

"Five Myths" by Ichiro Ishida.
Tokyo Symphony Orchestra:
"Taiwan Dance" by Bunya Koh.
"Serenade" by Fumio Hayasaka.
"Two Poems" by Shukichi Shinosaku.
"Cherry Blossoms" by Shinichi Takata.
"Summer Festival" by Nobuo Iida.
"Fighting Spirit" by Zenji Fukami.
"Southern Countries" by Shiro Fukai.

The Japan Musical Culture Association also selected 55 musical compositions, while the Nippon Onkyo Company (former Victor Record Company) gave a prize contest for pieces of orchestra music which would contribute towards promoting the Japanese spirit. "Symphonic Interpretation" by Teru Ibukube got the first prize, while "To the Pigeon-Pipe Echoing in the Azure Sky" by Bunya Koh and "Overture in A Major" by Kunio Toda was placed second.

Kyosuke Kami gave a recital for his compositions during his visit to the front, of which "Festival" and "Borneo" were unique pieces.

Of books on music published during the season under review, "Gagaku or Court Music" by Tadatsugu Ta was the best seller, while "Japan's War Songs" by Keizo Horiguchi and "Music of Greater East Asia" by Tadao Tanabe were also popular. Other principal works on music published during the season included "Story of Japanese Musical Scale" by Inichi Shimofusa, "German People and Music Life" by Shuichi Tsukawa, "Well-Known Classic Aria" by Shuichi Tsukawa, "French Music" by Taro Matsumoto, "Chorus" by Osamu Shimizu, "Modern Symphonies" by Gakushu Morimoto and "Kaido Tosei" by Kiyoshi Nobutoki.

Musical magazines were also consolidated and merged in order to make them go parallel with wartime requirements. The six magazines extant were amalgamated into two, namely: "Musical Culture" and "Musical Knowledge" which were published since November, 1943, by the Japan Musical Magazines Company, a new ¥100,000 company, with Keizo Horiuchi as President.

Concert activities during the 1943-44 season were almost monopolized by symphonic groups led by the Japan

Symphony Orchestra, Tokyo Symphonic Orchestra, Daiwa Symphony Orchestra and Young Japan Symphony Orchestra. Noteworthy features of symphonic orchestra concerts by these symphonies were selected audiences and increased box-office receipts. Principal recitals during the season were given by:

Vocals: Chiyako Sato, Tamotsu Kinoshita, Sachie Umeda, Haruko Mori, Kiyoko Otani, Utao Hagoromo, Fumiko Yatsuya, Bunsuke Yoshizawa, Tamaki Miura, Sueko Hirahara, Fumiko Inouye, Ryohel Miyamoto, Katsumi Mizuta, Yoshiye Fujiwara.

Piano: Ki Yoshiwara, Kyoko Ishii, Urimaru Nobeji, Shizuko Saneyoshi, Sumiko Tanaka, Kikoshi Tanaka, Noboru Toyomasu, Naotoshi Fukui, Naohiro Fukui, Yasuko Asakura, Haruko Fujita, Tan Kurokawa, Toyoko Tomi, Sonoko Inouye, Tatsuo Mizutani, Toshiko Kosono.

Violin: Nukuhiko Okami, Anna Ono, Jiro Okada, Hisako Tsuji, Yoko Matsuu, Takiko Omura, Kenshu Wanibuchi, Akio Watanabe.

Yoichi Hiraoka (xylophone) and others, well-known figures and new in the musical world, also gave recitals. Many benefit Concerts were given in succession for raising funds for the construction of war planes and similar purposes.

As the one and only operatic show during the season, the Fujiwara Yoshiye Opera Company had a two-day run of Beethoven's "Fidelio" at the Kabukiza on December 27 and 28, 1943. Sung in Japan, "Fidelio" was produced by Keizo Horiuchi and Yukio Aoyama and music was furnished by the Daiwa Symphony Orchestra under the direction of Guritt.

Reflecting the intensified war situation, the number of concerts and recitals given during a period of one year from September, 1943, up to August, 1944, was extremely small. Of 168 musical events during the 1943-44 season, there were 47 orchestra concerts, 49 vocal and instrumental recitals, 22 public performances of individual musical pieces, 20 concerts of chamber music, eight vocal-instrumental mixed concerts, six vocal concerts and 16 record concerts.

CHAPTER XXX

AMUSEMENTS, SPORTS AND CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

AMUSEMENTS

Introductory Amusements, both Oriental and Occidental, meet in Japan as do the customs, manners, religions, beliefs and all other phases of cultural life of the East and West. And the people are blessed with the enjoyment of innumerable varieties of entertainment, old and new, including dramatic performances such as the kabuki, noh-drama, puppet show and modern drama; the "yose" or the place for story-tellers; popular music and songs; dances and sword play; cinema; entertainments through radio; horse racing; hunting; games of cards, "go," "shogi"; chanoyu; such domestic delectations as "ikebana" or flower arrangement, "bonkel" or tray landscape, "bonsai" or dwarf trees; miniature gardening; all kinds of juvenile amusements; and cormorant fishing.

To begin with, Japan has a drama all her own. The popular stage is the "kabuki," essentially a product of past ages, which, with its enchanting beauty and gorgeous color, often captivates the fancy of foreign visitors. The kabuki drama is not old as age goes in Japan. It sprang spontaneously from the people, the tradesmen, the artisans and others who were excluded from the pleasures enjoyed by the aristocrats and samurai in olden days; but its forbears may be recognized in the stage art of Japan prior to its birth.

The religious dance that was the precursor of drama goes back through centuries to the mythological age of the gods. For centuries the dance remained, as in other countries, a religious rite, being performed in Shinto shrines by virgins. With the incoming of Chinese culture Chinese music came into favor and was introduced into the Imperial Court. At the time of the establishment of the first Shogunate, that at Kamakura in the 13th century A.D., the Buddhist dance ritual and dramatic recitals made a great appeal to the warrior class, and from them was evolved the Noh drama, in which both actor and playwright are

subservient to the interpreter. But the common people had no part in either the religious or the Noh dance. These were exclusively for the upper classes.

Noh Drama

The Noh drama was as aristocratic as the kabuki drama was plebeian, and even now its performance and enjoyment are mainly confined to the upper classes. There are very few theaters or private houses, if any, where strangers are allowed to view Noh upon payment of admission. Most Noh enthusiasts form clubs, and members and their friends see the productions. In feudal Nippon, the Noh was the principal form of entertainment among the aristocrats and the warrior class. It was often performed in the presence of the Emperor, and at one time it was the custom for the Tokugawa Shogun to invite the common people to Noh performances given in commemoration of some happy event. Noh was a feature entertainment on all formal state occasions.

The Origin and Stage The origin of the Noh dates back to the early part of the 15th century. Two men, Kannami-Kiyotsugu and his son, Seami-Motokiyo, revolutionized the "Saru-gaku," an ancient form of dance, consisting of juggling feats and comic remarks with actions to suit, with the result that the Noh in its present form was developed. Not only did these two men build on what was best in their own Saru-gaku, but they drew freely from the "Den-gaku," ancient music, which had much in common with the Saru-gaku. What was graceful in them was ennobled to profundity in the Noh, while their comic elements developed into the "kyogen," comic performances, usually given on the same program with Noh pieces.

Unlike any other form of drama, the Noh is performed on a wooden stage of regulation size, built above the ground, 18 feet square, open on three sides, with

a narrow extension on one side for the singers and another at the back of the stage for the musicians and attendants. To that rear extension is attached aslant a passage called a bridge. The players appear from under the curtain, to one end of which the passage slightly slopes down. The stage, too, is very slightly tilted to the front.

The Noh pieces, numbering more than 250, are repeated over and over again, but the interest of the spectators apparently never wanes. The pieces are classified into five groups for convenience: (1) "wakimono," which generally deal with Shinto or Buddhist deities; (2) "ahuramono," which commonly deal with ghosts of warriors; (3) "kazuramono," with noble ladies acting the main parts; (4) "genzaimono," or present-day pieces, dealing with various manifestations of human nature; (5) pieces dealing with demons or goblins as subjects, or those of congratulatory nature with gay and joyous elements.

For each program of the Noh, which generally lasts a good part of a day, one from each of the above five classes is given in the order mentioned, with a "kyogen" between each and generally a dance in ordinary dress in addition. The whole program is preceded by a piece called "okina," which is held in special reverence; the person acting its chief character is the okina, an old man.

The Construction The construction of the Noh piece is by no means uniform, but very often it is as follows: A "waki," who plays the secondary rôle; generally a monk or a Minister of State, first appears and tells who he is. Then he walks about the stage a while, singing, to suggest that he is travelling. Coming to a standstill, he announces his arrival at a certain famous spot and takes his place by the post at the front righthand corner facing the stage. Then the "mayé jité" (shité), the principal character in the first appearance, comes in the form of a farmer, fisherman or priest, describing the scenery of the place and telling of the heroes connected with it, or relating the origin of the temple or shrine as the case may be, thus furnishing the audience with a necessary background to the play. The "mayé jité" then suddenly retires from view. He was in reality a Shinto or Buddhist deity, or the ghost of a warrior, in disguise. While the "waki" is started by his sudden disappearance, there come on the stage common farmers or

wood-choppers who give in plain language, spoken more or less in the ordinary way, all detailed information concerning the place, generally reiterating what has already been chanted or intoned by the "mayé jité," and then retire. This allows necessary time for the principal character to change for his reappearance. While waiting, the "waki" sings, indicating a lapse of time. The song ended, the "nochi jité," the principal character in the latter appearance, in proper form and attire as a Shinto or Buddhist deity or the spirit of a hero, comes to the stage and dances as though wandering at night, revealing some spiritual attributes. In words and in action he recounts his bravery, his death struggle, or his suffering in the underworld, asking for the prayer of the "waki" for the peaceful repose of his soul. The "shité" tells his story as he performs, or he merely dances without any chanting. Generally there is a chorus who intone some verses either alone or with the performers. In the Noh drama, the action is symbolic, stately and dignified.

Generally several persons sitting on the side extension sing either in chorus, by themselves, or together with the performer. On the rear extension there are usually four musicians who play on the "fue" or flute, the tsuzumi, which is a small drum struck with the tips of the fingers and resting on the shoulder, the ohkawa, a slightly larger drum struck on the knee also with the tips of the fingers, and the drum beaten with two sticks.

The accessories used on the stage are very simple. A fan is much in evidence in the dance, the studied use of which is very effective with the manipulation of the dancer's big sleeves. The costumes used in the Noh are marvels of textile fabrics, refined taste being revealed in bold yet harmonious designs and colors. Above all, the mask to be worn by the principal character and the assistant is a very important part of the Noh performance. There have been great masters among carvers of Noh masks, many of whose works still remain.

Six Schools Ever since the great reformation at the beginning of the 15th century, the Noh has had four main acknowledged schools or houses: Kwanzé, Komparu, Hosho and Kongo, all of which are still thriving. Later, another school, Kita, won official recognition, while still another, Uméwaka, also has

many followers, the variation practiced by each school being but slight. On the whole, the Noh performance may well be compared to a masterful Oriental picture in monochrome, both being guided by highly idealistic aims and artistic aspirations with many points in common, possessing alike great impelling qualities that thrill the devotee but sometimes weary the uninitiated.

There are 19 Noh stages and three portable stages maintained by clubs or organizations in Tokyo.

The Kabuki

It was during the early part of the Tokugawa Shogunate that the popular stage in Japan came to birth, flowered and bore fruit. An era of peace was ushered in, and the Empire began to prosper in a material way. Not only the kabuki, but the ukiyoyé, or woodblock color print, and other genre date from this period. The people had leisure, money and the inclination for pleasure. It was but natural that forms of artistic expression to satisfy their taste should follow.

The germs of the popular drama may be found in society prior to this period, but they had not attained much development. About 370 years before, one of the Shinto shrine dancers, O-Kuni, performed in a public street in the capital city of Kyoto, after which she wandered from place to place for the entertainment of the people. Others followed her lead, until the government decreed that thereafter only men might give public entertainments, owing to the moral laxity which had ensued. The name kabuki was first applied to this pioneer form of dancing. Although the Chinese ideographs forming the word mean literally "singing and dancing art," Japanese scholars say that its true derivation is from an obsolete Japanese verb meaning "to be playful."

The Beginning The early kabuki actors were social outcasts, or kawaramono (river-bed folks), but as the aristocracy learned of the new art and its charms they secretly slipped away from their mansions and homes to enjoy it. Gradually the moral and social level of the stage was raised, until today there is no more social prejudice against the actor. The Emperor Meiji's attendance of a performance by a troupe of kabuki actors at the home of the late Marquis K. Inoué raised their status immeasurably.

The kabuki is found to embrace four general classifications: historical dramas, plays of everyday life, fantastic, imaginative improvisations, and music-posture plays or dances. It is often difficult, however, to assign any particular drama to one of these four classifications, for the play with historical characters may also be a play dealing with their very human emotions.

The Technique The kabuki is primarily a picture for the eye, although dialogue is carried on and an orchestra-chorus seated on the stage plays very much the same rôle as was played by the chorus in classical Greek drama, aiding the action with explanations to the audience. The life and thought, costumes and manners of all classes of feudal society are well illustrated on the kabuki stage, while skilful color combinations in costumes, stage architecture and furniture tend to carry the spectators into a land of imagination and romance. From a purely dramatic standpoint it ranks with the best in the world. In stage settings and mechanics it has much to teach the rest of the world. Its gorgeousness of costuming and pageantry finds no equal. One of the features of the Japanese theater is the hana michi, or flowery way, which usually consists of two long narrow platforms on the same level which stretch through the audience from the stage to the rear of the auditorium. They are chosen by the actors for their best entrances and exits and are extremely effective when processions are used.

Kabuki Actors The profession of kabuki actors is in most cases hereditary. Sons of actors succeed their fathers in the profession, and actors without sons usually adopt the sons of other actors or their best disciples and give them the stage names of their families. Onoyé-Kikugoro, one of the most accomplished actors, is the sixth Onoyé-Kikugoro, while the late Ichikawa-Danjuro represented the ninth generation of the Ichikawa family. Kabuki actors are trained from childhood and because of the difficult conventions to which they must conform few men can become actors after the age of 20.

In kabuki proper, all rôles are taken by men. The onnagata, or woman impersonators, devote years of study to femininity, and in most cases they are more consistently feminine than women.

Tokyo is the dramatic center of the

country. Practically all first-class kabuki actors live here, though there are a few in Osaka. They travel all over the country from time to time. The more noted ones in Tokyo are Ichimura-Uzaemon, Onoyé-Kikugoro, Matsumoto-Koshiro, Nakamura-Kichiyemon, Sawamura-Sofuro, Ichikawa-Ennosuké and Banto-Mitsugoro. The noted Osaka actors include Jitsukawa-Enjaku and Nakamura-Fukusuké.

The theaters change programs once a month, and very seldom, if ever, are long runs given, no matter how popular a particular program may prove, although the pieces which prove popular are repeated from time to time as long as they hold public interest.

The Typical Program A typical kabuki program has three to five offerings of different types and lasts six hours, usually 4 p.m. to 10 p.m. The majority of the spectators take dinner in restaurants in the theater during intervals. Tickets cost from 50 sen to as much as ¥7 or ¥10 a seat. All the playhouses are of Western style, at least the inferior, with chairs provided. Seats may be reserved 10 days in advance.

Modern Drama

Shimpa Shimpa or the new school of actors first appeared on the stage on February 5, 1891 A.D. at Sakai near Osaka. The Shimpa is quite independent of the Kabuki, and the actors, strictly speaking, were amateurs. The novelty of their enterprise, introducing something entirely new to theater goers, by presenting plays of modern life of classical events in a modern version, strongly appealed to the general public.

After passing through many trials,

Shimpa has steadily cultivated its own ground and consolidated its foundation until today it has a dominion all its own. Many of the Shimpa actors are as prominent as those of the kabuki with a large number of enthusiastic fans who give them support. Shimpa depends upon male actors who impersonate feminine characters on the stage. Kawatakeo and Kitamura-Rokuro were two of the most distinguished actors who appear in feminine rôles, followed by such highly promising players as Hanayagi-Shotaro and Kawarasaki-Kunitaro and others.

On Sept. 15, 1908 A.D. an institute for training actresses called upon those who wished to become actresses. This was the first move in this direction in the annals of Nippon's histrionic art. Appearance of actresses on both kabuki and Shimpa stages has since become a commonplace affair.

Although the line between the classical and modern stage plays is drawn more or less rigidly, kabuki actors not infrequently throw in one act plays in their program that should properly belong to the Shimpa stage, while, occasionally, a troupe of young kabuki actors that had drifted away from the traditional circles would present a classical play.

The "Little Theater" movement was started about 17 years ago, led by the late Osana-Kaoru, prominent dramatist and stage director. The group which performed at the Tsukiji Little Theater, produced hundreds of Western plays in Japanese translation. (In regard to the present activities of Shimpa the readers are referred to Chapter on Literature, "Drama in 1939.")

ITINERANT TROUPE

With regard to the questions of what circumstances prompted the creation of itinerant troupes and what they aim at, a brief explanation is furnished here.

Initial motive for the birth of itinerant troupes was wish on the part of the dramatists for contributing to the promotion of war power through the merit of drama. It is ever necessary from a national viewpoint to entertain and encourage the people who are sweating day and night in production and transportation work, toiling people who make up the bulk of the national population, by furnishing them with

wholesome and cheery amusement. For this reason and for the other reason of prosecuting the long-term war successfully, travelling theater has arisen, embracing the ideal of introducing hope and grace to the people's life thereby nurturing in them energy required for maintaining life, instead of merely providing impromptu amusement.

Why the circuiting method was adopted as the mode of newly born drama, however, calls for a further explanation. There have been in Japan various kinds of stage playing such as Kabuki, Shimpa or New School of Act-

ing, Shingeki or New Drama, intermediate drama (including the acting of Shinkoku-geki and that by the Zenshinza troupe), light plays (staged by actors like Roppa and Enno-Ken), girls operetta. All these have been billed only in cities. And noted actors connected with these plays fail to travel off the beaten path consisting on well-known provincial theaters. Furthermore, the present stage playing in the cities is rather limited in character by desires of urban audiences. For example, Shimpa mostly reflects the sentiment prevalent in geisha circles and Shingeki mirrors the thought and emotion of intellectuals, much as noh playing in the older days was in keeping with the taste of the samurai class and Kabuki with that of the townspeople of Yado, now Tokyo. In such manner the acting before the advent of itinerant troupe has not always lived up to the ideal level expected by present-day Japan, that is to enhance the fighting strength at home front. Under these circumstances, a people's play more popular and at once conforming with this ideal was wanted. A people's play is thought to be a more urgent demand now that Japan is shouldered with the important task of directing the cultural activity of the Greater East Asiatic common prosperity sphere and building up a new East Asiatic culture henceforth. Preliminary to creating people's play it is pertinent to provide the great masses of people toiling earnestly in the farm fields of production, in factories, fishing villages and mines, with opportunities to view stage acts, thereby implanting in their mind interest in drama and raising in them keen sense of appreciation as well as active want for drama. Only in this way the spirit and sentiment of the race will be made to pervade drama, becoming its inherent elements and resulting in the production of popular drama filled with avidity.

The itinerant troupe movement started with such tenor as just described. In short, it is a national movement to cultivate the people's energy for living and uplift their personality. It is at the same time an artistic movement for preparing ground for a people's drama.

Japan Itinerant Troupe Federation Organized Proponents having such idea about the movement organized themselves into Japan Itinerant Troupe

Federation in June, 1941, helped by the Taisei Yokusan-kai and the Board of Information.

Before that time existed what may be termed embryonic travelling theater. Some time after the China Affair started, large theatrical firms like Shochiku and Toho organized itinerant troupes as a means of serving the State's cause and made them travel to the battle fields, or tour through agrarian and fisherfolk's villages, thus offering comfort in the form of drama to the working populace. But their activity was spontaneous and lacked a clearly defined guiding spirit while their organizational and business methods were multifarious, instead of keeping in touch with large sections of people really. The Japan Itinerant Troupe Federation was then formed in earnest for the purpose of creating travelling drama in a systematic manner.

