the prefectural offices was 120,010 (of which 5,332 were under-nurses) showing a decrease of 4,392 from the preceding year (the number of under-nurses increased by 779). The

ratio of the above total number to 10,000 of population was 16.62, showing a decrease of 0.84 from the corresponding figures of the preceding year.

The number of male nurses at the end of 1938 to whom licences had been issued by the prefectural offices was 364 showing an increase of 69 over the figures of the preceding year.

Acupuncture, Moxicautey, and Shampooing The following table gives the number of persons engaged in acupuncture, moxicautey, and shampooing whose licences had been issued by the prefectural offices at the end of 1938.

	Not Blind			Blind		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Acupuncture	2,628	602	3,230	1,395	313	1,708
	*16,930	*3,089	*20,019	*10,104	*2,229	*12,333
Moxicautey	3,256	892	4,148	697	197	894
	*17,019	*3,259	*20,278	*7,488	*1,624	*9,112
Shampooing	6,771	3,984	10,755	14,743	9,341	24,084
	*13,688	*5,164	*18,852	*22,617	*11,111	*33,728
Acupuncture and moxicautey	7,966	1,412	9,378	1,821	271	1,592
Acupuncture and shampooing	1,120	225	1,345	2,404	614	3,018
Moxicautey and shampooing	581	105	686	486	125	611
Acupuncture, moxicautey and shampooing	5,216	850	6,066	4,984	1,031	6,015
Total	27,538	8,070	35,608	26,030	11,892	37,922

Judo treatment for contusion 2,220 (for the whole country) including 8 women.

Note:—Figures marked with * include those persons who carry out additional calling than that given in the heading.

Public Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums, Leprosaria, Infectious Diseases Hospitals, and Hospitals for Prostitutes excluded). At the end of 1938 there were 127 public hospitals, showing an increase of 2 hospitals over the preceding year.

Accommodation for patients	Total		
	Cities	Towns	Villages
More than 10	13	17	6
" 30	7	12	2
" 50	17	13	—
" 100	36	4	—
Total	73	46	8

In the following table are given the capacity for admitting patients and the number of patients admitted in 1938 to these hospitals:

Patient admitting capacity	10,954
Of the above capacity:	
For infectious diseases	811
For tuberculosis	313

Number of patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	5,681
Admitted this year	130,264
Discharged	118,691
Died in hospital	10,560
At the end of the year	6,694
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	3,045,754
Average capacity per hospital	86.25
Average number of in-patients per hospital	1,070.43
Average number of days a patient stayed in hospital	22.40

Private Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums and Leprosaria excluded). The total number of private hospitals at the end of 1938 was 2,981 (of which 97 had been established by the public judicial persons and 8 by foreigners), which when compared with the figures for the preceding year, shows an increase of 74 hospitals.

The following table gives the number of these hospitals in urban and rural districts according to their capacity of admitting patients:

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
With capacity for more than 10	1,407	597	208	2,212
" " " " "	261	127	37	425
" " " " "	154	51	25	230
" " " " "	95	16	3	114
" Total " " " "	1,917	791	273	2,981

In the following table are given the number of private hospitals classified according to the diseases they treat:

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
Medicine	1,006	584	201	1,791
Surgery	368	97	28	493
Paediatrics	60	7	2	69
Ophthalmology	116	39	23	178
Obstetrics and gynaecology	213	42	17	272
Dermatology and venereal and genito-urinary diseases	54	4	—	58
Otorhinolaryngology	97	18	2	117
Dental surgery	—	—	—	—
Others	3	—	—	3
Total	1,917	791	273	2,981

In the following table are given the figures in connection with capacity of admitting patients and the number of patients etc. in the private hospitals:

Capacity	87,595
Of the above:	
Infectious diseases	4,566
Tuberculosis	2,807
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	31,010
Admitted in 1938	715,572
Left the hospital	671,357
Died in hospital	41,817
At the end of 1938	33,408
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	13,033,135
Average capacity per hospital	29.38
Average number of in-patients per hospital	250.45
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	17.46

Charity Hospitals (Tuberculosis Hospitals, Leprosaria and Insane Asylums excluded). The total number of public and private charity hospitals at the end of 1938 was 55, of which 13 were public and 42 private hospitals, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 2 public hospitals and 7 private hospitals.

The following table gives the capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.