Development of the Federation The federation is managed by a committee made up of representatives from member theatrical firms, troupes and public organizations with national membership (the Taisei Yokusan-kai, the Agricultural Patriotic Service Association, the former Central Union of Co-operative Societies and the Youth Association). Moreover, committee members come from the Board of Information and the Mainichi Shimbun. The chairman of the committee at the time of its inception was Kunio Kishida, then chief of the cultural department in the Taisei Yokusan-kai while Kisaku Ito assumed the position of the vice-chairman, and concurrently the head of the secretariat, to dispose of varied tasks. At first the member troupes included three, namely, two Shochiku People's Itinerant Troupes and Toho Itinerant Cultural Corps, but then the organization grew rapidly. In January, 1942 the Kurogane-tai troupe was formed as an exclusive affiliate and on the occasion of the federation's first anniversary of its establishment, June 1942, the member troupes numbered eight. Aside from them, 12 commercial troupes including the Uzaemon Company participated as itinerant groups and went on journeys on the countryside at times. The federation since its organization through December 1942 made 2,329 presentations before the audiences numbering as many as 2,902,715 persons, a really staggering figure.

During the early days of its existence the federation's secretariat maintained six divisions, consisting of investigation, distribution, production, education, propaganda-publication, general affairs and accounts divisions. Really, however, complying with requests for performance was about all it could do and other basic tasks as playwriting, training of actors were left on hand-to-mouth basis. Change in the set-up of the federation and expansion came to be discussed before long, for the main cause that the organization received a direct impetus from the unexpected record of appearances made by its troupes. The discussion was brought up also on account of economic necessity. The expense of itinerant troupes was defrayed by the management of the particular troupes engaged, by the federation and also by the sponsors of the programs presented. More concretely, the management of the troupes paid the expenses for setting, property and costume; the federation has made appropriations for writing, designing of the staging, for travelling fares, and finally, the sponsors footed bills of hiring the troupes, renting the staging space, of board and room for the actors. Under such formula it became increasingly difficult for the federation financially to make large-scale presentations. It was then proposed to have a subsidy from the Government and raise quite a sum from among wealthy citizens. Thus on February 8, 1943 the federation was incorporated.

As reorganized, the highest policy of the federation is decided upon by corporate members who are representatives from the Dai Nippon Industrial Patriotic Service Association, the Dai Nippon Youth Association, the Society for Culture of Rural Villages, the Shochiku Joint Stock Company, the Tokyo-Takarazuka Theater, the Yoshimoto Theatrical Joint Stock Company, the Showa and Shinko theatrical joint stock companies, the Takarazuka Operetta Company and the Mainichi Newspaper Publishing Company. As officers there are president, directors and auditing director, in the directorate. By the order of the president, two managing directors take up daily work of attending to general affairs. Aichiro Fujiyama became president while Hidenobu Kamizumi and Kisaku Ito were made managing directors. The Government through the Board of Information

gives general guidance and conducts supervision, and besides, counselors come from the Ministry of Home Affairs, Ministries of Education, Welfare, Transport and Communications, and of Agriculture and Commerce, also from the Taisei Yokusan-kai. The secretariat now has three divisions of general affairs, planning and work. The general affairs division is concerned with general routine, accounts, personnel affairs, investigation, material and welfare. The planning division takes charge of playwriting, production, stage arts, training, propaganda-publication and special urban appearance. The division of work looks after distribution, organization of spectators and tasks connected with troupes. The Kansai branch office, opened in September, 1941, handles duties with regard to affiliated troupes and also sees to distribution. The federation, furthermore, has organized two troupes of its own, Azusatai and Hogaruka-tai, in order to cope with ever growing requests for playing.

As there are over 12,000 towns and villages in the whole country, there ought to be at least 60 itinerant troupe units, each to play on 200 different stages, to afford the townsmen and villagers opportunity to view playing once a year. Moreover, realities are that not only villages and rural towns but an unlimited number of factories and mines crave to see travelling theater playing. It means that even 120 troupes performing all the year round would not be enough. As at the end of April, 1943, however, troupes connected in any manner with the federation numbered 11, a total for Tokyo and Osaka taken together. The number of these units was expected to reach 20 by the end of 1943, only sufficient then to fill 1/6 of calculated demand.

With respect to the cost of appearances before the public audiences, it is stated that travelling theater should be maintained by the people themselves, and should not be presented as a favor since it is drama for them. Charging admission, however, becomes detrimental to enthusiastic and sacrificial spirit of the actors. For this reason admission is not levied as a rule but it is provided that sponsors may, upon obtaining understanding of the federation, take from 10 to 20 sen per person for paying hands that assist in arranging the stage space, in case the sponsors are pressed to resort to that course.

A public performance costs around 500 yen and usually now the federation and sponsoring party pay in a ratio of about 3 to 2.

Study of Travelling Dramatics and Actor Training In the sense that travelling theater lacks a permanent theater building of its own, it differs from any kind of drama in the past. Thus it faces exigency to bring out new dramatic form. It is duty-bound especially to produce good play with a limited number of actors and simple staging facilities. For that, an effort is

being made to revive the form of old noh-play. As organizations for study are formed study groups respectively for playwriting, production and fine arts end of travelling theater, and are aiming at attaining goal in their respective fields of specialization.

As regards the drilling of actors the practice of instituting a course of training and seminary have been adhered to. It aims at raising specialized skill, general culture in the actors and giving organizational discipline in their activity.

STATISTICS OF SPECTATORS GATHERED, BY CLASSES

	Factory Hands, Miners, Their Families(1)	Rural Villagers(2)	General Public(3)	Miscellaneous (4)	Total
June-Dec., 1941	535,140	106,460	22,400	20,600	684,600
Jan.-Dec., 1942	1,072,539	409,790	612,786	123,000	2,218,115
January, 1943	22,140	3,650	48,600	76,210	220,600
February, 1943	58,130	17,250	56,680	3,650	135,710
March, 1943	90,050	45,180	58,162	132,250	325,642
Total	1,847,999	582,330	798,628	255,710	3,584,667

Note: (1) People who participated in viewing performances sponsored by Industrial Patriotic Association. (2) Sponsored by co-operative societies and the Society for Culture of Rural Villages. (3) Sponsored by the Taisei Yokusan Kai (4) Miscellaneous people include officials, soldiers, sailors, etc.

NUMBER OF PRESENTATIONS AND SPECTATORS, BY CLASSES OF SPONSORS

	Industrial Pat. Ass'n	Co-ops.	Taisei Yokusan-kai	Miscellany	Total
June-Dec., 1941	354 times 535,140 persons	86 106,460	21 22,400	29 20,600	490 684,600
Jan.-Dec., 1942	839 times 1,072,539 persons	634 409,790	517 612,786	99 123,000	2,109 2,218,115
Jan.-Mar., 1943	229 times 240,320 persons	59 66,080	123 163,442	106 212,110	511 681,952
Total	1,436 times 1,847,999 persons	779 582,330	661 798,628	234 355,710	3,110 3,584,667

Note: The column for co-operatives includes farm organizations such as the Society for Culture of Rural Villages. "Miscellany" includes Government offices, the fighting services, comfort performances at hospitals, etc.

The Puppet Show

The puppet show or doll theater, the precursor of the kabuki drama, has suffered so much decadence that now the Bunraku-za in Osaka is the only doll troupe of its kind in the country. The plays are kabuki in miniature. Each doll, slightly smaller than life-size, is

held by a manipulator on the stage and made to act. The manipulators, who appear in ceremonial robes, put life and spirit into the wooden figures, and they have acquired world fame for their dexterity.

The "joruri (Gidayu)," a dramatic recitation, is not only inseparable from

the doll show, but enhances its effect. The *yoruri* reciter usually sits on a raised platform at the right corner of the stage and sings and recites to the accompaniment of the *samisen*, played by his side. Not infrequently several reciters and *samisen* players perform in unison, the reciters speaking their lines for the dolls. Both manipulators and singers are trained from childhood. The *yoruri* recital often accompanies the *kabuki* performance. The *yoruri* or *Gidayu* is also sometimes recited independently of the doll show or the *kabuki*.

Yosé

Yosé, a sort of variety show, is another form of entertainment which has survived the vicissitudes of time.

The main actors on the *yosé* stage are story tellers who are divided into two groups, the *hanashika* and *koshakushi*. The former tell humorous stories of everyday life, crack jokes and play pun on words. A good many of these stories are years old and the popularity or otherwise of a *hanashika* depends upon the skill with which he tells these stories. The *koshakushi* recites the heroic deeds of warriors of old or the chivalrous virtues of famous men of the locality, with a touch of refined humor to enliven the narration.

The program at a *yosé* includes, as a rule, popular songs, song-recitals, dances, music, jugglery, and other amusements, but *hanashika* is the outstanding feature. Formerly many of the theaters used to present *yosé* programs consisting exclusively of *koshakushi* recitals but these have practically disappeared. The number of *yosé*, in fact, has dwindled down considerably of recent years, due largely to the gaining popularity of movie shows among the younger generation.

There are five best known *yosé* in the regular, old fashioned style and two with modern equipment in Tokyo. The best known *hanashika* and *koshakushi*, with a few exceptions, live in Tokyo.

Dancing

Odori "Odori" means dancing and is usually applied to the Japanese form of dancing. The classical mode of dancing, such as is performed to the accompaniment of the classical songs of *nagauta*, *tokiwasa* and other popular ditties of old, is still as popular as ever. But *odori* by a group of dancers is an innovation, influenced by Western dancing. The oldest and most famous of the

group dancing is "Miyako Odori" which was originated in Kyoto as early as 1886 A.D. Many years later, Osaka started "Naniwa Odori," "Ashibe Odori," and "Konohama Odori" and Tokyo "Azuma Odori." These dances as a rule are performed by *geisha* and are intended as an annual booster of local business. *Geisha* dances, both classical and modern, may be viewed at private parties at any time of the year by appointment.

The Western forms of dancing such as ball-room dancing and exhibition dancing exercise a great appeal on the public mind. There are many instructors of Western dancing, although the number of dance halls and taxi-dancers has perceptibly dwindled since the outbreak of the China Affair.

Sword Dance (and poem recital). *Kenbu* or sword dance is a form of public entertainment peculiar to Japan. It is most popular among boy students and young men, and has gained a wider popularity since the outbreak of the China Affair, on account of the emphasis laid on the development of martial arts. A man in Japanese dress, with his sleeves tucked up, carrying a sword and a folding fan, performs an interpretative dance while another recites a heroic poem after the Chinese style. The recital of poems itself may be regarded as an independent art and there are many professional reciters of national fame. The recital of famous poems is considered to be a refined entertainment, and almost any Nipponese knows the way it is usually recited. Sometimes, a *kenbu* performer and poem reciter together appear on a *yosé* stage.

The Cinema

Cinema houses are to be found in 641 cities and towns, out of the 10,909 communities, of Japan, both in urban and rural districts, accommodating from 400 to 3,000 persons each. The number of regular cinema houses in Japan is about 2,000 with 300 million paid admissions, per annum.

The government institutions, schools, newspaper companies, and public organizations, are giving free shows for purposes of propaganda, education and entertainment.

Production and Distribution The motion picture producing companies in Japan are the Shochiku Cinematograph Company, Toho Elga Company, Nippon Motion Picture Company and in addition there are three cinema producing companies for cultural films. The dis-

tribution of the films is controlled by the Dal Nippon Elga Distribution company.

On October 1, 1939, a new Cinema Law was put into force for strengthening the State control.

In 1941 the importation of foreign films was practically stopped on account of the gravity of the international situation and the State control of the production of Japanese films is further strengthened.

Radio

Introduced in 1925, the radio has become one of the two most popular means of entertainment in Japan, the other being the cinema. At the end of January 1940, 4,743,667 families in Japan proper had already become listeners-in which means that one home in every 3 has a receiving set.

Complex Program It is said that Japanese radio programs are more complex than those anywhere else in the world. The old and the modern exist side by side, the indigenous and the foreign. Programs, in consequence, must be arranged to meet divergent tastes, though ingenuity is sometimes taxed heavily to satisfy everyone daily. The divergence in taste is most marked in musical programs. Japanese music, both instrumental and vocal, has developed in a manifold form through many centuries and appeals to the older people in particular. It must be admitted that the music introduced from Europe and America is fast becoming popular. Young people who understand it generally prefer Western music, and old people, who do not understand it, would rather hear the music they have known since childhood.

Broadcasting in Japan is monopolized by the Japan Broadcasting Corporation, activities of which are mentioned in the Chapter on Communications.

Indoor Games

Go *Go*, often with little appropriateness termed "checkers" by European writers, is the most popular of the indoor pastimes of the Japanese,—a very different affair from the simple game known to Europeans as *Goban* or *Go-bang*, properly the name of the board on which the *go* is played. Clubs and professors of the art are found in all the larger cities, where, too, blind players may occasionally be met with. *Go* may with justice be considered a more difficult game than chess, its wider field affording more numerous ramifications. The game was introduced into Japan

from China by *Kihino-Mahl*, commonly known as *Kibi Daijin*, who lived in the reign of the *Shomu Tenno* (724—756 A.D.). In the middle of the 17th century, a noted player, called *Hon-Imbo*, was summoned from Kyoto to entertain the Chinese ambassador then at the court of the *Shogun*, from which time onward special *go* players were always retained by the *Shoguns*.

Go is played on a square wooden board, nineteen straight lines lengthwise and the same number of lines cross ways, crossing each other at right angles, make three hundred and sixty-one *mé*, or crosses, at the point of intersection. These may be occupied by a hundred and eighty white and a hundred and eighty-one black *ishi* or stones. The object of the game is to obtain possession of the largest number of *mé*.

This is done by securing such positions as can be most easily defended from the adversary's onslaughts. There are nine spots on the board, called *seimoku*, supposed to represent the chief celestial bodies, while the white and black stones represent day and night, and the number of crosses the three hundred and sixty degrees of latitude, exclusive of the central one, which is called *taikyoku*, that is, the primordial principle of the universe. There are nine degrees or classes of proficiency in the game, beginning with number one degree as the lowest, and ending with number nine as the highest point of excellence attainable. In playing, if the combatants are equally matched, they take the white stones alternately; if unequal, the weaker always takes the black and odds are also given by allowing him to occupy several or all of the nine spots or vantage points on the board,—that is, to place stones upon them at the outset.

A description of how the game proceeds would be of little utility here, it being so complicated as to make the personal instruction of a teacher indispensable.

Renju *Renju* is more popularly known as "gomoku narabe." It is played with the black and white stone pieces the same as the regular *Go* games. The winner in this game is the one who sets his stone in such a way as to have five in one row, while preventing his opponent from achieving the same purpose. There are three organizations in Tokyo with a number of title holders. Seemingly much simpler than the regular *Go* game, *Renshu*, nevertheless, calls for

much skill and foresight and the ease with which even a child may play it makes it a most popular game. This game is played with 50 pieces of stone by each player and the less skilled, as in Go, starts the game with the black stones.

Shogi Japanese chess (shogi) was introduced from China centuries ago; and though it has diverged to some extent from its prototype, the Japanese and Chinese games still have one feature in common distinguishing them from all other varieties. It is this. The rank on which the pawns are usually posted is occupied by only two pieces, called *hisha* and *kaku* by the Japanese. Also, on either side of the king are two pieces, called *kin* in Japanese. These perform the duty imposed on the ferz or vizir of the Persian *Shatranj*, which was the equivalent of the modern queen. Therefore, no queen or piece of similar attributes appears either in Japanese or Chinese chess. There are 81 squares on the Japanese board, and the game is played with 20 pieces on each side, distinguished, not by shape or color, but by the ideographs upon them. Though the movements of the pieces resemble in most respects those followed in the European game, there are certain ramifications unknown to the latter. The most important of these are the employment of the pieces captured from the adversary to strengthen one's own game, and the comparative facility with which the minor pieces can attain to higher ranks.

Chess is understood by all classes in Japan. O is the king, *keima* the knight, *hisha* the rook, and *kaku* the bishop—or pieces having movement like them. *Fu* is the pawn. The movements of the *yari* also resemble those of the rook, but are confined to the single rank on which it stands. *Gin* (silver) and *kin* (gold) are not found in Western chess. *Gin* moves one square diagonally only. The *kin*, besides having similar movements, has also the power of moving one square on each side of itself, but it cannot return diagonally. The *fu* advances one square forward, and captures as it moves.

When any piece moves into the adversary's third row, it may become a *kin*. This is indicated by turning the piece over. Every piece so promoted loses its original character, except the *hisha* and *kaku* to which the movements of the *kin* are added.

As already indicated, a captured piece may be employed at any time for either attack or defense. To checkmate with the *fu* is a thing vetoed—or at least considered "bad form"—in this non-democratic game, neither is stalemate permissible in Japanese chess. You wait until the adversary makes a move which admits of a free action on your part. The object of the game is to checkmate the king.

Card-Play

Hyakunin Isshu This is a collection of 100 Nipponese poems of 31 syllables, written by 100 different people of prominence of olden days. On 100 cards are printed the first half of the stanza and on another 100 the second half. Cards containing the second half are divided among the players. Then a "reader" taking up the cards with the first half of a stanza, starts reading them slowly and aloud. As he reads the first half of a stanza the one who has the card containing the second half of the stanza will produce it. If one has not the particular second half of the stanza among his own cards, he may pick it out from among his neighbor's cards, and give him any of his own cards in return. The winner is the one who clears his cards earlier than the others. One who is an expert in the game would pick up the corresponding second half of the stanza the instant the reader utters the first one or two words. There is no reason why this card-play should not be enjoyed at any time of the year, but as a rule, it is played only during the New Year's holidays. It has become an indispensable part of New Year entertainments. It is participated in by all the members of the family, old and young, and serves as ideal amusement at a time when all the family members and friends meet together. There are many clubs that make a systematic study of this game and hold public contests.

In 1942 a new set of 100 poems was chosen from among the *waka* written by patriots in the past and called the *Alkoku* (patriotic) *Hyakunin Issu*. This new one is going to be sung and played instead of the old one.

Hanagaruta (Flower-Cards) These cards number 48, and every four of them make a set presenting a flower. That is, there are 12 sets of four presenting 12 different flowers or plants, as follows: young pine, plum blossoms, cherry blos-

some, *wistaria*, iris, tree peony, *lespedeza*, grass hill, *chrysanthemum*, maple leaves, willow, and *paulownia*, one for each month of the year in the order given.

There are several ways of playing games with *Hanagaruta*: *solitaire*, *hachi-hachi* or "Game of Eighty-eight," "Six hundred," *Sudaoshi*, *Mushi* and *Kabu*. But the most popular and the most interesting of these is *hachi-hachi*. As in the case with bridge, the game may be played according to quite simple or elaborate rules.

Theoretically, a party of from two to six can play the game. It is most enjoyable when there are three to half a dozen players are at the table.

Twelve rounds complete one set and each round is sometimes referred to by the name of the month following the natural order. Twelve months or one year can be played in 20 minutes or less.

These flower-cards developed from the classical "flower contests" which were originated far back in the 9th or 10th century A.D. by the elegance-loving ladies and gentlemen of the Kyoto Imperial court. At first the game was played by each contestant choosing a spray of some flower and writing a 31-syllable poem on a piece of colored paper in praise of this flower and tying it to the twig. Then the flowers were collected and judged from the point of view of the beauty of the flower, the literary quality of the poem and from the general effect.

These sprays of flowers came later to be represented in pictures, and probably under the influence of the Western card games introduced to Japan by the Portuguese during the 16th century, the flower-cards came into being. They present sprays of various flowers in the simplest but the prettiest design and coloring so characteristic of the art of the Tokugawa period, but at the same time they preserve all the poetic sentiments and associations of the courtly game of flower contests.

Cha-no-Yu

Japanese people drink tea during and after each meal and it is customary to serve a cup of tea to callers at any time of the day. *Cha-no-yu* or tea-ceremony is, however, a peculiarly artistic way of serving tea as an entertainment for guests according to strictly-formulated rules of etiquette. A fine powder of

choice green tea is used for it. The powdered tea is put in a bowl much larger than an ordinary tea cup and hot water is poured over it, and the mixture is beaten by means of a bamboo whisk. A party of guests are invited to enjoy this drink. They assemble in the "yoritsuki," a special waiting room for the tea party. The host appears and conducts them to the tea-room.

They walk along a garden path to the tea-room, which is about 20 feet away. At a basin filled with fresh water they wash their hands before entering the tea-room. This is usually four and a half mats in area, about three meters square, and is provided with a stationary hearth or portable firebrazier for the kettle. The entrance to the tea-room is so small that the guests have to stoop to enter.

On entering the room each guest kneels in front of the *tokonoma* or alcove, and admires the *kakemono* or hanging picture or inscription on the wall of the alcove, and the tiny incense-holder on a side shelf. Then refreshments are served as soon as the guests are properly seated. It is called "*Kaiséki*" and consists of the simplest dishes. The host waits on the guests himself and does not eat with the guests. After the "*kaiséki*" sweets are served, the first part of the ceremony is concluded.

Then at the host's suggestion the guests retire to the waiting-room or to another place where a bench is provided. A gong announces that the host is ready to serve the tea above mentioned. The formality of purification at the basin is repeated and the guests enter the room. The hanging scroll is gone and a flower arranged in a vase is in the alcove. The receptacles for fresh water and the tea-caddy are placed in position before the host enters with the tea-bowl. The tea-whisk, tea-cloth and teaspoon are also brought in. The host retires once more to the adjoining room but soon reappears, this time with the receptacle for waste water, the dipper and a stand for the cover of the kettle or the dipper. All these articles are valued treasures which the host is proud of, and the guests are supposed to pass compliments on them in a proper way.

The host puts three spoonfuls of powdered tea in the bowl, then he puts the dipper deep into the kettle and takes it out brimful of hot water. About one-third of the hot water is poured over the tea-powder in the bowl, two-

thirds being returned to the kettle. The mixture is vigorously stirred or beaten with the bamboo whisk until it becomes frothy. The host places the bowl of tea thus prepared in front of the principal guest. The guest makes a bow to his fellow-guests and puts the bowl on the palm of his left hand. Supporting one side of the bowl with the right hand he takes one sip, complimenting the host on the excellent flavor, right consistency and so on. After he has taken two or more sips the bowl is passed on to the second guest, thence to the third, and so on until all have partaken. When the bowl comes to the last one, he takes it to the principal guest who then returns it to the host. Then the chief articles of cha-no-yu, the bowl, caddy and spoon, are inspected and their workmanship admired by the guests, and when they are finally returned to the host in the prescribed fashion the cha-no-yu entertainment is over. When the party breaks up and the guests are gone the serious-minded host returns to the tea-room and sits alone in front of the kettle which is now his sole companion and listens to the sound of the boiling water. The whole procedure will take about four hours.

Cha-no-yu or tea-ceremony began with Shukō in 1483 A.D. In the north-eastern end of Kyoto there is the famous villa where Yoshimasa, 8th Shogun of the Ashikaga line, indulged in aesthetic pursuits. The historic tea-room built as specified by Shukō, father of the tea ceremony, is still preserved in sound condition in the villa which is called Ginkakuji, better known to foreign visitors as the Silver Pavilion.

The principles of tea ceremony taught by Shukō were more concretely set forth by Jōwō (1503-1555 A.D.), and then his mantle fell on Sen-no-Soyōki (1521-1591 A.D.) who is better known by his court name, Rikyū, granted through the influence of his patron Toyotomi-Hidēyoshi. The formula and etiquette instituted by Rikyū still remain the basic practices as taught by the various schools of cha-no-yu that have sprung up since his death in 1591. Many utensils bearing the stamp of his genius have come down to the present day, and those who lay out tea-rooms and gardens still adhere to the canons left by him. There are many schools of tea-ceremony represented by various tea-masters, but one is little different from another in their essentials. Harmony prevails, therefore,

when persons of different schools meet at a cha-no-yu party.

Cha-no-yu was a pastime for warlords, monks and courtiers, but now it is enjoyed by all classes of people and taught to young girls in schools by private tutors as one of the best means for training them in Nipponese etiquette, because it enables them to cultivate poise, grace, tranquillity and urbanity, all qualities making for refinement in manners.

Flower Arrangement

Nipponese flower arrangement is the art of arranging flowers and leaves in different kinds of vases so as to meet the requirements of Japanese taste in decorating their sitting rooms and parlours. The raison d'être of this Nipponese floral art is the satisfaction of their instinctive love of nature by a scheme of decoration best fitted for the interior of Japanese homes. The beginning and development of Japanese flower arrangement, therefore naturally corresponds to the history of Japanese architecture and way of living.

The Japanese style of architecture which had completely emerged from the Chinese influence in the 14th century (A.D.), and the comparatively peaceful life of the people in the 14th century (A.D.), under the Ashikaga régime, prepared favorable conditions for the development of flower arrangement which played an important part in enriching the refined mode of the upper classes of people such as Court nobles, warrior lords and monks.

The Ginkakuji Temple or Silver Pavilion, which was built in the latter half of the 15th century (A.D.), on the outskirts of Kyoto, is said to have been the birth-place of Nipponese flower arrangement as an art, as well as that of the tea ceremony. Shogun Ashikaga-Yoshimasa who lived at the Ginkakuji had several attendants, "chabōzu" or "tea-priests" who looked after the tea ceremony and flower arrangement for him. Among these attendants of Yoshimasa the one who was best versed in the art of flower arrangement was Sōami. One of the oldest documents on the floral art "Gojō Shikimoku" is attributed to his authorship, and it is most likely that the primitive flower arrangement which had been already in vogue took a definite shape with Sōami and schools of the art began to be established.

After Sōami came Ikénobō, priest of a temple called Rokkakudō, also located in

Kyoto, who later so distinguished himself as priest and master of flower arrangement that he became the founder of the priesthood at Rokkakudō and the school of floral art, both bearing his name. The Ikénobō school of floral art has existed for more than four hundred years and is proud of having the longest tradition and probably the largest number of students throughout the country.

During the 17th century (A.D.) the Emperor Gomizunowo took great interest in the floral art, and courtiers, nobles and high officials gathered together at court for the study and occasional exhibitions of flower arrangement. A hall was provided in the court for the tea ceremony to which guests were invited and an exhibition of flowers arranged in vases by different hands was often held for them in a building which was temporarily built for that purpose in the palace garden. Such exhibitions of flower arrangement were held frequently during the following centuries.

There have developed many schools of flower arrangement in Nippon during the past four centuries, but they may be roughly grouped into two; one is the "rikkyō" group which is more formal in style and the other is the "nagêrō" group which is more natural. The former was in the past regarded as the orthodox style whereas the latter was considered heretic or auxiliary. But to-day both styles have equal standing among the students of the art, each having characteristic merits and distinctive qualities of its own.

In Japan girls are taught the floral art in schools and under private tutors as one of the accomplishments for women and carefully keep their certificates of graduation in the art in the "tansu" or Nipponese chest-of-drawers for keeping kimono, one of the indispensable pieces of furniture which they take to their new home at their wedding. Japanese women find occasions for escaping from their household duties and chatting with their friends in attending flower arrangement parties, for as a rule they rarely go out for picnics or to dances.

Mén, young and old, occasionally take up the study of the floral art, and though they are much fewer in number than the other sex they occupy the position of leadership in almost all schools of the art. It is no longer a monopoly of the aristocracy, and visitors to Japanese homes are charmed with the sight of flowers and leaves artificially yet most

naturally arranged in vases put on the "tokonoma" or alcove shelves. On festival days passers-by are entertained by exhibitions of flowers most skillfully arranged and set in rows in the front rooms of houses facing the streets. Modern department stores attract customers with special flower arrangement exhibitions.

Bonkei As its name indicates (bon, tray; kei, scenery), bonkei is a miniature landscape scenery produced on a tray by means of fine-grained sand and a few suitable-sized rocks. Two or three rocks on a black lacquered tray, with a dash of snow-white sand, arranged with a brush to resemble the rippling waves, would present a most attractive paraphernalia in a reception hall or a corner of a hallway. It calls for training under professional instructors but the technique is fairly easy to master, and many girls are skilful in the art as in flower arrangement or tea ceremony.

Bonsai Bonsai is better known among people abroad as dwarf trees. The art is peculiar to Japan. Many kinds of trees, full grown, are of small size. A real connoisseur of dwarf trees often has a large collection of quaint, charming variety of pines, bamboos, plums and so forth, their total value amounting to a fortune. At a public exhibition in Tokyo of rare dwarf trees some years ago, there was one pine tree barely two inches high, fully matured, reported to be 20 years old, which could easily be placed on one's palm. It is a necessary part of the decoration in a Japanese parlor, especially on formal occasions.

Hakoniwa Hako-niwa (box garden) is one of the most popular pastimes among the Japanese. Even young children enjoy making them. A box of any size may be filled with pebbles, soil or any other material to represent a garden or a country scenery. A rivulet running through a village, dotted with thatch-roofed cottages, together with several farmers, peddlers, anglers, is one of the commonest type. Houses, bridges, stone lanterns, boats, people in various styles, are available at any shops, while small sized trees may be obtained cheaply from any plant-shop. The size and scheme of the box-garden depends upon one's fancy and the amount one is prepared to spend on it. With proper care, a box-garden will last for a year or more, with the tiny trees growing luxuriantly.

Popular Songs

The variety of popular Japanese songs may roughly be divided into the following five:

(1) Those of the pre-Restoration days; (2) those of Meiji era; (3) military songs; (4) school songs, and (5) those which may be termed modern.

(1) Pre-Restoration Songs: In this category are included those songs which have come down from the days before the Restoration. One characteristic of these songs is that they are suitable for being sung at small gatherings and at banquets to the accompaniment of *samisen*. They are not suited for being sung by a large group. The most favorite of them that have survived the vicissitude of years, even now sung to the accompaniment of a violin or harmonica and other western musical instruments, are: *Otsue*, *Tateyama-bushi*, *Tango-no-Miyazu*, *Kochae*, *Nogeno Yama-kara*, *Fukagawa-bushi*, *Kappore*, *Yakko-san*, *Yarisabi*, *Yoneyama Jinku* and *Konpra-Fune*. The most lively of these are *Kappore* and *Fukagawa-bushi* while *Yarisabi* is a quiet and tranquil tune.

(2) Meiji Era Songs: Songs of the pre-Restoration days continued to appear after the Restoration. The influence of the romantic sentiment that surrounds these songs remained fairly strong, although many popular ditties in the later period of Meiji distinctly revealed the western influence in tune and rhythm. Some of the most famous of these songs, popular even today are: *Enkaïna* (1873 A.D.), *Suteteko* (1880), *Oppeke* (1887), *Suiryo-bushi* (1888), *Kyo-no-shiki* (The Four Seasons in Kyoto, 1895), *Sanosa* (1899, a variety from the famous Chinese tune *Kiu Lien Kuan* or *Line Linked Rings*), *Strike-bushi* (1900), *Rippa-bushi* (1904), *High Collar-bushi* (1909), *Don-Don-bushi* (1911) and *Suton* (1924), *Oryokuko-bushi* (The Yalu River song, about 1919). It became popular in Dairen, in early 1912's and when brought to Nippon in 1919, swept over the country. The tune is clearly modified further from *Sanosa* above referred to.

(3) Military Songs: Military songs may really be said as having blazed the trail for all popular songs of modern type. The very first military song, *Miya-San Miya-San* (1868 A.D.) was a most crude affair as a musical piece, both in tune and composition, but it inspired men marching against the

Shogunate forces. The best known military song is *Battotal* (1884). Equally well known is *Tekiwa-Ikuman* (1891). *Michi-wa 680-ri* (1892) was widely sung among young people and the *Genko* (1893) was a great hit among youngsters, one of the most stirring songs that dwelt on the heroic fighting of the samurai against the invasion of Kublai Khan. *Hoto-no-Tatakai* (the Battle of Fengtao), *Roel-no-Yume* (the Dream of a Camp), *Kokai-no-Taisho* (the Great Victory of the Yellow Sea) and *Yuki-no-Shingun* (Marching Through the Snow) which were most popular in 1894-95 at the time of the Sino-Japanese War, are well remembered.

(4) School Songs: School songs are those sung primarily by pupils and students. The oldest and the most familiar is *Hotaru-no-Hikari*. The tune is borrowed from *Auld Lang Syne* and its words express the sentiment of school days and the song is invariably sung on the occasions of commencement formalities. From about 1888 A.D. songs primarily intended for pupils at lower grade and students at higher schools began to appear, and some of the military songs as a matter of course were adopted in schools. Hundreds of school songs have been produced, suitable for the different grades of schools, including those for kindergartens.

The ones that caught the popular fancy and maintained popularity for years were *Minato* (1900 A.D.), the *Song of the Railway* (1900), the *Beautiful Nature* (1900) and the *Round the World* (1901). *Minato* or the *Port* describes a moonlight scene at a port and the *Song of the Railway* is a description of the scenic spots and historical landmarks along *Tokaido* (Tokyo-Kyoto). *Minato* is more delicate in tune and words than the *Railway Song* and was favorite among all classes of people; the *Railway Song* won lasting public favor on account of the novelty of the theme and simplicity of tune.

(5) Modern Songs: One distinct feature of all popular songs that may be classed in this category is their decidedly western aspect. All are accompanied by an orchestra and their tune is practically that of western songs. A large variety has appeared and those that won enthusiastic reception everywhere were the *Dotonbori March* (1928 A.D.), the *Tokyo March* (1929). Kobe came out with a *March* of its own but failed to catch up with the two in popularity.

Then the *Tokyo Ondo* and *Osaka Ondo* competed for public favor and both gained a warm reception.

Colleges and schools have all their own songs which are yelled out at stadiums in boosting their respective teams or sung at meetings of fellow students or other public functions where the students gather. Some of them were taken up by the public outside the colleges and the songs of the dormitory of the First Higher School in Tokyo were especially prominent. The college songs of *Waseda* and *Keio Universities* are some of the most familiar among them.

Mention should also be made about the juvenile songs. They are in great demand and excellent pieces have been produced by composers of national fame who specially devote themselves to composing songs that bear appeal to the little folk.

It may be added here that the most well known popular songs with foreign titles were the following:

The *Sinking of the Normanton* (1887 A.D.), an expression of national indignation over the inhuman attitude of Captain Drake and crew of the British freighter *Normanton* (3,000 tons) which ran aground off *Shionomisaki*, *Wakayama* prefecture, October 24, 1887. The *Nipponese passengers*, 25 in all, were left on board the sinking vessel while the captain and crew safely escaped ashore. The Japanese all perished. The *Ripples on the Danube* (1902); *Song of Katusha* (1914) when *Tolstol's Resurrection* was much in prominence; the *Song of Gondola* (1915), the *Song of Carmen* (1918) in the days when operas were in great favor. The *Boatmen's Song of Venice* (1924), *Valencia* (1927), *Mon Paris* (1927) and the *Song of Arabia* (1928).

Of these the one about the English freighter was more like a military song while "*Washington*" was a school song. Others should be classed among those of modern category.

A large majority of those popular songs of the pre-Restoration days and Meiji era originated in the rural areas. Strictly speaking, they are folklore songs, favorite among the rural people. There are many of these folk songs of the olden days that are still in popular favor such as *Oiwake*, *Sado-Okesa*, *Yasuki-bushi*, *Kiso-bushi*, *Iso-bushi*, *Kushimoto-bushi*, *Ohara-bushi* and *Ise-Ondo*. These represent, incidentally, the key provinces from north to south; *Sado*, *Yasuki*, *Kiso*,

Kushimoto, *Ohara* and *Ise* are the names of either towns or provinces.

As example of a popular song which has a strictly religious appeal may be mentioned *Goelka*. The whole is a series of a number of short songs in praise of Buddhist virtues and benevolence. It is usually sung by pilgrims that make a round of visits among the 88 temples as traditionally designated. A pilgrim, chanting this *Goelka* in a slow drone, timing the chant with a tiny bell, makes a somber picture. The custom of singing *Goelka* is studiously preserved among the devotees.

The *China Affair* brought about a radical change almost overnight. Every phase of life showed a wartime aspect. Songs that cheered "boys" at the front and steeled those proceeding to the front became popular. It should be noted that there is not a single song that expresses hatred of the enemy. Among those that became the rage of the day were the "*Message from Shanghai*," "*My Pet Horse March*" and the "*Song of Camping*." Simple and straight in wording, lively and pleasant in rhythm, "*Thank You, Mr. Soldier*," captivated the soldiers at the front and the folks at home. It is destined to enjoy a record popularity.

Juvenile Amusements

The question of juvenile amusements is claiming the most serious attention of the authorities concerned. This is especially true in regard to urban centers where the problem of physical welfare of children is regarded as of the utmost importance, on account of the various forms of mental and physical tension to which children are subjected in city life.

Boys and girls under 14 years of age are not admitted to a movie show that caters to the adult patronage, and there are movie halls that screen films officially approved as suitable for minors.

The time-honored *Hina-matsuri* (the Dolls' Festival) for girls (March 3) and *Tango-no-Sekku* (the Boys' Festival, May 5) are still popular. The joy of flying a kite in the New Year season has long been practiced by boys even in cities in spite of the network of telegraph and telephone wires overhead, as kite flying originated in this country, ahead of the other nations in the world, according to a Western authority. Quite a number of boys may be seen enjoying this fascinating pastime on the open grounds at the parks. City girls

do not fare any better in playing the age-old battledore games during the same season because of the danger from traffic.

Minors share the joy of almost everything that their elders enjoy, only in a more or less modified form. They are conspicuous in hiking, swimming, and in most other sports.

A new feature in the line of juvenile amusement was introduced in recent years in the shape of Kami-shibal (paper-theater). An itinerant showman goes round alleys and side streets, carrying a frame of about 1½ X 1 ft. on a tripod. On the frame are mounted a number of pictures in succession, each

drawn on a large cardboard sheet describing a series of exciting scenes of a play. As the man tells the story, he slides a picture out of the scene, thus revealing the next one. Each child pays a few pennies to the showman at the end of the show and with the money buy candy.

The Kami-shibal appealed to the youngsters so much (especially those in urban districts) that the authorities had to consider its moral effect upon the young people, and since the outbreak of the China Affair, it is put under strict control, many of these showmen disappearing to enter better occupations.

SPORTS

Development of Western Sports

The History Young When a Nipponese refers to "sports," he usually means Western athletic sports, not the traditional sports of Japan. The tremendous interest of the Japanese in Western sports and the remarkable development that they have made in them have relegated Japan's own sports to the background. One may pay tribute to the athletic prowess of the Japanese and their adaptability and capacity for assimilation, but one strong reason for the great popularity of the sports from the West may be sought in the fact that most Western sports are played collectively, instead of individually as in the case of Japanese fencing and judo, and they appear to suit the race in their modern mode of life. Western sports, moreover, offer the Japanese an opportunity to compete with other athletic nations and demonstrate their ability. This gives more incentive for their enthusiasm for foreign sports.

Despite their remarkable growth, Western sports in Japan are of recent introduction, and their history is a matter of only half a century. Sixty years ago, no Western sport worth the name existed in Japan. The fact that Japan could send only two athletes to the World Olympic Games for the first time as late as 20 years ago and suffered a miserable defeat is indicative of the slight athletic progress the country had attained up to that time. Except for baseball, which was played zealously even in the earlier years, it is no exaggeration to say that Japan's participation in the World Olympics provided

the real incentive for the growth of Western sports in general.

The Far Eastern Olympiad It should be added in this connection that, one year after Japan's first participation in the World Olympics, the Far Eastern Olympic Games were organized, with Nippon, China and the Philippines as the participants. There is little doubt that this minor Olympic had a great deal to do with athletic development in Japan. As in the case of the World Olympics, Japan had an insignificant beginning as far as points go, but in 1930 the country so completely defeated the Philippines and China that one who was acquainted with the remarkable athletic progress in Japan doubted the usefulness of further competition in the Far Eastern Olympic Games. The first meet of this junior Olympics was held at Manila in 1913, and since then successive Far Eastern Olympic Games have been held every other year. In 1930, when the last meet was held in Tokyo, it was agreed to hold the meet every four years so that it would not clash with the World Olympics. The last Far Eastern Olympic Games took place in Manila in May 1934. In addition to the World and Far Eastern Olympic Games, there have been from time to time frequent exchanges of visits between Japanese athletic teams and those of foreign countries, which not only offered the Japanese opportunities to learn valuable lessons but provided good opportunity for a closer international friendship.

Traditional Sports

Of Japan's traditional sports, those

which have remained from ancient times and which still hold the interest of the people include jujitsu (judo), known as the art of self-defense; kenjutsu (kendo), or fencing; sumo, or wrestling, and swimming (native styles). All these major sports are still being practised throughout the country. Probably the most popular among them is wrestling. At the Kokugikan amphitheater at Ryogoku, on the bank of the Sumida River, which flows through Tokyo, a professional wrestling tournament is held twice a year, in January and May. H.I.M. the Emperor invites almost each year not only professional wrestlers but jujitsu and fencing masters of the land to the palace for matches in His Majesty's presence. In addition to these Nipponese sports, there are others, such as archery and horsemanship of ancient origin, but they have suffered more or

less decadence since the overthrow of feudalism.

Under Education Minister All sports in Japan are controlled either by the Ministry of Education or the Ministry of Welfare. All students' sports are under the jurisdiction of the Education Ministry, and such non-student affairs as Nipponese professional wrestling and professional boxing are under the control of the Ministry of Welfare. Matters such as the maintenance of peace and order in and around the wrestling amphitheater or boxing ring are in the hands of the local police.