Admitting capacity	4,141
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	2,925
Admitted in 1938	26,423
Left the hospital	22,296
Died in hospital	4,087
At the end of 1938	2,965
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	1,174,281
Average capacity per hospital	*103,487
Average number of in-patients per hospital	75.29
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	654.29
Percentage of paying patients	35.51
	18.45%

Note:—* indicates the number of paying patients.

Insane Asylums The total number of public and private insane asylums at the end of 1938 was 158, consisting of 12 public and 146 private asylums, show-

ing an increase over the preceding year of 7 private asylums.

The following table gives their admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.

Admitting capacity	21,883
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	17,589 *7,687
Admitted in 1938	23,467 *17,756
Left the asylum	18,079 *14,794
Died in asylum	4,413 *2,149
At the end of 1938	18,574 *8,500
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	3,392,785 *3,390,573
Average capacity per asylum	138.50
Average number of in-patients per asylum	259.91
Average number of days in asylum of a patient	165.18
Percentage of paying patients	61.96%
*Indicates the number of paying patients.	
Tuberculosis Hospitals The number of government, public and private tuberculosis hospitals at the end of 1938 were one Governmental, 37 public and 115 private hospitals, (four of which had been established by foreigners), showing an increase of 7 public and 30 private hospitals as compared with preceding year.	
The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.	
Admitting capacity	14,138
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	9,091 *4,131
Admitted in 1938	24,044 *14,769
Left the hospital	14,325 *10,246
Died in hospital	7,796 *3,636
At the end of 1938	11,015 *5,018
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	2,083,111 *1,593,263

Average capacity per hospital	92.41
Average number of in-patients per hospital	216.57
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	110.95
Percentage of paying patients	57.04%

*Indicate the number of paying patients.

Leprosaria The total number of the Government, public and private leprosarica at the end of 1938 was 17 (one of which had been established by foreigners), consisting of 5 Government, 5 public and 7 private leprosarica. If we examine those leprosarica according to locality, we find that three were in Kumamoto, two each in Gumma, Tokyo, Okayama and Okinawa prefectures and one each in Aomori, Yamaguchi, Shizuoka, Kagawa, Fukuoka and Kagoshima prefectures. The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1938.

Admitting capacity	8,108
Number of in-patients:	
Remaining from the preceding year	0,871 *13
Admitted in 1938	2,493 *9
Left the leprosarium	1,204 *5
Died in leprosarium	521 *1
At the end of 1938	7,639 *16
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	2,549,645 *5,370
Average capacity per leprosarium	470.94
Average number of in-patients per leprosarium	532.12
Average number of days in leprosarium of a patient	272.22
Percentage of paying patients	0.23%

*Indicates the number of patients who bear the whole or a part of their expenses.

The following are the figures concerning the national leprosarica of "Nagashima Aiselen," "Kuryu Rakusen-en," "Hoshizuka Keiaien," "Miyako-Ryoyojo" and "Kunikami Airaku-en":

	Nagashima Aiselen	Kuryu Rakusen-en	Hoshi- zuka Keiaien	Miyako Ryoyojo	Kuni- kami Airaku- en
Capacity of admitting patients	1,200	700	720	200	250
Number of in-patients:					
Remaining from the preceding year	1,338	433	444	217	—
Admitted in 1938	323	247	448	49	333
Discharged	199	59	117	36	20
Died	71	35	67	10	2
At the end of 1938	1,391	586	708	220	311
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	506,350	185,035	164,880	79,199	39,299
Average number of days a patient stayed in leprosarium	304.85	272.11	184.84	297.74	119.09

(Note: See Chapter XXX, Social Work.)

In 1941, 5 public leprosarica were transferred to Governmental management, and there are now 11 national leprosarica in the country. The total number of lepers is estimated at 15,000, only 8,839 of which were protected by these 11 national leprosarica and other private leprosarica in 1941.

Infectious Diseases Hospitals, Isolation Wards, and Isolation Houses (Established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases). The total number of infectious diseases hospitals at the end of 1938 was 1,008, (a decrease of 2 hospitals from the preceding year), consisting of 122 established by cities, 719 by towns, villages and other similar public corporations, and 167 established by town or village associations or other similar associations. The admitting capacity of these hospitals was 24,160 in total (an increase of 905 over the preceding year), making an average of 23.97 per hospital (an increase of 0.95).