Records

Various statistics of records made by Nipponese athletes at the World Olympics, the national athletic meetings and other local meetings follow:

TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Running

Event	Time	Japan's Record
100-meter	10.2s.	Ryutoku Yoshioka (1937)
200-meter	21.2s.	Mutsuo Taniguchi (1934)
400-meter	49.0s.	Keiji Imai (1934)
800-meter	1:54.0m.	Kumao Aochi (1934)
1,500-meter	3:56.8m.	Kiyoshi Nakamura (1936)
5,000-meter	14.3m.	Kohel Murakoso (1936)
10,000-meter	30.25.0m.	Kohel Murakoso (1936)
Marathon	2:26.42h.	Kitel Son (1935)

Hurdles

110-meter high hurdles	14.6s.	Tadashi Murakami (1935)
400-meter low hurdles	54.2s.	Toyaji Aihara (1936)
3,000-m. steeplechase	9:25.2s.	Takio Osawa (1940)

Relay Races

400-meter	41.4s.	Yoshioka, Sasaki, Taniguchi, Suzuki (1935)
800-meter	1:28.0m.	Takano, Kondo, Taniguchi, Suzuki (1934)
1,600-meter	3:16.8m.	Nakajima, Masuda, Oki, Nishi (1932)
3,200-meter	8:20.4m.	Kida, Nagatani, Hori, Hamada (1929)

Walking

3,000-meter	13:13.0m.	Zenichiro Yamamoto (1939)
5,000-meter	23:45.4m.	Eiji Wada (1939)
10,000-meter	49:0.0m.	Kenzo Naraoka (1940)
50,000-meter	4:42.57h.	Eiji Wada (1936)

Jumping

High jump	2:02 mtrs.	Tetsuji Akima (1940)
Broad jump	7:98 mtrs.	Chuhel Nambu (1931)
Hop, step and jump	16 mtrs.	Naoto Tajima (1936)
Pole vault	4.35 mtrs.	Sueo Oye (1936)

Weight Events

Putting 16-lb. shot	14.13 mtrs.	Shizuo Takada (1934)
Hammer throw	51.27 mtrs.	Isao Abe (1935)
Discus throw	46.19 mtrs.	Eijin Miyagi (1940)
Javelin throw	68.59 mtrs.	Saburo Nagao (1934)

Decathlon

7,469.596 pts.	Tatsuo Toki (1932)
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WOMEN'S JAPAN TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Event	Japan's Record
50 mtrs. run	6.4s. Kinuye Hitomi (1927)
100 mtrs. run	12.2s. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)
200 mtrs. run	24.7s. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)
400 mtrs. run	1:1.6m. Kiyoko Itoda (1935)
800 mtrs. run	2:23.8m. Kinuye Hitomi (1928)
1,000 mtrs. run	3:23.3m. Michiyo Inishi (1935)
80 mtrs. hurdles	11.9s. Yoshiko Yamashita (1938)
400 mtrs. relay	50.1s. Yamauchi, Koshiyama, Yosrida, Itoda (1938)
800 mtrs. relay	1:49.2m. Kato, Nakajima, Manabe, Itoda (1935)
1,000 mtrs. relay	2:17.1m. Koya, Ueda, Nakamura, Niibayashi, Yamamoto, Okuno, Sakai, Kawashima, Kawahara, Takino (1935)
High jump	1.61 mtrs. Riye Yamauchi (1939)
Broad jump	6.07 mtrs. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)
Shot put	47.26 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1941)
Discus throw	41.46 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1938)
Javelin throw	44.51 mtrs. Sadako Yamamoto (1936)
Hop, step & jump	11.66 mtrs. Riye Yamaguchi (1939)

JAPAN'S SWIMMING RECORDS

Men's Free Style

Distance	Japan's Record
50-meter	25.8s. Shigeo Takahashi (1934)
100-meter	57.2s. Masanori Yusa (1935)
200-meter	2:9.6m. Shigeo Arai (1938)
300-meter	3:30.8m. Shigeo Arai (1938)
400-meter	4:45.0m. Hiroshi Negami (1936)
500-meter	6:7.2m. Gen Ishiwarada (1935)
800-meter	9:55.8m. Shozo Makino (1935)
1,000-meter	12:33.8m. Tomikatsu Amano (1938)
1,500-meter	18:58.8m. Tomikatsu Amano (1938)

Men's Breast Stroke

100-meter	1:11.3m.	Tetsuo Hamuro (1940)
200-meter	2:39.0m.	Tetsuo Hamuro (1940)

Men's Back Stroke

100-meter	1:7.2m.	Seiji Kiyokawa (1936)
200-meter	2:30.8m.	Yasuhiko Kojima (1938)
400-meter	5:23.2m.	Kiichi Yoshida (1936)

Women's Free Style

100-meter	1:11.0m.	Kazue Kojima (1936)
200-meter	2:42.8m.	Kazue Kojima (1933)
400-meter	5:41.4m.	Fumi Hatano (1942)
800-meter	12:31.8m.	Hatsue Morioka (1935)
1,000-meter	15:57.0m.	Hatsue Morioka (1933)

Women's Back Stroke

100-meter	1:25.7m.	Hideko Maehata (1933)
200-meter	3:0.4m.	Hideko Maehata (1935)

Women's Breast Stroke

100-meter	2:52.1m.	Misao Yokota (1932)
200-meter	3:9.2m.	Ai Oda (1936)

Track and Field

The birth of track and field sports in Japan dates back to the Meiji Restoration in 1868. In the following year, a physical training course was added to the curriculum of middle schools, which consisted of gymnastics introduced by the Dutch. In the meantime, those who returned home to Japan from abroad, much impressed by athletics in foreign countries advocated the introduction of Western athletics. Several foreign teachers were invited to teach athletics as well as English. Running and jumping were taught, but progress was slow. The first Japan track and field meet was held in Tokyo in 1884, but the first really systematic athletic meet was not held until 1886. At the latter meet, programs were printed. It was an epoch-making event. Track and field events about 1889 and 1890 were almost the same as they are now. There were the 100, 200, 400, 800 yards, the 100 yard hurdles, cricket ball throw, the three-legged race and so on. As for records, the best was 10.8 seconds for the 100-yard dash and 18 seconds for the 100-yard hurdles. From that time on, progress was gradual until 1912, when Japan took part in the

World Olympic Games for the first time. An outline of the progress of Western sports in Japan in subsequent years is given in the first section titled "Nippon in the World Olympics."

At the invitation of the Nippon Amateur Athletic Federation, the American track and field stars, captained by Glenn Cunningham, the world famous distance runner, visited Japanese in September 1934, for a series of contests against the leading Japanese athletes. They were the first and strongest athletic force ever to come to Japan from the United States, and staged one of the biggest track and field events in this country.

Track and Field Events in 1942
Covering the different meets held within the country during 1942, and jotting down the best performances made in the various events will give the following results:

Event	Record
100 meters:	10.8s. Toshihiro Nagata
200 meters:	22.4s. Shigeo Iwasaki
400 meters:	50.6s. Koichi Funada
800 meters:	1:58.5m. Susumu Takahashi
1,500 meters:	4:05.2m. Susumu Takahashi

Jumping

High jump	2:02 mtrs.	Tetsuji Akima (1940)
Broad jump	7:98 mtrs.	Chuhei Nambu (1931)
Hop, step and jump	16 mtrs.	Naoto Tajima (1936)
Pole vault	4.35 mtrs.	Sueo Oye (1936)

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200 mtrs. run	24.7s. Kinuye Hitomi (1929)
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800 mtrs. run	2:23.8m. Kinuye Hitomi (1928)
1,000 mtrs. run	3:23.3m. Michiyo Inishi (1935)
80 mtrs. hurdles	11.9s. Yoshiko Yamashita (1938)
400 mtrs. relay	50.1s. Yamauchi, Koshiyama, Yosrida, Itoda (1938)
800 mtrs. relay	1:49.2m. Kato, Nakajima, Manabe, Itoda (1935)
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Shot put	47.26 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1941)
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400 meters: 50.6s. Koichi Funada
800 meters: 1:58.5m. Susumu Takahashi
1,500 meters: 4:05.2m. Susumu Takahashi

5,000 meters: 15:39.0m. Mineo Kawakami
 10,000 meters: 32:13.2m. Hotoku Suenaga
 Marathon: 2:56.21m. Yasuta Akiba
 110 meter high hurdles: 15.4s. Jun Tanaka
 400 meters low hurdles: 55.6s. Ei Nishitani
 3,000 meters steeple chase: 10:19.8m. Yoshimasa Ishida
 Relay, 400 meters: 43.6s. Michimoto, Matsuoka, Kanayama, Iwasaki
 Relay 1,600 meters: 3:28.0m. Morohashi, Miki, Noda, Yoshida
 High jump: 1:50 meters Yoshihiro Suzuki
 Broad jump: 7:30 meters Gengen Kanayama
 Hop step and jump: 15:64 meters Gengen Kanayama
 Pole vault: 4:30 meters Bunkichi Sawata
 Shot put: 12:94 meters Masahel Nishimura
 Discus throw: 41:32 meters Hideaki Sakuma
 Javelin throw: 65:24 meters Shoshi Irino
 Hammer throw: 46:76 meters Kokan Takagi
 Decathlon: 5481 pts. Hikaru Kobayashi

Women's Track Record

100 meters: 12.5s. Kinuko Hayashi
 200 meters: 27.6s. Rie Yamanouchi
 80 meters hurdles: 12.7s. Yoshiko Yamashita
 400 meters relay: 52.1s. Yoshikawa, Todoroki, Matsu-ura, Matsutaka
 High jump: 5:66 meters Rie Yamanouchi
 Broad jump: 1:62 meters Rie Yamada
 Shot put: 11:18 meters Toyoko Yoshino
 Discus throw: 24:86 meters Ai Honda
 Javelin throw: 34:87 meters Toyoko Yoshino

Swimming

Swimming is one of Nippon's major sports that has been handed down from time immemorial. Swimming masters turned out several distinct styles of swimming, some of which more or less resembled the Western crawl of the present day. Swimming in ancient Nippon was a serious subject of study, especially for the fishermen and warriors, to whom swimming was more a practical necessity than a healthful diversion.

The Western crawl was introduced

into Nippon about 1910. Since then the Nipponese have not only copied but developed it into a more perfect stroke. The result was the remarkable showing made by the Nipponese mermen at the Tenth Olympiad in Los Angeles in 1932.

The second Nippon-America dual swimming meet was held on August 17, 18 and 19, 1935, at the Meiji Shrine pool, Tokyo, ending in the former's victory by a close score of 36 points to 27. Climaxing three days of thrilling competition which held capacity crowds spellbound during the meet, the Nipponese aces proved their supremacy and marked themselves as foremost contenders for the Olympic water crown at Berlin next summer.

The meet was close throughout. Before the final day, the score stood 22 to 20 in favor of Japan. All predictions pointed to the final relay as the deciding event. But in the 200-meter back stroke, Taylor Drysdale of the United States who finished first, was disqualified for what the judges considered an illegal turn at the 100-meter mark, giving Eiichi Yoshida of Japan first place and the meet to Japan before the concluding event. Japan won seven events out of 12 held. Two world and three Japanese records were bettered during the meet.

The 1942 winners were:

Men's Events

50 meters freestyle, Seiken Yusa (Yokohama Gum) 26:4s.
 100 meters freestyle, Takeji Honda (Rikkyo) 1:01.4m.
 200 meters freestyle, Jinpei Kawamura (Kelo) 2:17.2m.
 400 meters freestyle, Shuichi Murayama (Wakayama) 4:52.0m.
 800 meters freestyle, Shuichi Murayama (Wakayama) 10:10.8m.
 1,500 meters freestyle, Tomikatsu Amano (Nihon) 19:35.4m.
 50 meters backstroke, Toshihiro Taniguchi (Daido Seitetsu) 31.2s.
 100 meters backstroke, Kiichi Yoshida (Waseda) 1:08.8m.
 100 meters breaststroke, Saburo Tahata (Ritsumeikan) 1:16.2m.
 200 meters breaststroke, Seiichi Oura (Rikkyo) 2:46.6m.
 200 meters relay, Honda, Hayashida, Taubota, Yusa (Nippon) 1:48.8.
 800 meters relay, Miyamoto, Koyanagi, Ogura, Ota (Waseda) 9:18.8m.

Women's Events

50 meters freestyle, Toshiko Fujita 32.8s.
 100 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 1:14.2m.
 200 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 2:40.4m.
 400 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 5:40.0m.
 50 meters backstroke, Shitoko Kanamori 38.8s.
 100 meters backstroke, Mieko Asamori 1:26.2m.
 100 meters breaststroke, Ryuko Nagata 1:31.0m.
 200 meters breaststroke, Ryuko Nagata 3:17.0m.
 200 meters relay, Kato, Arai, Sano, Hatano 2:19.6m

Wrestling (Sumo)

Japan's traditional wrestling, known in Japanese as sumo, is another ancient sport of Japanese. It is recorded in ancient history that Nomi-no-Sukune and Taena-no-Kehaya wrestled before the Emperor Suinin. In feudal times each lord had under him the strongest wrestler of the province, and he made it a custom to arrange a match with the wrestler of another lord. Such being the case, the wrestler who was strong and won for his lord many laurels enjoyed warm patronage. Public estimation of wrestlers in those days was unusually high. During the Tokugawa era, which extended for nearly 300 years before the Meiji Restoration (1868), a wrestling tournament was organized, and in January and May of each year the best wrestlers of the Kwanto district (Eastern Japan) gathered for it at Ryogoku, Yedo (present Tokyo). Rankings were decided on the basis of the showing made at the tournaments, and the wrestlers exhibited great enthusiasm in their matches. This custom remains even to this day.

The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheater at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 15 days. The wrestlers are all professionals, and the majority of them have unusually well-developed bodies. Victory in a typical Japanese wrestling match is a matter of a minute or two. Very often it is a matter of a few seconds. The wrestler who forces his opponent to fall or even let any part of the body above the knee touch the ground or to jump out of the

ring is declared by the umpire to be the winner. It is said that there are 48 different ways of defeating an opponent. Wrestling is also practised widely in schools, as are jujitsu and fencing.

The list of principal sumo wrestlers, in January 1943, follows:

In the order of seniority in the East camp, Akinoumi and Terukuni (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion); Dewaminato (Ozeki, or Champion); Toyoshima (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2).

In the order of seniority in the West camp, Futabayama and Haguroyama (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion); Maedayama (Ozeki, or Champion); Tamanoumi and Nayoroiwa (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2).

Jujitsu (Judo)

Jujitsu, more popularly known as judo, is more a military art than a sport. In olden times, this art of self-defense was widely practised among the warriors, to whom it came next to kenjutsu, or fencing, in importance. One essential difference between wrestling and jujitsu is in the use of strength. The wrestler as a rule throws down his opponent by his own strength, but the jujitsu expert uses little of his own strength, rather taking advantage of the weight and strength of his opponent in hurling him to the floor. Action is unusually swift, and a good expert of jujitsu can easily dispose of a dozen non-jujitsumen in a fight.

This martial art of self-defense was developed to its present popularity and importance chiefly by the late Jigoro Kano, promoter of the Kodokan style of jujitsu and head of the Kodokan, the leading jujitsu training gymnasium in Nippon. Since he established the Kodokan in 1880, he has turned out thousands of experts, and these experts in turn have popularized the art throughout the length and breadth of the land. After the Russo-Japanese War, jujitsu became popular in foreign countries, where Japanese instructors were invited to teach it.

At present jujitsu is practised in all middle schools and other higher schools in Nippon for its value in physical and mental culture. Many schools have teams, and as with baseball and tennis these teams have seasonal clashes. Private clubs and training halls are found in all cities of Japan. Experts receive degrees chiefly from the Kodokan.

The list of Nippon's outstanding jujitsu experts of the Kodokan includes

5,000 meters: 15:39.0m. Mineo Kawakami
 10,000 meters: 32:13.2m. Hotoku Suenaga
 Marathon: 2:56.21m. Yasuta Akiba
 110 meter high hurdles: 15.4s. Jun Tanaka
 400 meters low hurdles: 55.6s. Ei Nishitani
 3,000 meters steeple chase: 10:19.8m. Yoshimasu Ishida
 Relay, 400 meters: 43.6s. Michimoto, Matsuoka, Kanayama, Iwasaki
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 Broad jump: 7:30 meters Gengon Kanayama
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 Pole vault: 4:30 meters Bunkichi Sawata
 Shot put: 12:94 meters Masahel Nishimura
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 Decathlon: 5:481 pts. Hikaru Kobayashi

Women's Track Record

100 meters: 12.5s. Kinuko Hayashi
 200 meters: 27.6s. Rie Yamanouchi
 80 meters hurdles: 12.7s. Yoshiko Yamashita
 400 meters relay: 52.1s. Yoshikawa, Todoroki, Matsu-ura, Matsutaka
 High jump: 5.66 meters Rie Yamanouchi
 Broad jump: 1.62 meters Rie Yamada
 Shot put: 11:18 meters Toyoko Yoshino
 Discus throw: 24:86 meters Ai Honda
 Javelin throw: 34:87 meters Toyoko Yoshino

Swimming

Swimming is one of Nippon's major sports that has been handed down from time immemorial. Swimming masters turned out several distinct styles of swimming, some of which more or less resembled the Western crawl of the present day. Swimming in ancient Nippon was a serious subject of study, especially for the fishermen and warriors, to whom swimming was more a practical necessity than a healthful diversion.

The Western crawl was introduced

into Nippon about 1910. Since then the Nipponese have not only copied but developed it into a more perfect stroke. The result was the remarkable showing made by the Nipponese mermen at the Tenth Olympiad in Los Angeles in 1932.

The second Nippon-America dual swimming meet was held on August 17, 18 and 19, 1935, at the Meiji Shrine pool, Tokyo, ending in the former's victory by a close score of 36 points to 27. Climaxing three days of thrilling competition which held capacity crowds spellbound during the meet, the Nipponese aces proved their supremacy and marked themselves as foremost contenders for the Olympic water crown at Berlin next summer.

The meet was close throughout. Before the final day, the score stood 22 to 20 in favor of Japan. All predictions pointed to the final relay as the deciding event. But in the 200-meter back stroke, Taylor Drysdale of the United States who finished first, was disqualified for what the judges considered an illegal turn at the 100-meter mark, giving Eiichi Yoshida of Japan first place and the meet to Japan before the concluding event. Japan won seven events out of 12 held. Two world and three Japanese records were bettered during the meet.

The 1942 winners were:

Men's Events

50 meters freestyle, Seiken Yusa (Yokohama Gum) 26:4s.
 100 meters freestyle, Takeji Honda (Rikkyo) 1:01.4m.
 200 meters freestyle, Jinpei Kawamura (Kelo) 2:17.2m.
 400 meters freestyle, Shuichi Murayama (Wakayama) 4:52.0m.
 800 meters freestyle, Shuichi Murayama (Wakayama) 10:10.8m.
 1,500 meters freestyle, Tomikatsu Amano (Nihon) 19:35.4m.
 50 meters backstroke, Toshihiro Taniguchi (Daido Seltetsu) 31.2s.
 100 meters backstroke, Kiichi Yoshida (Waseda) 1:08.8m.
 100 meters breaststroke, Saburo Tahata (Ritsumeikan) 1:16.2m.
 200 meters breaststroke, Seiichiro Oura (Rikkyo) 2:46.6m.
 200 meters relay, Honda, Hayashida, Tsubota, Yusa (Nippon) 1:48.8.
 800 meters relay, Miyamoto, Koyanagi, Ogura, Ota (Waseda) 9:18.8m.

Women's Events

50 meters freestyle, Toshiko Fujita 32:8s.
 100 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 1:14.2m.
 200 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 2:40.4m.
 400 meters freestyle, Fumi Hatano 5:40.0m.
 50 meters backstroke, Shitoko Kanamori 38:8s.
 100 meters backstroke, Mieko Asamori 1:26.2m.
 100 meters breaststroke, Ryuko Nagata 1:31.0m.
 200 meters breaststroke, Ryuko Nagata 3:17.0m.
 200 meters relay, Kato, Arai, Sano, Hatano 2:19.6m.