The isolation wards at the end of the same year numbered 6,970, (a decrease of 74 from the preceding year) consisting of 60 established by cities, 6,493 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, and 417 by the town or village associations or similar association; and the admitting capacity in these isolation wards was 68,488 in total, (a decrease of 758 on the preceding year), the average per ward coming to 9.38 (there was no change).

The total number of isolation houses at the end of 1938 was 60, (there was no change as compared with the preceding year) of which 8 were those established by cities, 54 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, 4

by the town or village associations or similar associations. The estimated total capacity of these isolation houses was 1,672 (a decrease of 27 from the preceding year) the average capacity per house coming to 25.33 persons (a decrease of 0.41).

At the end of 1938, there were 46 disinfecting stations (established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases), showing a decrease of 1 in their number from that of the preceding year.

Medicines The total number of persons who have reported in 1938 to the respective prefectural offices of the manufacture, importation and sale of medicines and preparations not to be found in any pharmacopoeia was 853 and the number of medicines reported 2,926, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 126 persons and an increase of 292 medicines.

Patent Medicines The total number of patent medicine traders at the end of 1938 was 43,699, showing an increase of 272 as compared with the figures of the preceding year. Of this total number, 12,603 were pharmacists, 9,578 medical practitioners and veterinary surgeons, 3,150 those persons who employ pharmacists, 16,344 those persons who come under Art. XXIV of the Patent Medicine Regulations and 7,892 those who come under Art. XXV of the same law, while there were 72 who were engaged exclusively in the importation and sale of patent medicines.

At the end of 1938 the total number of patent medicines for which permission for manufacture or importation was given was 395,186 (of which 163 were imported), showing an increase of 7,676 when compared with the figures of the

preceding year, (permissions for importation decreased by 8).

Japan's pharmaceutical industry has made considerable progress since the termination of World War I in 1918, and the country at present is nearly self-sufficient as far as the manufacture of chemicals for war products is concerned, as the process for utilization of by-products from dry distillation of coal has realized remarkable advancement. This country is now able to produce chemicals of the best quality in accordance with the pharmacopœia requirements of various countries.

The outstanding products are phenol, salicylic acid, antifebrin, phenacetin, antipyrin, aspirin, aminopyrin, guajacol, malic acid, gallic acid, morphine salts,

quinine salts and others.

Japan has now reached a stage of self-sufficiency in these chemicals, the industry having made considerable progress of late. Before the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia, Japan's chemical industry, as far as these products are concerned, had already attained the world level in both quality and quantity. Products were exported not only to various Oriental countries, but even to Germany and the United States, both of which are centers of European and American chemical industry.

Medical Education and Research Organizations for medical education and research in Japan total 735 in 1942, according to Dr. Takenouchi, and are as follows:

Institutions	Aver. Number of Chairs	Total
8 Medical Faculties of the Imperial Universities	22	178
8 Government Medical Universities	20	160
4 Private Medical Universities	23	93
14 Medical Colleges, both for men and for women	20	280
11 Dental Colleges	(*)	11
18 Pharmaceutical Colleges	(*)	18
		735

Note: (*) Each college mentioned as one chair.

Medical organizations other than educational totaling 810 in 1942, include 20 independent institutes for medical research; 14 municipal hygienic laboratories; 102 hygienic sections of prefectural and municipal offices; 125 hospitals for policemen and prisoners; 105 medical colleges and hospitals of the Imperial Army, Navy and of Army Divisions, etc.; 25 hospitals of the Imperial Railway Department; 88 prefectural hospitals and laboratories; 165 municipal hospitals; 80 hospitals in Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, Kwantung Leased Territory and South Sea Mandated Islands; 32 Japanese Red Cross hospitals; 37 Saisei Kai (Charity) hospitals; and 17 hospitals of private foundations, including those of private universities.

The National Eugenic Law was promulgated in May 1940 and enforced as from July 1, 1941. The number of persons coming under the application of the law is estimated at 300,000 in the country. The hereditary diseases designated by the provisions of the law as diseases the patients of which shall be compulsorily treated comprise 3 nervous diseases, 3 kinds of nervous weakness, 3 kinds of weak constitution, 33 physical diseases and 8 kinds of deformity.