Wrestling (Sumo)

Japan's traditional wrestling, known in Japanese as sumo, is another ancient sport of Japanese. It is recorded in ancient history that Nomi-no-Sukune and Taema-no-Kehaya wrestled before the Emperor Suinin. In feudal times each lord had under him the strongest wrestler of the province, and he made it a custom to arrange a match with the wrestler of another lord. Such being the case, the wrestler who was strong and won for his lord many laurels enjoyed warm patronage. Public estimation of wrestlers in those days was unusually high. During the Tokugawa era, which extended for nearly 300 years before the Meiji Restoration (1868), a wrestling tournament was organized, and in January and May of each year the best wrestlers of the Kwanto district (Eastern Japan) gathered for it at Ryogoku, Yedo (present Tokyo). Rankings were decided on the basis of the showing made at the tournaments, and the wrestlers exhibited great enthusiasm in their matches. This custom remains even to this day.

The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheater at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 15 days. The wrestlers are all professionals, and the majority of them have unusually well-developed bodies. Victory in a typical Japanese wrestling match is a matter of a minute or two. Very often it is a matter of a few seconds. The wrestler who forces his opponent to fall or even let any part of the body above the knee touch the ground or to jump out of the

ring is declared by the umpire to be the winner. It is said that there are 48 different ways of defeating an opponent. Wrestling is also practised widely in schools, as are jujitsu and fencing.

The list of principal sumo wrestlers, in January 1943, follows:

In the order of seniority in the East camp, Akinoumi and Terukuni (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion); Dewaminato (Ozeki, or Champion); Toyoshima (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2).

In the order of seniority in the West camp, Futabayama and Haguroyama (Yokozuna, or Grand Champion); Maedayama (Ozeki, or Champion); Tamanoimi and Nayoroiwa (Sekiwake, or Champion No. 2).

Jujitsu (Judo)

Jujitsu, more popularly known as judo, is more a military art than a sport. In olden times, this art of self-defense was widely practised among the warriors, to whom it came next to kenjutsu, or fencing, in importance. One essential difference between wrestling and jujitsu is in the use of strength. The wrestler as a rule throws down his opponent by his own strength, but the jujitsu expert uses little of his own strength, rather taking advantage of the weight and strength of his opponent in hurling him to the floor. Action is unusually swift, and a good expert of jujitsu can easily dispose of a dozen non-jujitsumen in a fight.

This manly art of self-defense was developed to its present popularity and importance chiefly by the late Jigoro Kano, promoter of the Kodokan style of jujitsu and head of the Kodokan, the leading jujitsu training gymnasium in Nippon. Since he established the Kodokan in 1886, he has turned out thousands of experts, and these experts in turn have popularized the art throughout the length and breadth of the land. After the Russo-Japanese War, jujitsu became popular in foreign countries, where Japanese instructors were invited to teach it.

At present jujitsu is practised in all middle schools and other higher schools in Nippon for its value in physical and mental culture. Many schools have teams, and as with baseball and tennis these teams have seasonal clashes. Private clubs and training halls are found in all cities of Japan. Experts receive degrees chiefly from the Kodokan.

The list of Nippon's outstanding jujitsu experts of the Kodokan includes

Nagaoka and Isogai, both holders of kudan, the highest rank, Izuka, Samura, Tabata and Mifuné, all holders of hachidan, a rank next to the highest.

Kendo (Nipponese Fencing)

Together with Judo, the study of Kendo was carried on among the Samurai and several hundred forms of fencing were propagated throughout the country. At the present time, there are about 30,000 people who are taking up this sport, if we include those in the middle schools, colleges, universities, and in private life. This sport consists in holding the sword with both hands and striking the face, forearm, or torso of the adversary.

Rowing

This is one of the Western sports introduced into Japan early in the Meiji era. The Tokyo Imperial University took it up first.

Prior to its participation in the Berlin Olympic regatta, the Japanese Olympic crew, Tokyo Imperial University eight, caused a sensation in England when it defeated the Thames Rowing Club by a length and half in the finals of the Marlow Grand Challenge Cup race, held on the 1,540-yard course on the River Thames on June 20, 1936. The Japanese crew's winning time was 4 minutes 9 seconds, a new course record. It eliminated the Cambridge Varsity crew by three-quarters of a length in the semi-finals on the same day.

Later, the Tokyo Imperial University crew took part in the Henley Regatta, started on July 1, and lost to the Zurich crew in the semi-finals on July 3. The Nipponese eight lost to Zurich by 6 lengths.

The national eight-oared championship meet (2,000 meters) was held on the Toda course, on June 6-7, 1942.

The winners in this annual championship meet follow:

1938	Tokyo Commercial College
1939	Tokyo Commercial College
1940	First Higher School
1941	Tokyo Imperial University
1942	Waseda University

Horsemanship

Japan's horsemanship won international recognition at the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles when Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, won the Prix des Nations and had the flag of the Rising Sun hoisted. Horse-

manship was widely practised by the warriors of the feudal period as a military art. Horsemanship is now gaining popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 clubs in large cities, and many universities and colleges have their own riding societies.

Skiling and Skating

Introduced here only a decade or so ago, skiling has become extremely popular. Japan abounds in good grounds in the northern districts, which accounts for the rapid strides skiling has made. Numerous women are taking to it of recent years. In 1929, Hannes Schneider, prominent Austrian skier, visited Japan and exhibited his technique at various skiling slopes at Akakura, Myoko, etc., making a great impression among Nippon's ski lovers.

Skating is an older game than skiling in this country. As a sport for the general public, an exhibition was first given about 1907 on Lake Suwa, in Nagano prefecture. The All-Nippon Skating Championship Meet for speed skating, figure skating and ice hockey is held there yearly. At Nikko, a rink of tremendous size was laid in the winter of 1932 to permit the public to enjoy the pastime. In 1934, Japan invited Miss Bruger, the figure skater and the Canadian Ice Hockey Team. She sent 11 skilers, 7 speedskaters, 3 figure skaters, 15 ice hockey players, and 13 officials who all participated actively in the 11th Olympiad at Garmisch.

The achievements, at the Meiji Shrine national skiling championship meet held on February 4-7, 1943:

Distance: Tsutomu Okudo, 18 km.
1:15.24 h.

Jumping: Matsutaro Wakamoto
112.5 (45 meters).

Skating meet:

Speed: 500 meters. Shin Naito,
44.4 s. Miss Makiko Nawate,
51.8 s.

Ice hockey: All Manchu team.

Hunting

Hunting is a traditional sport of the Japanese. In old feudal days hunting on a great scale was practiced by feudal lords in the fields and mountains. Especially, hunting at the foot of Mt. Fuji in the period of the Kamakura Shogunate was most popular.

At present there are many hunting grounds throughout the country. The hunting season opens on October 15 and closes on April 15 every year. On account of its geographical position, rich in mountains and forests and extending from the frigid zone to the tropical, Japan is favored by many migratory birds and small animals, and Japanese hunters mostly go hunting on foot.

The number of hunters during past 5 years follows:

Year	Number of Hunters	Licence Fee (in yen)
1935	87,810	1,418,460
1936	88,806	1,442,835

Year	Number of Hunters	Licence Fee (in yen)
1937	84,545	1,372,670
1938	85,877	1,435,045
1939	108,448	1,822,400

The number of important birds shot down by these 108,000 hunters reached 3,991,741, in 1938, including 2,025,705 thrushes, 811,030 wild ducks, 336,044 copper pheasants, 308,326 green pheasants, etc. That of important wild animals was 839,965, including 652,751 hares, 160,591 weasels, 17,445 wild boars, 4,391 badgers, 2,635 deer, and 2,102 foxes.

CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

Few countries, if any, possess more ceremonies and more festivities than Japan. An actual knowledge of them, especially their origin, will reveal most of them to be delightful. In spite of the modern garb the nation wears, the life of the present-day Japan is still associated with many picturesque customs and poetical sentiments of Old Japan, which afford a glimpse into the days of feudalism.

Below is given in chronological order a list of important annual events in Japan, including ceremonies, festivals and other national customary observances mainly in Tokyo. (Dates of festivals of representative shrines are given in Chapter on Religion.)

January

January 1st. New Year's Day—New Year's Day means as much to the Japanese as Christmas means to Western peoples, or probably more. It marks the beginning of new life in an atmosphere of quiet and gaiety, leisure and pleasure. It is a time to forget the cares of the past year and enjoy feasts and indulge in all sorts of amusement in celebration of the coming good and lucky year. The homes are decorated, both inside and outside; the people are clad in their best clothes, and they all look happy.

The Imperial Household observes a religious ceremony called Shihōhai (worshipping in four directions) at the Imperial Sanctuary according to Shintō rites. The Emperor officiates in person, offering prayers to the gods for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. New Year's Day is one of the four most important national holidays of Nippon.

the others being the Imperial Birthday celebration, Kigensetsu, commemorating the founding of the Empire (Feb. 11) important national holidays of Japan, of Emperor Meiji (Nov. 3)

The time-honored custom of worshipping the New Year's sun-rise at shrine compounds situated in the "lucky direction" of the year is widely observed from the traditional belief that so doing will bring good luck. The compound of the Meiji Shrine in Tokyo, for instance, is always filled with worshippers at dawn on New Year's Day. Ceremonies celebrating the New Year are also observed at all Shinto shrines throughout the country. On this day and the following two days people call on their relatives and friends and exchange New Year greetings.

2nd. Beginning of Work—This day is known as 'shigoto hajime' or beginning of work and is marked with ceremonies for the beginning of all sorts of activities which are to be executed properly and well in the right spirit, in the hope that everything will go on in the same happy way for the rest of the year.

On the night of the second day, people were supposed, in ancient times, to dream the first lucky dream of the year. To inspire such a dream, pictures representing the Seven Gods of Fortune were sold in the streets, to be placed under the pillow so that the sleeper might dream a desired dream. This custom has almost practically disappeared.

3rd. Genshi-sai, a national holiday, celebrating the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of

the year, is observed on the third day before the Imperial Sanctuary in the Palace. The ceremony is attended by the Emperor, members of the Imperial family, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, high officials of the government and members of the peerage. In the morning the front of the Nijūbashi, the bridge at the main entrance to the Imperial Palace, presents a glittering scene as the dignitaries of the nation arrive at the palace in their State uniforms to participate in the court function. The New Year holidays come to an end on this day.

4th. Functions Resumed—All functions of the State are resumed on this day and government and private offices re-open. The Ministers of State make various important reports to the Emperor, and the Minister of the Imperial Household also gives an account of the ceremonies performed at the Grand Shrine of Ise and the other government-managed shrines on the occasion of the New Year.

5th. The Shinnen Enka, or New Year Banquet, is held at the Homō Hall of the Imperial Palace, where the Emperor and Empress give a banquet to the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Ministers of State, foreign diplomatic representatives and a large number of other dignitaries. The people in general also hold New Year parties.

One of the most interesting features of Tokyo life on this day is the festival of the Suitengu shrine at Ningyō-cho. Here, right in the heart of the modern capital, a glimpse of old Nippon reveals itself.

6th. Tokyo fire-brigades assemble in an open space in front of the Nijūbashi for the New Year parade and give acrobatic performances on fireladders. The performance of acrobatics was initiated in olden days in Yedo to reassure the public by demonstrating the efficiency of firemen when confronted with danger. This firemen's parade is no more.

Cold Season begins—the so-called 'kan,' or cold season, begins its conventional period of four weeks. The cold season is divided into two stages, the period of 'shokan,' or lesser cold, and the period of 'dalkan,' or greater cold. During the period many male apprentices and artisans devoted to their work go out thinly clad in the evening to worship at their favorite temples, having the traditional belief that divine power

invoked by their enthusiasm will make them proficient in their callings. They go to the well in the temple compounds and pour cold water over their bodies to purify themselves before worshipping at the temples. The rite is practised for the whole period every evening without a break, irrespective of weather conditions. Such enthusiasts, dressed in white clothes and usually with tinkling bells hanging over their loins, can be seen in the streets during the cold season, running from temple to temple.

Decorations removed—All New Year decorations should be removed from the house fronts before nightfall, as the main New Year celebrations come to an end.

7th. The Seven Herbs—On this day, known as 'nanakusa' (seven herbs), people eat rice gruel mixed with seven kinds of herbs. This custom originated in the days of the threatened Mongolian invasions under Kublai Khan. The herbs were deemed to give strength to the Japanese soldiers, and they are now supposed to give strength to all consumers against the nation's enemies. This custom is fast dying out.

8th. Military Review—The Emperor reviews the troops of the Imperial Bodyguard at the Yoyogi parade ground. The public may witness the review.

The 8th day of each month is set aside as the "Tai-Shō Hōtai Bi" or the "Day of Commemoration of the Imperial Rescript" of December 8, 1941, granted in regard to the declaration of war against the United States and the British Empire. The people read the Imperial Rescript and renew their determination to fight the war through to complete victory, holding prayerful gatherings at individual homes or in public.

10th. The Kompira Shrine holds its festival on this day. The shrine is located at Toranomon in Shiba, Tokyo. A feature of the festival is a fair at which many talismans are sold.

Festival of Ebisu. Ebisu is one of the seven deities of luck and very popular among the merchant class. The festival takes place at the Ebisu shrines in Kenninji Temple, Kyoto, at Imamiya, Osaka, and other places, and shops hold special bazaars.

Second Sunday. The Kodokwan, the celebrated judō training institution in Koishikawa, observes the ceremony of beginning judō practice for the year.

The greatest experts in the art of self-defense participate in the ceremony, at which the finest matches of the year are seen.

12th. Sumō (Nipponese wrestling)—The semi-annual tournaments of the Nippon Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheater at Ryōgoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 15 days. (See Chapter on Sports)

15th and 16th. Extra holidays for apprentices and servants called "yaburi" (return to country homes)—in old days apprentices and servants were given only two days off in a year, January 15 or 16 and July 15 or 16. Nowadays they are given at least one holiday a month by law, but in addition the old holiday-dates are still adhered to.

February

February 1st. There are people, usually in the country, who adhere either to the lunar calendar or one called "one month behind," and those observing one month behind calendar celebrate their New Year this day.

3rd or 4th. 'Setsubun,' or change of season, on which date winter comes to an end theoretically and spring begins according to the lunar calendar. 'Mamemaki,' or the bean-throwing ceremony, is widely practised throughout the country. People scatter beans in an attempt to drive out all the evil spirits in the house and call in good luck. The priests of leading shrines and temples observe this custom in the presence of thousands of worshippers. Usually popular actors and wrestlers are employed as bean-throwers.

11th. Kigensetsū, commemorating the accession in 660 B.C. of the first Tenno of Nippon to the Throne, is one of the most important in the Nipponese calendar. The Tenno observes elaborate ceremonies in front of the Imperial Sanctuary, attended by the Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, court functionaries and high officials of the government, and peers. An Imperial luncheon is given at the Homō Hall of the Palace, to which are invited the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, State Ministers, members of the foreign diplomatic corps, etc.

March

March 3rd. Hina Matsuri or Girls' Doll Festival is sometimes known as the

peach festival, because it is associated with the peach blossoms which begin to open about this time. All families place decorated doll shelves in the guest rooms or alcoves with a set of dolls and accessories on them. The set of dolls is supposed to represent a miniature Court of ancient days with the Emperor, Empress, and their retainers. Some of the sets in wealthy families are very valuable, costing several hundred yen each. Dolls are displayed for sale at department stores and stalls for some weeks before the arrival of this festival. Considerable religious significance was originally attached to the doll festival, but later it became a mere pastime for children. It is said by some that the custom encourages happy family life, and by others that it encourages the spirit of filial piety and loyalty. Scholars declare that the custom originated during the reign of Tsuchimikado Tenno (1199-1207 A.D.).

6th. The Empress's Birthday—This day is known in Nipponese as Chikyū-sētsu, and is a holiday for girls' schools.

10th. The Army Day, the memorial day of the victory of Nipponese forces at the Battle of Mukden in 1905.

15th-24th or 19th-25th. Higan, the Week of the Equinox, is a busy time for Buddhist families. Usually, all members of the family visit the family graveyard during the week, attend to the tombs and offer prayers to the spirits of their ancestors. Higan, literally translated, means "yonder shore," or Nirvana. Various vegetable foods specially prepared for the purpose, are offered to the dead and sent as presents to friends and relatives. All Buddhist temples in the country hold special services during the period. In Tokyo old-fashioned Buddhist believers make special pilgrimages to the images of the six-faced Amida Buddha at 18 temples situated in the hilly sections of the city and suburbs.

21st or 22nd. Vernal Equinox Festival—On this national holiday, which is called Shūnki Kōrō-sai, all schools and public buildings are closed. Shintō ritual services in memory of the Imperial ancestors and ancestresses are offered at the Imperial Sanctuary.

April

April 3rd. Anniversary of the demise of Jimmu Tenno, national holiday—This day is the anniversary of the demise of the first Tenno Jimmu, who reigned

over the country for 76 years. The Tenno performs an appropriate ceremony at the Imperial Sanctuary.

8th. Birthday of Gautama Buddha—This day, kept as the anniversary of the birth of Gautama Buddha, is celebrated by all Buddhist temples throughout Japan. Leading temples arrange parades of young girls who are daughters of Buddhist families and hold memorial services in honor of the founder of their religion. Amacha, sweet tea, is freely given at the temples to all visitors.

29th. Emperor's Birthday—Commemorating the birthday of the 124th Ruling Tenno of Japan. A service is held at all elementary and second grade schools in Japan. At the Imperial Court the Emperor and Empress hold special ceremonies at the Imperial Sanctuary, offering prayers to the spirits of the Imperial ancestors for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. After the function, the Tenno reviews the army at the Yoyogi Parade-ground. An Imperial banquet is held, to which high officials of the government and foreign diplomats are invited.

30th. Semi-Annual Festival of the Yasukuni Shrine on Kudan hill, Tokyo, dedicated to the spirits of the officers and men of the army and navy and others who died fighting for their country in the wars since the Meiji Restoration, lasts for 3 days, beginning on April 30.

May

5th. Boys' Festival—This day is dedicated to the boys of Japan. All Nipponese families having sons observe this classic festival. Appropriate dolls are on display in the alcoves of the guest rooms of the families, the festival being intended to bring health, success and prosperity to the boys. The sets of dolls displayed represent popular heroes of the Empire. The custom is of several centuries' standing and originated in a desire to encourage a martial spirit in boys. Large paper or cloth carp, often several yards long, are hoisted above the houses, symbolizing the idea that the sons of the families will be as strong as the spirited carp trying to swim up a waterfall.

15th. Aoi Matsuri in honor of Kamo Shrines in Kyoto. The procession starts from the Kyoto Imperial Palace and is famous as representing one of the oldest types of festivals in Japan.

27th. The Navy Day, the memorial day of the victory of the Imperial Navy at the Battle of the Nippon Sea in 1905.

June

June 1st. Ayu fishing season—The seasonal ban on Ayu fishing is formally lifted on this day. Anglers in Tokyo flock to the Tama and Sagami rivers to catch ayu, or sweet trout, a fish noted for its fragrance and delicious taste. A feature of the season is the picturesque cormorant fishing on the Nagara near Nagoya. (See "Cormorant Fishing" at the end of the section "Entertainments.")

17th. Annual Festival of the Great Shrine of Isé, Miyé prefecture, and the Itsukushima Shrine at Miyajima, Inland Sea.

July

July 1st. Season for climbing Mount Fuji—A service is held at the Sengen Shrine on top of the sacred peak.

7th. Feast of Tanabata—This evening the Weaving-Lady identified with the Star Vega meets her lover the Cowherd or the Star Altair on the other side of the Heavenly River (Milky Way) on the only occasion in the whole year, according to tradition. This festival of the seventh eve of the seventh month is celebrated by some although the custom has of recent years been more or less neglected in Tokyo and other cities.

13th—15th. O-Bon Festival—During the 'o-bon,' or feast of lanterns, tradition says that the spirits of the family ancestors and other dead members of the family visit the family, and due welcome is given them according to Buddhist rites. The family tombs are visited and vegetable sacrifices are offered. People make small bonfires of stipped hemp stalks at their house fronts, and light lanterns to guide the spirits of their ancestors into their homes.

Bon Odori, or dance of the 'bon' season, is a simple folk-dance which is given in the compounds of temples or elsewhere in the rural districts, under the light of lanterns.

15th and 16th. Extra holidays for apprentices and servants—Semi-annual holidays are given apprentices and servants on either of these two days, as on January 15 and 16.

17th. Annual fête of Gion Shrine in Kyoto, a picturesque shrine festival, lasts for a week. This fête is character-

ised by an animated procession bearing "Yamahoko" (procession cars) of all sorts of shapes and designs decorated with old draperies.

Last Saturday. On a Saturday in the latter part of the month, Ryogoku Kawabiraki, or the celebration of the opening of the River Sumida in Tokyo takes place at Ryogoku Bridge. A grand display of fireworks attracts hundreds of thousands of spectators.

August

August 4th. Annual festival of the Kitano Shrine in Kyoto.

16th. Annual Bon-fire Fête on Mount Nyoj in Kyoto.

19th. Lantern Fête on Mount Atago in Kyoto.

September

September 1st. Memorial services for those who were killed in the great earthquake and fire of 1923 are held at the Earthquake Memorial Hall in Honjô on the bank of the Sumida River, Tokyo.

13th. Festivals of Kanda Myôjin and Hikawa Shrines in Tokyo.

17th and 18th. Festival of the Great Shrine of Isé and the Toyokuni Shrine in Kyoto.

17th and 18th. Festival of the Great Shrine of Isé and the Toyokuni Shrine in Kyoto.

20th. Week of the equinox begins—the autumn 'higan' begins on September 20. As during the spring equinoctial week, Buddhist temples present busy scenes.

23rd or 24th. Festival of the Autumnal Equinox—A Shinto festival in memory of the Imperial ancestors is performed at the Imperial Palace, a national holiday.

26th. Moon-viewing Festival—The day of moon-viewing falls on or around this date (August 15th by the lunar calendar). Before twilight sets in, the house-wife brings a table to the veranda where it can catch the moon beams and spreads upon it a feast in honor of the moon. A vase containing autumnal flowers are to be placed on the left side of the table. As the moon rises, the members of the family sit around the table in the moonlight and spend the evening in merry-making.

October

October 10th. Annual fête of the Kotohira Shrine at Kotohira, Kagawa prefecture and also of similar shrines in Tokyo and elsewhere.

13th. Anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren—one of the most elaborate Buddhist demonstrations in Nippon is held on the evening of the 12th, and the following day at the Hommonji temple at Ikégami, Tokyo, to commemorate the anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren, founder of the Nichiren sect of Buddhism. Thousands of believers and others march in groups to the temple, many beating drums so as to keep time, shouting all the time the Buddhist sutra, "Namu-Myôho-Rengekyô." Large paper lanterns, all lighted, are carried at the head of those processions.

15th. Hunting season—The ban on hunting in all districts is lifted until April 15th of the following year. The ban on hunting pheasants is opened from November 1 to the end of February.

17th. Kannamesai (first harvest festival) on this national holiday the Tenno makes an offering of the new grain harvested to the Sun Goddess enshrined in the Great Shrine of Isé and to the Imperial ancestors. A special service is held at the Imperial Sanctuary, while the Emperor despatches a messenger to the Great Shrines to offer prayers on his behalf.

22nd. Festival of Yasukuni Shrine—its second semi-annual celebration, lasting for three days, begins.

Festivals of the Héian Shrine are held on April 15 and on this day. The shrine is dedicated to Emperor Kammu, founder of the present city of Kyoto. The festival held on this day is known as "Zidai Matsuri" in which a parade of men dressed in costumes of different periods of Nippon's history passes through the streets of Kyoto.

November

November 1-12. Festival of Oh-teri shrines—the annual shrine festival known as 'tori-no-ichi,' is observed on the "Tori no Hi," or the day of birds that may fall on one of the first 12 days according to the old calendar which counts days by the names of 12 animals, at various shrines of Oh-teri, a winged god of fortune and wealth in Tokyo and

elsewhere. There are the second and third 'tori-no-ichi' in the month.

3rd. Meijietsu, the Meiji Tenno's Birthday—a national holiday and all schools and public buildings are closed in honor of the great Tenno, and the week is celebrated as a national athletic week.

8th. Festival of Bellows—This is celebrated in the household of every metal-smith, silver-smith, iron-smith, and the like. On this day also takes place the annual bonfire fête of the Fushimi Inari Shrine in Kyoto and elsewhere.

15th. Celebration for children of 3, 5 and 7 years of age known as "shichi-gosen (7, 5, 3) festival." On this day boys who have attained the age of 5 years and girls who have attained 3 or 7 years of age are taken to the shrines of their tutelary deities, in their best clothes, and worship is offered at the shrines by way of expressing their gratitude for the protection of the guardian deities and their safe growth throughout the period of early childhood, at the same time beseeching future protection and happiness.

23rd. Niinamé-sai—The Tenno observes Niinamé-sai, a national holiday, with the ancient Court ceremony of offering new grain to the Sun Goddess and the Imperial ancestors, and partaking of it himself. The occasion is one of thanksgiving, when the Tenno and

his subjects return thanks for the harvest.

28th. A religious fête in commemoration of the death of St. Shinran, founder of the Shin sect of Buddhism is celebrated at the Honganji temples in Kyoto and Tokyo.

December

14th. The Gishi-sai, or the annual festival of the celebrated "Forty-seven Ronin," is held at Aki in Hyogo prefecture and at the Sengakuji Temple, Tokyo. During this month many theaters in Tokyo and elsewhere stage the drama depicting the cause, the development and the finale of the gallant undertaking carried out by the forty-seven ronin in 1702.

25th. Anniversary of the death of Emperor Taisho, father of the present Emperor, a national holiday.

25th. Christmas.

29th. Closing of official business—All government and public offices normally close for the year-end and New Year holidays.

31st. Eating of noodles on the last day of the year—It being the last day of December, many businessmen eat noodles at their evening meal to bring the year to a happy conclusion. The noodle is regarded as a symbol of long life and continued prosperity.

CHAPTER XXXI

NOTED PLACES OF TOURISTIC INTEREST

YOKOHAMA

Yokohama is the fifth largest city in Japan with a population of 990,000 and an area of 66.8 square miles, being one of the foremost trade ports of the country, situated on Tokyo Bay. It is here that travelers to Japan from America get their first view of Oriental life as most of the trans-pacific liners make Yokohama their first port of call. Yokohama is also a terminal, or port of call, for steamers from Europe, Australia, India, South America, South Africa and South Seas ports, China, Manchoukuo and Siberia.

When opened to foreign trade in 1859 A.D. as the result of the treaty with America and other European countries, Yokohama was a mere fishing village of about one hundred families or 350 people, but its situation as an important port and as a gateway to the capital of the country established it during the following 50 years as one of the two foremost trade ports of Japan.

Hotels: Hotel New Grand, Bund Hotel, Center Hotel, Bluff Hotel.

Nogeyama Park, a hill near Sakuragicho Station, commands a wide view of the city and harbor. The temple close by is dedicated to Fudo-myoo, a Buddhist deity. The official residence of the mayor and the Earthquake Memorial Hall stand at the entrance of the park.

The Silk Conditioning House and the Yokohama Commercial and Industrial Museum are interesting to those who are concerned with Japanese products. The Silk Conditioning House may be inspected upon presentation of a card of introduction from the To-A Tourist Bureau, the latter being open to the public.

Negishi, at the farther end of the bluff, is famous for its horse-races held yearly in the latter part of May and in early November. Golf links are situated inside the circular track.

Sankai-en Garden, reached after a short walk from the Hommoku tramcar stop, or by motorcar, is noted for its historic buildings, lotuses and flowering shrubs, being open to the public by its

owners, a wealthy family. Hommoku bathing beaches are much frequented in the season. Hodogaya golf course, 15 min. by motorcar from Yokohama Station, is open to any visitor who is introduced by a member of the Hodogaya Country Club.

En Route to Tokyo The principal places of interest on the way are: the Sōjiji Temple, at Tsurumi, the headquarters of the Sōtō sect of Buddhism; Daishi Temple, 5 min. by electric car from Kawasaki Station, is associated with the celebrated priest, Kōbō Daishi; The Honmonji Temple at Ikegami, one mile from Kamata Station, is a famous temple of the sect founded by Nichiren, the Luther of Nippon.

TOKYO

From Yokohama Sakuragicho Station, Tokyo is reached in 30 min. by electric trains running every 3 min., or in 20 min. by frequent express and other trains from Yokohama Station.

Tokyo, the capital and the largest city of Japan, is situated at the head of Tokyo Bay, about midway between the northern and southwestern ends of the Pacific side of the Main Island. With a population of 7,000,000 and an area of 206.6 square miles, Tokyo ranks the second largest city in the world. The entire city is well served by trams, electric railways and motor buses running on asphalt roads, and a subway. A trip through streets affords glimpses of the daily life and the varied activities of the people whose number comprises nearly 10 per cent of the population of Japan proper.

Tokyo in olden times was called Yedo, meaning "entrance to the gulf." The first castle in Yedo was built by Ōta-Dōkan, in 1457 A.D. In 1590, Tokugawa Shogun, established his residence in the city, and after rebuilding the castle made it the seat of the Tokugawa Shogunate. Throughout 268 years of this government, and until 1868, Yedo was the center of national administration and finance, and became a thriving town

with 2 million people when it was at the height of its prosperity between 1818 and 1844. After the Meiji Restoration in 1868, when the Shogun was deprived of his power, Meiji Tenno removed the capital from Kyoto to Yedo in 1869, changing its name to Tokyo, or "Eastern Capital." Tokyo is the center of all phases of national life, with the central offices of government, and headquarters of financial, business and industrial corporations located in the city. Tokyo beats Osaka even in industrial activities on account of the development of the key industries in and around the city in recent years.

Hotels: The Imperial Hotel, situated at Hibiya Park near the Imperial Palace, is unique in style and ranks among the best hotels in the world. The Dai-ichi Hotel, Tokyo Railway Hotel, Marunouchi Hotel, and Sanno Hotel are among the leading hotels. There are also numerous Japan style hotels.

Theaters: The Kabukiza, Tokyo Gekijo, Meiji-za, Shimbashi Embujo, Yuraku-za, Nippon Gekijo, Tokyo Takarazuka Gekijo ("Tôhō"), etc. The Kokugikan at Ryogoku presents Japanese wrestling contests in the middle of January and May.

Noh Dance Stages: Hôshô Stage, near Suido-bashi Station, Kita Stage, at Alzumi-cho, Yotsuya Ward, Kansô Stage, near Ôinagari car-stop, Ushigomô Ward.

Places of Interest

Imperial Palace The Palace is not open to the public, but its approach at Nijubashi (Double Bridge), the main entrance, is of interest, as also the encircling moat.

Hibiya Park, opposite the Imperial Hotel, is laid out partly in Japanese and partly in Western style. Many band concerts are given in the park, where in spring cherry blossoms and azaleas are viewed at their best and in autumn a chrysanthemum show is held. The Hibiya Public Hall, located at the south-eastern corner of the park, is a center for public lectures, musical concerts and mass meetings.

Shiba Park, two-thirds of a mile south of Hibiya, is noted for the Zôjôji Temple, founded in the 16th century, where are the tombs of some of the Tokugawa Shoguns. Atago Hill, near the park, commands an extensive view of the city and the bay.

Sengakuji Temple, one mile south west

of Shiba Park, is famous on account of the graves of the 47 ronins of Akao, located within the precincts.

Yasukuni Shrine, on Kudan Hill, a little north of the Imperial Palace, is dedicated to the heroic dead who have given their lives for the country in the wars since the Meiji Restoration of 1868. Festivals are held in April and October. The Yûshûkan, military museum, in the shrine precincts, contains war trophies, relics, valuable swords, armour, etc.

Uéno Park, near Uéno Station, is a popular and beautiful park, where are located the Imperial Household Museum, Fine Arts Gallery, Imperial Library, academies of Music and Fine Arts, Science Museum, Zoological Garden, Tôshôgû Shrine, the Statue of Saigô-Takamori, General Grants' Monument, etc.

Asakusa Park, 5 min. by underground railway from Uéno, is the "Coney Island" or "Earl's Court" of Tokyo. Sensôji Temple is noted for its Kwannon, the Goddess of Mercy.

Sumida Park on the east bank of the Sumida is noted for its cherry blossoms in season. In spring and fall, regattas are held on the river.

Meiji Shrine, dedicated to Emperor Meiji, comprises a group of buildings in pure Shinto style. Easily reached from Harajuku Station on the Yamatô belt line, the shrine is one of the holiest centers of pilgrimage in Japan. The Outer Garden of Meiji Shrine contains the Stadium, Baseball Field, Swimming Pool and the Meiji Memorial Hall dedicated to Emperor Meiji and his Consort. In the greatest athletic enclosure are held, mostly in autumn and winter, track and field meets, football games, swimming contests and other sports.

Among the numerous smaller parks, may be mentioned the **Inokashira Park**, historically famous with a pool which was the reservoir or spring of the water which supplied drinking water to the Yedo Castle at the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and the **Asukayama Park** noted for cherry blossoms. The **Shinjuku Imperial Garden** is one of the best cared for gardens noted for cherry blossoms, chrysanthemums and other flowers, although it is not open to the public, except on special occasions. **Korakuen**, located near Suidobashi Station on the Tokyo-Shinjuku line, is a typical Nipponese home garden, being the site of

the Tokyo residence of the Lord of Mito. **Shokubutsuen** at Koishikawa, the botanical garden of Tokyo Imperial University, has a great variety of flowering plants.

Kiyosumi Landscape Garden, at Fukagawa, is one of the best landscape gardens in Tokyo, particularly celebrated for its rocks which were gathered from all parts of Japan.

Ryogoku Bridge across the Sumida is the scene of the most beautiful display of fire works in June which is a customary event taking place every year from the days of Yedo.

Okutama Valley, with its beautiful narrow gorge and Mt. Mitaké, is one of the best places around Tokyo for an outing and picnic. By electric train from Shinjuku to Mitaké, changing cars at Tachikawa, 1.5 hours.

Imperial Mausoleum at Tama The remains of the Taisho Tenno are buried at Tama near Asakawa Station on the Chuô Line, 1.25 hours from Tokyo. About two miles east of the Imperial Tomb rises Mt. Takao, noted for its autumnal tints. Cablecar available.

Murayama Reservoir, about 15 miles northwest of Tokyo, is the main source of the water supplied to Tokyo. With its scenic beauty, the lovely artificial lake has become a popular holiday place for Tokyo people.

Oshima Island, located at the entrance to Sagami Bay, first welcomes the steamships which steer up to Yokohama, often capped with clouds even on a clear day, for these clouds are smoke formations emanating from Mt. Mihara, an active volcano, in the island. A good two days' trip may be made from Tokyo, taking a special steam boat of the Tokyo-wan S.S. Co., from Reiganjima to Motomura of the island, then proceed via Yuba to climb up Mt. Mihara, where the live crater may be viewed. Descending from the mountain one might stop over for the night at the port of Habu. On the next day from Habu to Motomura, either on foot or by boat. This island most popular with Tokyo folks on account of its volcanic scenery and easy accessibility, its cherry-blossoms and crimson camellias, and the country mood peculiar to the lone island in the open sea.

KAMAKURA

Kamakura, 20 min. by express electric train from Yokohama, abounds with historical remains of the Kamakura

Period as it was the seat of the first Shogunate established by Minamoto-Yoritomo at the end of the 12th century A.D.

Hotels: Kaihin Hotel, on the sea-shore called Yuiga-hama, a summer resort.

Daijutsu, or Great Buddha, a superb, silently eloquent bronze image, erected in 1252. It was originally enclosed in a building which was damaged by a storm and finally carried away by a tidal wave in 1494, from which time the image has remained in the open. Its dimensions approximately are: height, 42 ft. 5 in., circumference at the base, 97 ft.; length of face, 7 ft. 7 in.; width of eyes, 3 ft. 4 in.

Hasé Kwannon Temple, near the Daijutsu, contains, at the back of the altar, a gilded image of Kwannon, the Goddess of Mercy, 30 ft. 3 in. high, which is said to have been carved from a huge camphor tree.

Hachiman Shrine, less than half a mile from Kamakura Station, stands in one of the most beautiful shrine precincts in Nippon, and stores ancient swords, armour, and other relics of the Kamakura Period (1192-1337 A.D.).

Tomb of Yoritomo, on a hillside, near Hachiman Shrine, is marked by a small moss-covered stone pagoda.

Kamakura Shrine, erected by Imperial order in 1869, is dedicated to Prince Morinaga, the son of Godalgo Tenno, who died an unfortunate death in 1335.

Engakuji and Kenchôji, are great Buddhist monasteries.

Miura Peninsula A motor ride around the peninsula, visiting Uruga, Kurihama which is known as the place of landing of Commodore Perry, Aburatsubo where the Marine Life Research Laboratory of Tokyo Imperial University is situated, and other places en route, is a good one-day outing.

Enoshima, an island with picturesque cliffs and inlets, is reached by train, 4 miles, from Kamakura Station to Katasé, thence across a wooden bridge. An interesting visit may be made to the Dragon Cave, or the Benten Cave, reached by a broad path across the island. Near the Katasé car stop is the Ryôkôji Temple, built to commemorate the miraculous deliverance there of Nichiren, founder of the Hokkô Sect, from the executioner's swords. Zushi, 2.4 miles by rail from Kamakura, is a summer

resort with fine bathing beaches and affords a beautiful view of Mt. Fuji in the blue sky beyond Sagami Bay. Hayama, 3 miles farther along the coast, is also good for bathing. The Imperial Family sometimes stays at the Imperial Villa there.

Yokosuka, 7 miles from Kamakura, is an important naval station. Here are the memorial tombs of Will Adams and his Japanese wife. Adams, a pilot, was the first Englishman to come to Japan (1600 A.D.).

Uraga, 10 min. by electric car from Yokosuka, is the port into which Commodore Perry sailed with his expedition on July 8, 1853. On Kurihama beach, 2 and half miles farther down the coast from Uraga, is a monument marking the spot where on July 14, 1853, the representatives of the Shogun received the letter of President Fillmore to the ruler of Japan proposing the opening of the country to American intercourse and commerce.

HAKONÉ

Few visitors to Nippon fail to visit the **Hakoné District**, noted for its mountain scenery, invigorating climate, hot springs and places of interest. Reached by train from Yokohama to Odawara within 35 min., then by motor car to Miyanoshita, the center of the district, passing through the hot-springs, Yumoto and Tōnosawa. The district, popularly known as Mt. Hakoné, is the crater of an extinct volcano. The Fujiya Hotel at Miyanoshita, with its hot-spring baths, superior cuisine and service, is the objective point of the majority of foreign visitors. From Miyanoshita, walking or motor-car trip can be made to every part of the district.

Lake Ashinoko, alt. 2,386 ft., 13 miles in circumference, a crater lake, is famous for its reflection of Mt. Fuji under clear heaven. The route is through Kowakidani and Ashinoyu, both noted for their sulphur springs, and along the lake shore the road runs through a noble cryptomeria avenue, leading to the site of the ancient Hakoné barrier gate, where in olden days the passports of travelers were carefully examined and the purpose of their journey ascertained.

Within short walks from Miyanoshita are many hot-springs scattered in the beautiful valleys. From the crest of the ridge of Owakidani can be had a superb view of Fuji and of Lake Ashinoko with

Ubako hot springs half way down the slope. Otomé Tōgē, or Meiden Pass, and Nagao Tōgē, or Long-tail Pass, are other places for a magnificent view of Mt. Fuji.

ATAMI

Atami is a favorite, all-the-year-round hot-spring resort well patronized by foreign residents. Here the climate is quite salubrious and the scenery is fine, with the Tokyo Bay in front and the Hakoné mountains towering behind. It can be reached by train within 2 hours from Tokyo. Atami is also reached by motor-bus from Moto-Hakoné, on Lake Ashinoko, over an excellent mountain road via the Jukkoku Tōgē, or Ten Province Pass, 14 miles, in an hour. Itō is another prosperous spa on the eastern coast of Izu Peninsula. From Atami to Itō is a delightful 16 mile drive along winding and picturesque coast.

MT. FUJI AND LAKES

Mt. Fuji is known all over the world for its peerless beauty. Its perfect cone rises singly to a height of 12,467 ft. above sea level and constitutes the center of the Fuji and Hakoné National Park. Fuji is one of the easiest mountain to climb, and thousands of men, women and children climb it every summer. The summit commands a magnificent view, and the scene of sunrise above clouds is markedly impressive. There are six trails to the top, the Gotemba on the Gotemba Line, and Yoshida reached via Ōtsuki on the Chūō Line, being the most popular. Two to three days are required for the round trip from Tokyo. Stone huts, some holding 200 persons, are available along all the routes. Foreign visitors should better hire a gōriki, or mountain guide, available at moderate charges, who will carry a pack up to 25 lbs. Horses are available for varying distances up several trails.

Tour of the Five Lakes of Fuji A trip to Fuji Five Lakes, Yamanaka, Kawaguchi, Nishino-umi, Shōji and Motosu, is enjoyable in all seasons, except winter. This excursion is best made from Gotemba. The Shōji is generally the objective point. Hotels: Fuji View Hotel, Kawaguchi-ko Hotel, first and second.