Japan Medical Corporation. The Cabinet meeting held on January 7, 1942, adopted a bill for new medical measures and it was passed by the 79th session of the Imperial Diet. The purpose of the new medical law is to ensure proper medical treatment for all persons throughout the country to keep up the national physical strength in the time of war, creating a medical juridical person composed of all medical practitioners and dentists in Japan. The Japan Medical Corporation was created under the new Medical Law on July 1, 1942, with a capital of 100 million yen. The first president of the new corporation is Dr. Ryukichi Inada, honorary professor of Tokyo and Kyushu Imperial Universities and member of the Imperial Academy. All medical practitioners and dentists and their work are controlled by the State through the Japan Medical Corporation to make them render full service to the nation, accepting any call which may come from any place or at any time assigned by the Corporation under the supervision of the Minister of Welfare.

(In regard to deaths by causes and ages during 1937 and 1938 see pp. 717-720, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

CHAPTER XXXII

PROGRESS OF SCIENCE

Anti Tuberculosis Vaccine

Therapeutic, Prophylactic
& Diagnostic Use

Capitulation of the 1,128 answers obtained during 1928-1931 from physicians and hospitals using A-O regarding its therapeutic efficiency.

Affection	Patients	Completely cured	Partially and completely cured	Total of completely cured
Pulmonary tuberculosis				
Light	12,249	8,466 (69%)	3,127 (25%)	94%
Middle	6,985	3,063 (43.8%)	2,912 (41.6%)	85.5%
Severe	2,445	382 (14%)	923 (32.4%)	46%
Glandular tuberculosis	2,181	1,301 (59.6%)	683 (31.3%)	90.9%
Tuberculosis of bones and joints	713	297 (41.6%)	296 (41.5%)	83%
Ophthalmological tuberculosis	829	510 (61.5%)	236 (30.8%)	92.3%
Dermal tuberculosis	235	125 (49%)	110 (43%)	92%
Urogenital tuberculosis	465	161 (39.8%)	156 (38.5%)	78%
Pleurisy and Peritonitis	3,883	2,539 (68.3%)	942 (26.5%)	93.3%
Bronchial asthma	841	367 (43.8%)	299 (35.6%)	79.2%
Fistula and others	251	117 (46.7%)	83 (33%)	79.7%

Literatures & Clinical reports to be supplied upon request



A-O

Discovered by
Prof. DR. R. ARIMA,
Dr. K. AOYAMA &
Dr. J. OHNAWA

TUBERCULOSIS IMMUNOGEN

CHARACTERS

1. It is sterile and so absolutely non-pathogenic.
2. It is easily absorbed in an organism.
3. It is composed of tubercle bacilli whose protoplasm retains its native functionary powers.
4. It is prepared from tubercle bacilli cultivated from such stems as possess strong immunological power.
5. It is a pure immunogen with no stimulating allergen and so causes no unpleasant secondary reaction.
6. Its antigen unit, or immunological value, is exactly measured out and so its aptitudinal dose can be mathematically ascertained.

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CHAPTER XXXII

PROGRESS OF SCIENCE

From some region of the Asiatic continent where the center of the ancient world culture is believed to have existed, premedieval sort of scientific knowledge flowed to the West, such as Persia, Arabia and Greece, and to the East. The eastward movement directly and through China and Korea influenced Japan. Such native knowledge of technical arts as had existed in Japan blended with the imported civilization. After hundreds of years of slow development, activity was about to rise and then in the 16th century western scientific knowledge was introduced by the Portuguese. In this section, a brief sketch is given about the contribution of the Japanese toward the march of science in Japan from the olden days until the opening of the country to the world during the 19th century, followed by a record of the noteworthy accomplishments of recent years, some of which have received world-wide recognition.

Astronomy For the years between 15 B.C. and 1600 A.D. a total of 6,058 records embracing 2,658 cases of astronomical observations exist in Japan, including 576 solar eclipses. All appearances of the Halley comet since 684 have been recorded except the one in 760. The observations include the approach of the same comet on July 16, 912, for which occurrence documentary evidences are lacking in other parts of the world. The magnitude of the comet which made its appearance some 700 years ago was measured only in Japan and in no other country.

Medicine In 808 A.D. during Daido era a medical work called Daido Ruijuho was compiled in Japan. Another, also based on clinical experience gained in the country, came out in 859 or thereabouts. But both these books have been lost. However, there has been preserved a 60-volume work titled Ishinho, written by Tamba-Yasuyori in 982. It includes chapters on respiratory diseases, diseases of internal organs, skin, eye, ear, teeth and limbs, discourse on tumors, eruptions, wounds, children's and women's

ailments, hygiene and pharmacology. Those were times when Chinese medical knowledge came to Japan through Korea.

According to Hakuon Saegusa, one of the famous research scholars, the study of drugs in a scientific manner began with the first great contribution "Yakukyo Taiso," by Wakeno-Hiroyo of early Heian period.

The first anesthetic ever discovered in this country was that extracted from a poisonous plant called, "Kusa-no-o"—Chelidonium majus L.—which a physician used successfully in an operation of mammary cancer in 1805, giving no pain whatever to the patient. This antedates the discoveries of ether and chloroform abroad by some 30 or 40 years.

Natural History One of the early works published on the subject was out during the reign of Emperor Godaigo, 1318-1339, Dr. Yoshitomo Shinoto, of Tokyo Imperial University, points out. Ono-Ranzan, 1729-1810, together with an associate illustrated 100 herbs and 100 other plants.

Their book entitled Kwai was translated into French by Savatier, medical officer at Yokosuka, in 1873. Ono lectured on "Yamato Honzo," by Kaibara-Ekken, 1630-1714. At the age of 71, Ono was appointed by the Tokugawa government to direct various research activities. Under him studied Inuma-Yokusai, 1783-1865, who modelled his work after the method of Linné and illustrated Japanese plants.

His work contributed greatly toward breaking away from the old Japanese method of study. In 1874 two Japanese associated with Savatier revised volumes of "Somoku Zusetsu," work of Inuma. Hiraga-Gennai in 1759 became the president of the Natural Products Association which a few years later investigated over 1,300 varieties of natural history specimens gathered from all over the country. Contacting Dutch and Chinese scholars at Nagasaki, he wrote two books entitled "Notes on Animals with Illustrations by the Aid of Hollanders," and

"Annotations on European Plants by the Aid of Hollanders."

Physical Study Another invention of Hiraga's, in 1770, was a demonstrative device to generate electricity through friction of sheet metal with a sawed-off glass bottle which was rotated. He surprised many feudal lords by demonstrating this experiment in their presence. The electricity thus generated is then conducted to a glass bottle stuffed with iron scraps for storage. He used this set for electro-therapeutic purpose. There exist two such sets today made by Genna himself. Some of the notable inventions made by this versatile inventor beside the foregoing are: asbestos cloth, woolen cloth, porcelain ware, magnetic compass, level, thermometer, mosquito trapper, etc.

Lord Tokugawa-Nariaki, 1800-60, possessed chemicals and batteries with which electrolysis was studied. Those relics still exist today. Sakuma-Shozan, an erudite scientist and patriot, developed a permanent magnet, by the use of which he perfected a mechanism which could predict earthquakes, the occurrence of an earthquake being indicated by a piece of iron sticking to the magnet, and by means of a bell attached to the iron piece an alarm was automatically sounded apprising the people of an impending earthquake. He also invented an electro-therapeutic instrument for curing cholera, a silk covered copper wire, an electric cell, etc.

Stories are told of unsuccessful attempts at aerial flights in old days such as the story of a person of Yoshino county who during 720-48 attempted to launch himself into the air on a paper hanger resembling a kite from a hillside, but failed in his attempt. An experiment in flying is credited to a native of Loochoo Islands who lived some 270 years ago. His invention seems to have been a sort of glider, something like a kite in shape, in which the rider sat and flew up in the sky by pedalling the ropes and by utilizing the elasticity of the latter, thus causing the wings to flap up and down; in other words a muscular flight by means of leg-driven propellers was supposed to have been devised. While no detailed description of the plane is available, the inventor is said to have actually flown some distance with this device.

Down in the era of Kansen (1789-1801) a similar attempt was made by a man named Kokichi who built a kind

of airplane by computing the relative ratio of the weight of a bird and its wings. By flying down from a high precipice, he is reported to have been successful, which was instantly reported to the local magistrate, and Kokichi was deported from the district on the charge of having unduly disturbed the peace of the locality. This antedated the glider invented by Otto Lilienthal (1848-1896) by approximately one century.

Firearms and Explosives Dohlya (fire-arrow) corresponds to a shell or an incendiary bomb of today, developed by Miki-Shigedayu during the era of Genna (1615-1624). At the muzzle of this primitive rifle is charged an arrow-shaped shot containing powder, which chiefly consists of incendiary powder. It sparks and draws a trail of fire when fired, and hits, explodes and burns the objective. Its shooting range is said to have attained 220-330 meters.