CHUBU-SANGAKU NATIONAL PARK (The Nippon Alps)

The title "Japan Alps" dates back to

1896 when the Rev. Walter Weston published his work "Mountaineering and Exploration in the Japan Alps." It consists of three lofty ridges, in Nagano prefecture, called respectively Southern, Central and Northern. The Northern Range, the most popular of these three ranges and deservedly selected as a national park, **Chūbu-Sangaku National Park**, comprises more than 100 peaks, 40 of which are over 8,000 ft. The range extends for a distance of 98 miles, with a breadth of 37 miles, and is dotted with volcanoes, both active and extinct. The principal peaks are those of Shiro-uma (9,820 ft.), Yari (10,450 ft.), Hotaka (10,208 ft.) and Taleyama (9,914 ft.). Among the spas on the slopes or in the valleys, Kamikōchi, about 28 miles up from Matsumoto, is most popular due to its location on a scenic mountain plateau, called Kamikōchi.

Kamikōchi, 4,725 ft. above sea level, is surrounded by lofty peaks and extends like a broad belt for a distance of about 10 miles from E. to W., with a maximum breadth of 1 mile from S. to N. The Kamikōchi Hotel stands in such a picturesque ravine of the plateau that visitors are able to appreciate the wild mountain scenery and the beautiful lakes lying nearby.

Among several routes to the Northern range, the most popular one is from Matsumoto, 156 miles from Tokyo, or 117 miles from Nagano, from which the base for the ascent is reached by motor or tramcar.

NIKKŌ

"Don't say 'kēkkō' (splendid) until you see Nikkō," is a Nipponese proverb. Indeed, a trip to Nippon is not complete unless Nikkō is visited. Nikkō, one of the great beauty spots in the Orient, is always included in the itinerary of well-informed foreign visitors. The magnificent shrines and temples of the Tokugawa Shogunate, the cryptomeria avenue, beautiful mountains, lakes, waterfalls, numerous walks and places of interest there are acclaimed by both foreigners and Nipponese. The district is now made the Nikkō National Park. In May red wild azaleas adorn the countryside, while from late September to mid-October fall foliage shows a brocade of brilliant colors. In summer when the climate is temperate it is a favorite resort of those who are freed from regular pursuits in summer vacation.

Nikkō is about 91 miles from Tokyo,

2.40 hours trip from Ueno Station. Another route is via the Nikkō Line of the Tōbu Railway Co., which has frequent services from Asakusa Kaminarimon Station.

Hotel: Kanaya Hotel, one of the best resort hotels in Japan with an excellent skating rink open during winter.

The shrines, temples and the mausolea of Iyeyasu (1542-1616 A.D.), founder of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and of Iyemitsu, his grandson and the third Tokugawa Shogun, are located here, presenting the skill of Japanese architect. Annually on June 1 and 2 the medieval shrine processions are held. Shinkyō, or Sacred Bridge, red lacquered, spans the Dalya River, in a graceful curve, on the way to the shrines. Gamma-gafuchi is a deep pool in the Dalya, about 1 mile upstream from the sacred bridge. On the river bank are rows of stone images of Amida Buddha.

Lake Chūzenji The mountain walk to Lake Chūzenji, alt. 4,104 ft., is much favored by Nikkō visitors and is preferred to ascent by vehicles, because of the wonderful views one obtains by this means. Kōgon waterfalls, the outlet of the lake, is one of the most beautiful sights in the district. The Lakeside Hotel caters for foreign visitors.

Nikkō hot springs, alt. 5,088 ft. The Chūzenji trip may be continued to Lake Yunoko where an overnight stay can be made at the Namma Hotel, with private hot-spring baths. Kinugawa spa, 4 miles by rail from Nikkō to Imachi, thence 8.5 miles by electric tram or motor-bus. The six mile motor drive along the beautiful gorge of the Kinugawa River up to Kawaji spa is splendid.

Motorcar drive from Nikkō to Shiobara, one of the noted mountain spas, 50 miles, is recommended during October on account of the beautiful autumn foliage.

BŌSŌ PENINSULA

Easily accessible from Tokyo, the Bōsō Peninsula is a favorite resort at all seasons of the year; in spring for shell-gathering on shores at the low tide, in summer for its bathing beaches and in autumn for its scenic effects, and at all times for its shrines and temples.

Among many summer resorts in the peninsula, the most popular are Katsura and Kamogawa on the east shores and Hota and Hōjō on the west. Of the shrines and temples, Narita-Fudō is most celebrated as fortune giver and attracts over a million pilgrims every year. Both

Katori and Kashima Shrines, the oldest and holiest in the district, are reached from Sawara, 59.5 miles from Tokyo.

KARUIZAWA

Karuzawa in Nagano prefecture, with its invigorating climate and scenery, was first opened by Christian missionaries as a favorite summer retreat, then became a country town of foreign residents in general, but, in recent years, well-to-do Nipponese began to take part in passing comfortable summer days with foreigners. During the season many conferences and conventions are held on church mission and educational or cultural subjects. Sports are prominent, including tennis, baseball, cricket, track and field events and golf.

There are many delightful walks, picnic and excursion points about Karuzawa, and it is the departure point for the climb up Mt. Asama, the largest active volcano on the Main Island whose smoke clouds are frequently seen, often with powerful explosions.

Hotels: The Mampel Hotel, Mikasa Hotel, Karuzawa Hotel, Green Hotel, New Grand Lodge and Park Lodge.

IKAO SPA

From Ueno, Tokyo, to Shibukawa, 76 miles in 2.5 hours by rail, thence motor-bus or electric tram.

Ikao, at 2,800 ft., one of the noted hot-spring and summer resorts near Tokyo, offers a wide choice of scenery in neighboring districts.

MITO

Mito, 3 hours by rail from Ueno, Tokyo, is the old city of Tokugawa-Mitsukuni, the celebrated lord who ordered the compilation of the "Daikoku Nippon Shi," or A History of the Great Nippon, and was most loved and revered by his own people for his high personality, and whose story is staged oftener than any other historical stories of the Tokugawa Period, except that of the "47 Ronin." The city and vicinity abound with historical places and buildings connected with Mitsukuni and other Mito lords and Fujita-Tōko, a famous scholar in Nipponese literature. The city is divided into two parts, the Upper and Lower (or Down) Towns: the former being the section where the castle and retainers' residences were located, the latter the section of artisans and merchants, this demarcation being maintained to a large

extent even to the present day. With the River Naka, Lake Senba and Tokiwa Park, Mito is one of the most beautiful castle cities, Tokiwa Park being one of the first parks of plum blossoms in Nippon. A day's trip from Mito to Ōarai is worth a trial; Mito down to Kominato by a river boat on the Naka, thence to the north along the sea coast to Hiraiso, a summer resort, then back to the south via Kominato to Ōarai Shrine by motor-bus, then return to Mito by electric car or bus. The whole coast line, with rugged rocks washed by the white waves of the Pacific presents a picturesque view of pine hills and breezy sea in summer.

MATSUSHIMA

Matsushima, or Pine Islands, so named from the hundreds of pine-clad islets in Matsushima Bay near Sendai, is one of the "Scenic Trio of Japan" in their singularity of the handiwork of Nature, —the others being Amanohashidate and Miyajima. The best season is from April to October, when the Park Hotel is open.

In the bay, 249 of the islets have been charted, some of them quaint and fanciful, and each has been given a name.

Radiating from the hotel, the places of interest, other than going around the fanciful islets on boats, are Zuiganji Temple, Oshima, Kanranter and Godaidō.

During the season express trains stop at Matsushima Station, 231 miles north from Ueno, Tokyo, thence 2.5 miles to the park. It is an interesting diversion, however, to change cars at Sendai for Shogama, and then proceed by steamer, motor boat or sampan, 5 miles to the park through the welcoming islets. The park is also accessible in 50 min. by tram from Sendai.

SENDAI

Sendai, with a population of 238,000, the largest and most important city in North-eastern Nippon, an educational center, the home of the renowned Daté-Masamuné (1566-1638 A.D.), is of interest to sightseers who desire to visit the mausoleum of that celebrated Daimyo, the site of his castle, the grave of Hasékura-Rokuemon who, as an ambassador of Lord Daté, made a remarkable voyage to Rome in 1613 on board the first Japanese-manned craft to cross the Pacific, the parks, the Tōhoku Imperial University and the Tōhoku Gakuin. The Sendai Hotel stands opposite the station.

Near Hirazumi, 47 miles north of

Matsushima, in olden days called the "Nara in North-eastern Japan," is the Chōsonji Monastery, once a large temple group, one mile from the station. Its few remaining structures, timeworn, but still showing traces of their original decorations, are of great interest to students of art. About half a mile from the station are the two remaining edifices of the Mōtsuji Temple.

LAKE TOWADA

Three routes are available. One from Furumaki on the Tōhoku Main Line, 194 miles north of Sendai, by motor-bus to Nénokuchi, 33 miles, on the east shore of the lake, along the Oirasé River. Another route is from Ōdaté, on the Ōu Line to Kēmanai by rail and thence by motor-bus to Oldé, 18 miles, via Ōyu spa. Oldé is connected with Nénokuchi by motor-bus. Aomori, the terminus of the Tōhoku Main Line, is also the starting point for the tour of the lake, motor service between Aomori and Wainai on the lake, 49 miles, being maintained by the State Railways.

Lake Towada is a beautiful freshwater lake, high up in a mountainous region on the boundary between Akita and Aomori prefectures. It is the largest of Nippon's mountain lakes, having an area of about 23 square miles. The main features of the lake are the wealth of vegetation around its shores and surrounding mountains which are covered with woods of various plants of different altitudes, the picturesque promontories and islets and exquisite beauty of the autumnal tints. In addition, the delicate sylvan beauty of the mountain stream, the Oirasé, outlet of the lake, with its many waterfalls and rapids, is an attraction in all seasons. The district has been named the Towada National Park. The famed Wainai trout, with which the lake is stocked, is a constant lure for anglers. There are good Japanese inns on the shores of the lake.

HOKKAIDŌ

A trip to Hokkaido, the northern island, the home of the Ainu, is very interesting for foreign visitors to Japan. In its topographical formation the island of Hokkaido, 30,499 square miles in area, is more like that of continental countries than any other part of Japan. Express trains, operated between Ueno, Tokyo and Aomori, 457.5 miles, 12 hours,

then from Aomori to Hakodaté by the well-equipped steamers of the State Railways across Tsugaru Straits, 4.5 hours.

The principal cities in Hokkaido are Sapporo, Hakodaté, Muroran, Otaru and Asahigawa. After landing at Hakodaté, foreign visitors are advised, for a first, to proceed by motor-bus to Yunokawa, a noted hot-spring resort. Inns at Hakodaté are Gotōken and Katsuda.

Hakodaté Park, south-west of the main station, from which can be had a comprehensive view of the city and bay.

Lake Ōnuma, the "Matsushima of Hokkaido," is picturesquely dotted with islands, large and small. Mt. Komagatake, 3,625 ft., towers on the far side. Railway from Hakodaté, 17.5 miles—a charming one-day trip. Inn: Kōyōkan.

Otaru is the most prosperous commercial center in Hokkaido, its location and facilities enabling it to command a steadily increasing sea trade with northern regions. By rail it is about 1 hour from Sapporo, 5.5 hours from Hakodaté. Inns are Etchūya and Hokkai Hotel.

SAPPORO

The city of Sapporo, the seat of the Hokkaido Government, is laid out in blocks and streets like a modern American city. The principal places of interest are: Nakajima Park, Botanical Garden and Museum, and Hokkaido Imperial University.

Hotel: Sapporo Grand Hotel.

Jōzankel, a sequestered and popular hot-spring resort, is easily accessible from Sapporo. Inns: Jōzankel Hotel, Shikanoya Club, etc.

DAISETSUZAN

Daisetsuzan, or Great Snow Mountain, represents a wide range of mountains, also called the Ishikari range, lying in the central part of Hokkaido. It includes Mt. Asahidake, 7,511 ft., the highest mountain in the island and several other peaks, all snow-capped and possessing altitudes not below 6,500 ft. Mt. Asahi attracts numerous climbers every year because of the wonderful views obtainable from its summit and the abundance of rare alpine plants which grow on its slopes.

The River Ishikari, one of the longest rivers in Nippon with a length of 250 miles flowing along the northern foot of the range forms a grand gorge called Sōunkyo Canyon, about 15 miles in

length. The cliffs on this canyon, sometimes rising sheer from the river in columns and pinnacles, but more often with a gradual slope, are covered to the top with a thick growth of timber.

Daisetsuzan National Park includes the Ishikari range, Sounkyo Canyon and other scenic points in the vicinity. The park is reached from Asahigawa, 86 miles from Sapporo, whence two routes, to the north and south of Mt. Asahi, lead to the peaks, the north route via Sounkyo spa lying on the way to the canyon, and the south route via Matsuyama spa.

NOBORIBETSU

Noboribetsu, the most famous hot-spring resort in Hokkaido, should be visited by every foreign traveler to Hokkaido. The sight of a huge crater on the side of Mt. Noboribetsu filled with rounded mounds of sinter, the hot water spurting and bubbling, and the clouds of steam will live long in the memory. Access: by railway from Hakodate or Sapporo via Iwanizawa, or from Muroran; from Hakodate, 128.6 m., 5 hrs. by express; from Muroran, 15.9 m., 40 min.; from Noboribetsu Station, by motorcar or electric train to the spa. Inns: Daichi Takimoto, Daini Takimoto, etc.

Shiraoi is the easiest available place on the island to see the life and customs of the Ainu, the aboriginal people of Japan which the Government is doing its best to preserve. By rail it is 11.7 miles from Noboribetsu Station and if journeying via Sapporo the village may be visited on the way to Noboribetsu.

Lake Toya, 24 miles in circumference, with three attractive islets in the center, is a picturesque tourist resort in Hokkaido. It is reached by electric tram Abuta Station on the short cut line between Hakodate and Muroran.

LAKE AKAN

Lake Akan reposes in between the two peaks of Me-Akan (4,960 ft.) and O-Akan (4,524 ft.) rising to the northwest of Kushiro, the district being designated the **Akan National Park** noted for its scenic grandeur and sublimity. The lake, 1,120 feet in altitude and 16.5 miles in circumference, is surrounded by thickly wooded hills and contains 4 wooded islets. Boats are available and there is good fishing for a species of salmon-trout.

Lake Kussharo, 35 miles in circumference and **Lake Mashu**, 12.5 miles in

circumference, are also included in the national park, and both are celebrated for their noticeable features. There are several hot springs on or near these lakes, which are connected by a good motor road.

The usual route to Lake Akan is to Shitakara from Kushiro by the Yubetsu Railway, thence to the lake by motor-bus.

KARAFUTO

If it is desired to extend the journey farther north, Karafuto, or Japanese Saghalien, is now easily accessible from Wakkanai, at the northern end of Hokkaido, by the steamers of the State Railways, in 8 hours to Odomari, the principal port in the island, from where a railway runs to Toyohara, the administrative center, 1,080 miles north of Tokyo.

KOFU AND MINOBU

Kofu, on the plateau of Kofu where the River Fuji-kawa gathers waters, 3 hours from Shijuku, Tokyo and 7.5 hours from Nagoya, is an old castle city of Lord Takeda. The Kofu Plateau grows grapes in abundance, the history of grape cultivation there beginning in early Kamakura Period (1102-1337 A.D.). In the Meiji Era, American and Italian grapes were transplanted and crossed with old ones to give the fame of the Koshu grapes and wine. The site of the old castle, the Takeda Shrine and the tomb of Lord Takeda-Shingen are the chief places of interest in the city.

Mitake Shosen-kyo, gorge of naked granite rocks along the clean stream of the Arakawa, can be reached by motor-bus 5 miles from Kofu.

Minobu Along the Minobu electric railway from Kofu to Fuji station on the Tokaido Main Line, there are the Kuonji Temple and the Fujikawa valley for a good excursion. The Kuonji Temple in Mt. Minobu, the head temple of the Nichiren or Hokke Sect, located at the side of the mountain, is one of the most sacred places of Buddhism and draws thousands of pilgrims from all parts of Japan; the main building is reached by a high flight of 300 stone steps in a thick wood of old cryptomerias. The beautiful temple garden is a representative work of the middle Yedo Period. The River Fuji is one of the three rapid streams of Nippon and its valley is full of picturesque points. The excursion down-stream from Kajikazawa to Iwa-

buchi at the mouth of the river by Japanese river boats has become a story, but the Minobu Line serves with its 3 excursion boats for the convenience of sightseers.

ALONG THE CHUO MAIN LINE

Leaving Kofu, the Chuo Main Line of the State Railway runs to the northwest to Shiojiri, in Nagano Prefecture, through the valleys of the Japan Alps. At the western foot of Mt. Yatsugatake there are many mountain spas, among which Tadashina is best known for its medical efficacy and good accommodations, 8 miles northwest of Chino Station by motorcar.

Lake Suwa, at Kami-Suwa, alt. 2,489 feet, 11 miles in circumference, is noted for skating.

Kiriga-mino, 4 miles northeast of Kami-Suwa, comprises a beautiful plateau of green grasses, commanding a grand view of Fuji and the Japan Alps. It has a popular skiing ground and draws, in combination with Lake Suwa, thousands of winter sportsmen from Tokyo. Kiriga-mino has become more popular in recent years as the best drill ground for the gliders.

Okaya, on the west shore of Lake Suwa, constitutes, together with adjacent towns, the center of Japan's silk industry.

The Tenryu Valley, in between the peaks of South Japan Alps and the Kiso mountain range, is famous for its picturesque gorge, near the city of Iida, with granite rocks, rich foliage and mountain azaleas. Japanese boats on the rapid of the River Tenryu will carry you down to the towns near the mouth of the river, through numerous scenic spots. The beauty of the Tenryu Valley was first discovered by Sakatani-Roro in 1847 A.D.

At Shiojiri, the Chuo Main Line turns southwest, and running along the River Narai enters a ravine, goes through a tunnel under the Torii Pass to turn south along the eastern bank of the famous River Kiso-gawa and reaches the town of Fukushima in the Kiso Valley. The district is renowned for its forests, owned by the Imperial Household, one of the three most beautiful forest areas in Japan. Here thick woods of cypress, oak, fir, pine, beech, etc., grow in abundance the most stately being the cypresses, hundreds of years old.

Nezameno-toko, about a mile south of

Agematsu Station, accessible by motorcar, lies in the streams of the River Kiso-gawa, consisting of black granite rocks which are naturally arranged in the form of beds to give it the name of "Nezameno-toko" or the Sleepy Bedstead. The stone beds are surrounded by stone walls that stand 21 feet high, on both banks of the Kiso-gawa the lower reaches of which comprise the part called the "Rhine of Japan."

KUROBE GORGE

Kurobe Gorge, in Toyama Prefecture, starts in the mountains a little northwest of Mt. Yarigatake in the Northern Japan Alps and runs down 40 miles northward to Unazuki hot springs, south of Mikkaichi Station on the Hokuriku Main Line which runs along the Japan Sea. The gorge is the longest and deepest of the kind in Japan, being created by waters from the high mountains of the Northern Japan Alps. The trip may be better started at Unazuki and proceed up-stream to Kanetsuri spa, Sarutobi, Babadani hot-springs, along a good road or by electric car for 12 miles to Aso-hara, then up to Hirano-goya through Shimo-roka, the gem of the Kurobe Gorge. Three days are required to complete the trip from Unazuki to Hirano-goya; the safest season is July-October. Daring alpinists may continue the trip to climb the ravine up to Harinoki Pass and end the thrilling excursion at Omachi on the South Oito Line. The entire course, especially the scene at Shimo-roka ravine at the foot of Mt. Tateyama, impresses one with the mystery of Nature which leaves one with the most enduring memory.

ALONG TOKAIDO MAIN LINE (Tokyo-Kobe)

The Tokaido Main Line of the State Railways starts from Tokyo and passes through Yokohama, Kozu, Atami, Shizuoka, Nagoya, Kyoto, Osaka, until it terminates at Kobe. At Kozu, there runs a branch line and meets the main line at Numazu via Gotemba, the principal departure point for the ascent of Mt. Fuji. Beyond Atami a long Shimizu tunnel is bored through the Hakone mountains to a point near Mishima, one of the entrances to the historic Izu peninsula with a group of hot springs.

Izu Peninsula Numazu is another entrance to the peninsula. From Shuzenji, which is connected by a private railway to Mishima and Numazu, motor-

buses run via Itō and other noted hot-spring resorts to Shimoda, historically associated with American effort to make contact with Japan, from where a motor service over excellent roads is maintained along the eastern and western coasts of the peninsula.