A gun-carriage for a cannon was invented in this country in 1778. This was capable of permitting its revolution up to 180 degrees and elevation up to 80 degrees, which is in every way comparable with the carriage of an anti-aircraft gun of today. An improved invention of the same kind was also made in 1809.

In 1813 a kind of flint-lock gun was invented by Kume Michikata, which was of a better type than the so called Napoleon gun, which was popular in Europe in those days. The same inventor also developed a water pump.

In 1843 a physician by the name of Yoshio-Tsunezo invented an explosive—fulminate of mercury, by the action of mercuric nitrate on alcohol. This was found to be too quick in ignition and while in the course of experiment, a bottle containing the mercury fulminate exploded and a fragment of glass tore the artery of the inventor's arm, and he died of loss of blood. A year earlier a detonator was invented in Holland, but Tsunezo's invention was in no way an imitation of the Dutch device.

Getting an idea from a Dutch gun, an unknown inventor in 1819 invented an airgun equipped with a magazine capable of holding 20 shots in the barrel. This is being on display at the Yuashukan Hall, Kudan, Tokyo.

The fact that a breech-loading rifle capable of firing ten shots in a minute was invented in Japan in 1856 is indeed remarkable. All the rifles imported

until that time were exclusively of muzzle-loading type, and the first breech-loading rifle ever imported into this country was a Snider rifle imported ten years later in 1866.

The invention of a gun-carriage has been mentioned already, but the casting of a barrel having a caliber larger than 182 centimeters had been considered a total impossibility. On the other hand, lack of copper or bronze, of which gun-barrels had been made until then, impressed those responsible with the acute necessity of producing a barrel made of cast iron. This led to the construction of a reverberatory furnace, and some half a dozen furnaces were constructed in this country in an eight year period from 1852 to 1860.

Engineering In 745 A.D. the Great Image of Buddha 53½ feet high was cast from 800 tons of copper and 398 pounds of gold was used for gilding, also 1,954 pounds of mercury. The wooden building 150 feet in height, soars, with a couple of pagodas, 320 feet high. This remarkable engineering feat is a proof of the advancement made in technical arts in those days. Tracing a little further back in the history of this country, the Shosoin of Nara was built in the same compound of the Todaiji temple, where the cast Buddha is stored, where rare objects owned by the Imperial Household are treasured. The building is constructed in the style of log-house using not a single nail or metal fitting and can be counted as one of the outstanding achievements in the architectural development of the country.

The soaring donjons of the castles at Nagoya and Himeji are unique examples of the highly advanced architectural engineering in which the Japanese excelled so early in history. Hisahide Matsunaga is credited with the initiation of the art in the era of Eiroku (1556-1570). It is the symbol of composite harmony of mathematics, physics and chemistry.

The thick cloud of mystery which for long shrouded the reasons for undisputed merits of the Japanese sword remained undissolved even with the highly advanced metallurgical engineering in Europe and America. Among that galaxy of noted swordsmiths, all exceptionally adept in the development of swords, and whose names are recorded in the annals of the famed sword, perhaps the most outstanding

was Okazaki Goro Masamune, who in the reign of Emperor Fushimi (1287-1298) invented the use of molybdenum and chestnut charcoal and specially studied temperature of hot water and succeeded in developing an excellent sword which had never been produced prior to his time.

That the Japanese as a race are amply endowed with the talent of invention is well exemplified by that of "Torinoko Paper"—a stout smooth paper, which was used for the historic document of the Peace Treaty at the termination of the First European War. "Torinoko" paper is said to have been invented, as far back as 1,300 years ago by the illustrious prince, Shotoku Taishi (573-621).

It is beyond all conjecture how the arts of brewery, salt-production, dyeing, metallurgy, and ceramics had been developed early in the age of gods (prior to 600 B.C.). Glass beads are one in point, which although considered as having been imported, can be proved to have been of native origin. Together with glass beads, Shippo zaiku—cloisonné ware—had been used from ancient times.

Other items of interest are the water-clock invented in 660 A.D., the water-mill in the era of Tencho (824-833), the oil press and the tackle block in the era of Jogwan (859-876), and toilet powder in the reign of Empress Jito (686-696).

Other dates of some significance in the realm of engineering are cited by Dr. Sakuro Tanabe as follows; 663 A.D., coal and oil discovered in Yechigo Province; 607, Horyu temple built; 1614, a cannon was made by means of paper; 1510, a Chinese resident at Sakai imported firearms; 1589, Yedo castle, that was later transformed into the present Imperial Palace in Tokyo, was constructed; 1810, Ino-Tadataka began surveying the whole coastline of Japan and 1849, Satsuma turned out a telegraph machine.

Mathematics In a very crude form mathematics existed in Japan since the far distant days of ancient times according to Dr. Kinnosuke Ogura, noted student of Japanese mathematics. Then, in the Tokugawa period old scholars took up abacus-algebra derived from China and despite its being fraught with peculiar difficulties they soon mastered this version of algebra completely. In fact the Tokugawa mathematicians went

further by entirely transforming this abacus method to a written system chiefly as a result of the efforts of Seki-Kowa (1708) and his associates. It is noteworthy that it took only 50 years during the feudal age, for this new knowledge to be assimilated and a new system to be developed by the Japanese savants. Tatebe-Kenko (1604-1730) and others of Seki's pupils initiated a method, resembling calculus, for obtaining the circumference and area of a circle. Improved in 1781 it became almost exactly like integration as it is known today. Further improved by Wada-Yasushi (1787-1840) it was so developed as to match the present integration method. To mention only one instance, Seki preceded Leibnitz by more than a decade in unfolding the theory of determinant. Yet, during the turbulent period of the downfall of the Tokugawa rule, it began to be realized that the Japanese form of symbols and signs were unfit for navigational computation and inferior to Western mathematics. Hence the Japanese system of mathematics had to give way to the Western version then imported. For a time early in the Meiji era the Japanese were too busy learning Occidental mathematics. At present wave geometricians of Hiroshima group, as they are known, draw world attention.

Theoretical Effort Ito-Jinsai, 1629-1705, Confucian scholar of Kyoto and notably Miura-Balen, 1723-89, a country doctor in Bungo Province, expounded a monism of matter as against the dualism of principle and matter, that was the kernel of Chu Tze's interpretation of Chinese philosophy preceding him. Chu Tze's version was then regarded highly in Japan. But Miura expounded his own natural philosophy.

Saegusa points out that no parallel to Miura's conception can be found in the whole vista of Oriental philosophy. Minakawa-Klen also made valuable contributions toward the definition of matter and has earned a place for himself in the Japanese history of scientific thought.

After the Meiji Restoration

Scientific progress during the Meiji era (1868-1912) was mainly in the education of all branches of modern science in schools and introduction of Western learning by foreign professors engaged by governmental universities and Japan-

ese scholars who had made studies in Europe and America.

Medical science, however, was most advanced in Japan because of its early introduction into the country from China and later through Dutch scholars, and Japan made valuable contributions toward the progress of medical science of the world through the achievements by such bacteriologists as Dr. Shimasaburo Kitasato (1852-1931) and Dr. Hideyo Noguchi (1876-1928).

Dr. Ryokichi Yatabe (1851-1909), a disciple of Prof. Asa Gray of America, was the first professor of botany in Tokyo Imperial University and botany was taught in Japan as pure science for the first time. He made translations of Gray's "An Outline of Plants" and Morse's book on zoology, and wrote himself a book "Illustrations and Explanation of Japanese Plants." Dr. Jinzo Matsumura (1856-1928), his assistant, later became professor of Tokyo Imperial University, and published many books on botany. His works are considered an authority on botany.

Another well known botanist in Japan is Dr. Tomitaro Makino (1862-). He is better known as a civilian scientist than a lecturer in the university, and has contributed greatly to the botanical education of the masses of the people. He wrote many papers and books, among which may be named the serial work "Illustrations of the Flora of Japan," beginning with 1888.

Invention of the airplane is universally credited to Wright brothers of the United States of America in 1903, but it is seldom known that some 13 years earlier, the same was accomplished in this country by Chuhachi Ninomiya, a medical officer in the army. It was on the night of April 29, 1891, at the Marugame parade ground that model airplane soared up to the sky and flew some 30 meters. It had canvas propellers back of the seat which could hardly be called a cockpit. The propellers were set in motion in the manner of a cyclist pedalling his bicycle. It is regrettable that in spite of the subsequent outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war (1894-1895) this was not commercialized.

In the line of arms, Murata's rifle in 1885 and Arisaka's quick-firing field-gun in 1898 are conspicuous and both served a great deal towards the cause of national defense.

In the field of electricity, the inven-

tion of the T.Y.K. wireless telephone perfected by Dr. Uichi Torigata in 1912 is perhaps most noteworthy. How the wireless telegraph invented and developed by Shunkichi Kimura and Matsunosuke Matsushiro in 1902 rendered the most vital service to the nation in the naval battle on the Japan Sea (May 27-8, 1905) hardly needs any comment. Another significant contribution was by Dr. Hidetaro Otori who perfected the static oscillograph in 1911.

The machine for steaming raw tea leaves developed by Kenzo Takabayashi in 1885 revolutionized the tea producing industry of Japan and served in no small measure toward increasing the output of green tea in this country. Other items of interest are the noodle and vermicelli manufacturing machine by Terusato Masaki in 1888; salt making pans by Kasuke Takata in 1896; sugar solution evaporator by Tozaburo Suzuki in 1903; paste for resist-dyeing by Isaku Nishimuro in 1904; method of distinguishing male and female among silkworms by Dr. Shigetane Ishiwata in 1904; hygienic tin making material, commonly called lacquered tin by Kenichi Miyazaki in 1907; method of preservation of nets from rotting by Ebaburo Hidaka in 1908.

The hand flature by Naosaburo Minoriyama in 1892 and silk spinning by Seichi Sakane in 1907 served a great deal in bringing the respective industries to what they are today. Mention should not fail to be made of the name of Sakichi Toyoda who invented an automatic power loom in 1895 which is so powerful and efficient that it literally revolutionized the textile industry both in Japan and abroad. Other inventions of interest in this line are the net weaving machine by Senichi Hiroi in 1909, the fancy mat weaving machine by Suski Iizaki in 1885 and the mat weaving machine by Noboru Terajima in 1902.

The mimeograph of Shinjiro Horii in 1894 is an interesting invention and some 830 patents are held of this printing machine and large quantities are being exported abroad. Some other machines invented which deserve special mention are: the water tube boiler by Baron Dr. Jiro Miyahara in 1897 magnet core for generators and motors by Dr. Keijiro Kishi in 1901; the axial and parallel flow waterwheel by Masataka Tazawa in 1909; and the improved rice pounding machine by Heizo

Ishikawa in 1911.

In the chemical field the refining process of zinc white by Jyujiro Mogi in 1897, "Aji-no-moto" by Dr. Kikunae Ikeda in 1908, "Adrenalin" and "Takadiastase" by Dr. Jokichi Takamine in 1901 and 1909 respectively, "Ollzanin" or Vitamin B by Dr. Umetaro Suzuki in 1911, "Tetrodotoxin" by Dr. Yoshizumi Tawara in 1911, and lime nitrogen by Dr. Tsuneichi Fujiyama in 1911 are some of the most outstanding.

The foregoing inventions are some of the outstanding ones made after the Patent Law came in force in 1885. Some notable ones prior to that time being: Rikshaw by Yosuke Izumi, cotton flannel by Jyuusuke Seto, and the dyeing process of the so called "printed" muslin.

The Eras of Taisho and Showa

The seeds that had been sown during the Meiji era began to sprout in all splendor after the advent of the Taisho era. Brilliant achievements marked the development of the scientific world of this country since the beginning of the Taisho era (1912-1925), some of which are mentioned below:

Process of producing lead monoxide powder by Genzo Shimadzu is perhaps the most outstanding achievement. Patented in Japan, England, U.S.A., Germany and France, the patent right was purchased by the U.S.L. Company of the United States of America in 1932. The celebrated high magnetic steel known as M.K. magnet steel throughout the world, invented by Dr. Tokushichi Mishima, Professor at Tokyo Imperial University hardly needs any introduction. While it was considered theoretically impossible to produce a high magnetic steel of more than 250 oersteds, Dr. Mishima succeeded in producing a high magnetic steel of 900 oersteds to the astonishment of the whole world.

Indeed the appearance of famed scientists and inventors like Dr. Kotaro Honda, Dr. Masatoshi Okochi and Dr. Toragoro Tanahashi in close succession is highly felicitous. It is, however, well nigh impossible to make mention of each and every one of the numerous inventions made since the Taisho era. It would perhaps be pertinent here to introduce those scholars and inventors who had the privilege and honor of having been invited to the Imperial luncheon on two occasions, the first