Shizuoka, the largest city between Yokohama and Nagoya, is the center of a large tea growing district, the tea being exported from Shimizu, its port. Historically, the city is associated with Iyeyasu, the founder of the Tokugawa Shogunate, who here passed his last years in retirement. The resplendent temple on Mt. Kūzō is the small model of some of the Nikko temples.

Bentenjima is a small island in Lake Hamana, on which is enshrined an image of the goddess, Benten.

Gamagōri is a noted sea-bathing resort facing Atsumi Bay, with picturesque views seaward. A comfortable trip is made from here to Toba across the Bay of Isé.

Hotel: Gamagōri Hotel.

NAGOYA

Nagoya is the third largest city in Nippon with a population of 1,300,000 and the industrial center between Tokyo and Osaka. Of interest to sightseers are the Nagoya Castle, one of the best remaining examples of these feudal structures in Nippon, celebrated for the two gold dolphins on its roof; the former Imperial Detached Palace in the grounds, the Commercial Museum, Honganji temples, Nissenji Temple, Gohyaku Rakan near by, and Ōsu Kwannon in the center of an amusement quarter.

Atsuta Jingu in the southern part of the city, modelled on the Isé Shrines, is held sacred because of its treasure, the sacred sword forming a part of the Imperial Regalia of Japan.

From Nagoya, the one hour trip by express tram to Inuyama, noted for the white castle, and the **Kiso River**, the "Rhine of Japan," where the pleasure trip up and down the river can be made in 4 hours, is worth while. Cormorant Fishing may be enjoyed in the river during the season, June-October.

Hotels: Mampai Hotel, Nagoya Hotel and Inuyama Hotel.

From Nagoya a railway runs to Ujiyamada where are the Grand Shrines of Isé, the most venerated shrines in Nippon, to Futami-no-ura, with the famous "Wedded Rocks," and to Toba, noted

for its magnificent views and cultured pearl fisheries near by—a one day trip, although it is advisable to spend two days, staying overnight at Futami, proceeding thence to Nara via Ujiyamada.

The Grand Shrines of Isé consist of the Nai-Kū, or Inner Shrine, dedicated to the Sun Goddess who is regarded as the Ancestress of the Imperial Family, and the Gō-Kū, or Outer Shrine, dedicated to the Goddess of Farms, Crops, Food and Sericulture. In the former is enshrined the Sacred Mirror, one of the Three Sacred Treasures, which forms another part of the Imperial Regalia of Japan. It is one of the dearest wishes of every Japanese to visit the Isé Shrines once in his lifetime, so that millions of devotees make a pilgrimage to the sanctified spot every year. The two shrines are 4 miles apart the distance being covered by tram, motor-bus or ricksha.

Continuing on from Nagoya, Gifu is noted for its paper- and bamboo-wares and its cormorant fishing in the Nagara River, a sport and industry practised there for over 1,000 years. Here the rail line runs westward to Malbara, the junction for Tsuruga and other places along the Hokuriku Line, thence along the shore of Lake Biwa. At Ōtsu steam boats are taken for the trip to the "Eight Sights of Biwa-ko."

Hotels: Nagara-gawa Hotel at Gifu, Biwako Hotel at Ōtsu.

KYOTO

For over a thousand years until 1869 A.D. Kyoto was the Capital of Japan. The city and vicinity are rich in historical associations with the mediaeval life of the Empire, and the hundreds of old temples and shrines still remaining attest the glory and splendor of those days. The city now comprises about 1,200,000 people and is the fourth largest city in Japan.

Kyoto is the center of a vast recreation region and there are countless spots of interest, of which Mt. Hiei, Lake Biwa, Hozu Rapids, Momoyama and Uji are the favorite haunts of sightseers and pilgrims. It is the city of the fine art industries of the country and the home of famous painters and artists, old and new, its hand-made products being renowned: lacquer, silk embroidery, "Tsuzure-no-Nishiki," brocades, kimono, cloisonné, damascene, porcelains, bronzes, fans, dolls, bamboo wares, etc. Some of the shops selling these artistic goods

invite inspection of their factories and the processes of manufacture.

Kyoto is the second educational center in Japan, next to Tokyo, with Kyoto Imperial University, Doshisha College, Buddhist colleges, colleges for art education and other schools.

With so many shrines, few days in the year pass without a festival being celebrated somewhere in Kyoto or vicinity. The quaintest spectacular festivals are the Aoi-Matsuri on May 15, Gion-Matsuri on July 16-17, and the mediaeval Jidai-Matsuri (historical pageant) on October 22.

The beautiful **Miyako Odori**, or Cherry Dance, is given yearly in April and Kamogawa Odori in May.

The Palaces The old Imperial Palace, the home of the Imperial Family down to the Restoration of 1868 A.D., is situated in the northern part of the city. The park outside the palace is open to the public. Niō Detached Palace with its interior elaborately decorated, dates from 1569. It was the abode of the Tokugawa Shoguns when in Kyoto, but, at the time of the Restoration movement, Yoshinobu, the last Shogun, left Niō for Osaka on December 12, 1867, never to return. Katsura Palace and Shūgaku-in Palace are celebrated for their excellent gardens and rare works of old Nippon architecture.

In the Northern and Eastern Part of the City

Shimo-gamo and Kami-gamo Shrines The shrines are noted for their chief festival "Aoi-Matsuri" (Hollyhock Festival), held on May 15, the origin being traced back to the 6th century. It is a court festival conducted in purest Shinto style.

Ginkakuji, or Silver Pavillion, modelled on the Kinkakuji, or Gold Pavillion, as mentioned later, was built by Shogun Ashikaga-Yoshimasa in 1479 as a place of retirement. Its landscape garden is one of the best in Japan.

Heian Shrine, in Okazaki Park, a replica of a part of the first Imperial Palace, is noted for its buildings and attractive garden.

Butoku-Den, or Hall of Martial Virtues, near Heian Shrine, is a training institution for Japanese fencing jūjitsu, archery, etc., open every day except Sundays and holidays.

Commercial Museum, Public Library, Zoological Garden, all in Okazaki Park.

Nanzenji, one of the five head temples of the Rinzaï Sect, possesses valuable paintings and other art objects.

Shōrō-in, or Awata Palace, had, down to the Restoration, a prince of the blood as its abbot. The garden was laid out by Sōami and Enshō, famous landscape designers.

Chion-in, a great Buddhist monastery, is the head temple of the Jōdo Sect, and its furnishings, paintings and decorations are most interesting for the lovers of the Nippon arts.

Maruyama Park, Kyoto's principal park, is particularly celebrated for its "Shidare-Zakura," or willowy cherry tree, over 400 years old, which, when in bloom, is illuminated at night with torches and colored lights. Throngs crowd Yasaka Shrine in the park, when on New Year's eve the priests hand out straw rope lighted at the holy fire, for the purpose of starting the good luck fire on which in individual homes is cooked the customary New Year's dish, Ozōni, a sort of broth containing mochi, or rice-cakes, and vegetables.

Kiyomizu Temple commands a fine view of the city and adjacent country. Its approach is along a street lined with crockery shops, known to foreigners as "Tea-pot Lane." The cherry blossoms and the maples below the temple are beautiful in their season.

Municipal Museum, originally erected by the Imperial Household and donated later to the municipality, contains rare and valuable art objects.

Sanjūsangen-Dō, or 33 ken Hall, so called because of the spaces between the front pillars of the temple measure 33 (sanjūsan) ken (ken=5.95 feet), is celebrated for its 1,001 images of the Goddess Kwannon.

In the Southern Part of the City

Nishi Honganji, headquarters of the influential Shin Sect and **Higashi Honganji** of another branch of the same sect. The buildings and gardens of the former are quite old, while the latter was built in Meiji Era, though the latter is much grander than the former. Both temples contain priceless art and religious objects, and are splendid examples of Nippon Buddhist architecture.

In the North-Western Part of the City

Kinkakuji, or Gold Pavillion, built in 1397 A.D. by the Ashikaga Shogun, Yoshimitsu, is so-called because its inte-

rior was once entirely covered with gold foil. On its upper story, part of the foil, restored in 1906, still gives evidence of its past glory. Its garden is celebrated for its natural beauty.

Myōshinji and **Ninnaji** temples, and **Kitano Shrine**, all in the vicinity of the **Kinkakuji**, are historic edifices, noted for their art treasures and paintings.

Arashiyama, or **Mist Mountain**, at the foot of which runs the **Ōi River**, is much visited for its cherry blossoms in dark green pine woods in spring, shady groves in summer, brilliant tints in autumn and snow scenery in winter. It is reached from **Saga Station**, or by electric cars from **Kyoto** in 20 minutes.

Out-of-town Trips

Shooting the **Hozu Rapids**, from **Kameoka** to **Arashiyama**, 7.5 miles in 1.5 hours. The charming country scenery is enjoyed throughout the whole journey. Train to **Kameoka**, then 10 minute walk to the river.

Lake Biwa, motorcar or tram to **Ōtsu**, where steamers start for the round of **Chikubu-shima** and other islets on the lake or the "Eight Sights" along the lake shore. **Lake Biwa** is the largest of **Nippon's** fresh-water lakes, with a circumference of 146 miles.

Mt. Hiei, alt. 2,700 ft. Take tramcar from **Demachi-yanagi** to **Yasō**, thence cable railway up to the peak. From its summit there are wide views over **Kyoto** and **Lake Biwa**. After visiting **Enryakuji Temple**, the descent may be made by another cable line to **Sakamoto** on the lake and return to **Kyoto** by electric car via **Ōtsu**. An interesting half-day trip.

Mausolea of Meiji Tennō and Shōken Kōgō at **Momoyama** by railway or electric tram.

Takao, **Makino-o** and **Togano-o** lie close together along the ravine at the foot of **Mt. Atago** on the northwestern outskirts of **Kyoto**. They constitute the historic places for maples which are the glory of the hillside and dales in autumn.

Uji, where grows the choicest green tea, is a popular spot for excursion from **Kyoto** by motorcar. The **Phoenix Hall** of the **Byōdō-in Temple**, built in the 11th century, stands on the **Uji River** as a sample of the best religious architecture of the period when the **Fujiwara Family** was in its glory.

KYŌTO TO SHIMONOSEKI

by San-in Line

The country traversed by rail between **Kyōto** and **Shimonoseki** along the **Japan Sea**, a distance of 422.5 miles, has numerous places unfrequented by the general traveller, called the "Holiday Land" because of its excellent sea, lake and hot-spring resorts, its fishing and sailing and other diversions including mountain climbing. From the trains are picturesque views of the bold coast-line, rocky islets, small bays and sand beaches in succession.

Among numerous spas along the railway line, **Kinosaki**, the first spa reached from **Kyōto**, has been known since the 7th century for the curative efficacy of its hot mineral water. Near the spa stands **Genbudo**, the famous grotto, 78 to 100 ft. in depth, and filled with thousands of basalt pillars, giving the cave the appearance of a colossal beehive.

Matsue, on the east bank of **Shinji Lake**, is the largest city in the region; it was in the **Matsue Middle School** that **Lafcadio Hearn** first taught in Japan the house in which he stayed for about two years is preserved in his memory.

The **Daisen National Park** and the **Great Shrine of Izumo** are in this region.

AMANO-HASHIDATE

Amano-hashidatē, or **Heavenly Bridge**, one of the "Scenic Trio of Japan," a sand-bar about 2 miles long, covered with pine trees, which extends from the mainland into **Miyazu Bay**, on the **Japan Sea**, has been famous from time immemorial as a scenic point, the combination of pine-trees, white sand and blue water appealing strongly to the esthetic nature of the people. Reached by rail from **Kyoto**, **Kōbē**, or **Osaka** to **Amano-hashidatē Station**.

MT. DAISEN

Daisen, alt. 5,693 ft., selected as a **National Park**, is best reached from **Hōki-Daisen Station** on **San-in Main Line**, 199 miles from **Kyoto**, 10 hours. Bus available from the station up to the mountain side where stands the famous **Daisenji Temple**. The ascent from the temple is a severe one, taking 3 hours to cover only 4 miles. An extensive virgin forest of beech trees belting the upper half of the mountain constitutes a special attraction.

Great Shrine of Izumo, 244.7 miles

Kōbē by one hour's drive, or by cable line or ropeway from the foot, is a favorite summer resort for foreign residents of **Kōbē**, many of whom have cottages there.

Arima, a well-known hot-spring resort, is reached in about 1.5 hours by motorcar through strikingly beautiful scenery via **Mt. Rokkō**, or directly from **Kōbē** by electric railway in 45 minutes. **Arima** is of great antiquity and has a delightful location. Various kinds of mineral water are noted for their medical efficacy.

Suma, **Maiko** and **Akashi**. A delightful motor trip can be made to these seaside resorts over a splendid road. They are charmingly situated along the **Inland Sea** with fine sand beaches and parks embowered in aged pine trees.

INLAND SEA

(Sēto Naikai)

The **Inland Sea**, or **Sēto Naikai** in Japanese, extending for about 230 miles along the south-western coast of the **Main Island**, from **Kōbē** to **Shimonoseki**, is dotted with 950 islands of all shapes and sizes, and the seascape view is ever changing as one voyages on its historic waters. The sea varies 6 to 40 miles in width in between the **Main Island** and **Shikoku Island** or **Kyushu Island**. On a bright day, the daylight steamer trip through it from **Kōbē** is a memorable event. Another worthwhile trip is on board special steamers from **Osaka** to **Beppu Spa** in **Kyushu**. Most of the trans-Pacific liners cross the sea. Occasional glimpses of its beauty can be seen from the trains running between **Kōbē** and **Shimonoseki**. The district extending from **Shōdoshima Island** on the east to **Tomo** and **Tadotsu** on the west, in which are many beauty spots, has been selected as a **National Park**.

Okayama. Among many cities and towns on **Sanyo Main Line** from **Kōbē** to **Shimonoseki**, **Okayama** is particularly noted for its castle and historic landscape garden, the **Kōrakuen**. **Okayama** has been the educational center in the district west of **Kyoto** since feudal days. On the way from **Kōbē** to **Okayama**, another castle must not be missed. It is the **Hakuro Castle**, or **Snowy Heron Castle**, of **Himeji**, which has a singular beauty of its own among the Japanese castles.

Hiroshima is the largest city in this part of the **Main Island**; its beautiful

landscape garden, the **Sentel**, owned by **Marquis Asano**, is open to the public.

SHIKOKU ISLAND

Shikoku, one of the four greatest islands of **Nippon Proper**, has many places of interest, including **Ritsurin Park** at **Takamatsu**, an attractive landscape garden; **Yashima**, off which a great naval battle was fought between the **Taira** and **Minamoto** clans in the 12th century. **Kotohira Shrine**, venerated by the seafaring people; all lying in or not far from **Takamatsu** which is reached by steamer from **Uno**, a short railway ride from **Okayama** on the opposite coast. **Dōgo Hot Springs** are reached by steamer from **Onomichi** or from **Ujina**, near **Hiroshima**, to **Takahama**, thence 6 miles by railway and electric tram, or directly from **Takamatsu** by rail.

MIYAJIMA

Miyajima, or **Shrine Island**, one of the "Scenic Trio of Japan" is considered one of the most beautiful shrine sites in Japan, and reached by ferry from **Miyajima Station**. It is widely known for its **Itsukushima Shrine** which at high tide appears to float upon the water, for its singular torii in the sea, and for the crimson richness of its maple foliage in the autumn. With its cool nights, sea-bathing, delightful sylvan walks and retreats, abundant pines, good drinking water, disintegrated granite soil and untilled land, the island is an ideal summer resort.

The **Shrine**, an open square in shape, is a unique sight at night when its lanterns are lighted. **Kagura**, or sacred dances, are performed by shrine maidens for a stipulated offering to the shrine. Tame deer wander freely about the precinct. **Senjō-kaku** is a time-worn building dedicated to the shrine by **Toyotomi-Hideyoshi** in the 16th century, who is said to have built the structure out of the wood of a single camphor tree. **Mt. Misen**, the highest point on the island, is easily climbed in less than 2 hours. From the top there is a splendid view of the **Inland Sea**. Circuit of the island by motor launch in about 2 hours is an interesting excursion.

Hotel: **Miyajima Hotel**.

Shimonoseki

Shimonoseki, situated at the western end of the **Inland Sea** and the **Main Island**, is the gateway through which the majority of travelers from the Asian

continent enter Japan via Fusan in Chosen. It is an important railway and steamer center, being the terminal of the Main Island system of railways along both the Pacific and the Japan Sea coasts, and the terminal or port of call for many steamship lines, including the State Railway steamer service to Fusan. A frequent ferry service is operated between Shimonoseki and Moji, 2 miles in 15 minutes, although now the under sea railway connects the Main Island and Kyushu.

Hotel: Sanyo Hotel, located on the station premises.

Akamagū, a shrine dedicated to the infant Emperor, Antoku, who drowned in the desperate sea-fight between the Minamoto and Taira clans off Dannoura in 1185. Dannoura, is the left beach along the shore.

Chōmon-kyo Valley, 2.5 hours by the Sanyo Line, changing cars at Ogōri, is celebrated for its scenic beauty, peculiarly shaped peaks, fantastic rocks, ravines and tumbling streams.

Shūhodō, 18 miles from Ogōri, is the second largest stalactite cave in the world to be fully 1.2 miles long.

KYŪSHŪ

Kyūshū, the westernmost of the four large islands forming Japan Proper, was the first to be settled by the Japanese race, and contains much that is of historic interest.

Off Hakata, now a part of the city of Fukuoka, the great Mongol fleet sent by Kublai Khan in 1281 A.D. to subjugate Japan was completely defeated, civilization in the Asiatic continent entered into Japan through Hirato and Hakata in North Kyushu in olden times, while Western civilization gradually filtered into Japan through Nagasaki in South Kyushu for several hundred years down to the restoration of 1868. In North Kyushu are the largest coal mines in Japan. Some of the Kyushu hot-springs Unzen, Obama, Aso, Beppu, Kirishima, etc., are visited by many foreigners resident in China and other overseas countries.

Moji Together with its sister city, Shimonoseki on the opposite side of the channel, Moji is a most important travel center, being an open port for steamship lines and the terminal of railway lines on Kyūshū Island. The expansion of the coal mining industry in the island assisted its growth, and together with

Wakamatsu and other neighboring cities, Moji constitutes the largest manufacturing center in Kyūshū.

Fukuoka, the largest city in Kyūshū, 2 hours from Moji by rail, lies on the head of Hakata Bay. Hakata, now forming a part of the city is the oldest port for foreign trade in Japan. The city weaving industry and the manufacture of Hakata dolls. Sumiyoshi Shrine, Ōhori Park, the site of Lord Kuroda's castle in the park, etc. are places of interest in the city. The site of Dazafu, or the government seat of Kyūshū of old, famous for its connection with the loyalist scholar Sugawara-Michizane, may be visited by motor-bus from Futsukatchi southeast of Fukuoka, on the Kyūshū Line.

Kumamoto, 2.5 hours from Fukuoka to the south or 4 hours from Kagoshima to the north by rail, is one of the oldest castle cities in Kyūshū. The Kumamoto Castle was built by Katō-Kiyomasa, one of the most powerful generals under Toyotomi-Hideyoshi, in 1601-1607. It is the castle which the Major-General Tani-Tateki of the Imperial Army defended in a deadly battle against the siege by the forces of General Saigō in the South-western Civil War in 1877. Other places of interest are Hanaoka Hill noted for its connections with the history of the Protestant Church in Japan, the Udo castle, the Katō Shrine, the Honmyō Temple, the small, but beautiful Suizenji Park, 3 miles by electric car from Kumamoto, etc.

NAGASAKI

From Moji, 150 miles, express 5 hours; reached also from Kōbe by the N.Y.K. express steamers of the Kōbe-Shanghai service—a charming daylight trip through the Inland Sea each way.

Hotel: Hotel du Japon.

Nagasaki has the distinction of being the first port of the Empire to be opened to foreign trade, being one of the best harbors in the country. It is the first port of call in Japan for steamers from Australia and China, and overland travelers leave their ships here. The city is famous for its annual fêtes: Suwa Shrine Festival, October 7-9, Bonmatsuri, or all souls' day, July 13-15, and Hata-agé, the kite-flying festival, held for several days in April.

Suwa Park, the Commercial Museum and Suwa Shrine, adjoining the park, are to be visited. The Catholic Cath-

from Kyoto, 12 hours, one of the oldest shrines in Japan, dedicated to Prince Ōkuninushi who founded a state which he surrendered into the hands of the Imperial Ancestors. The present shrine, built in 1874 A.D., is approached by an avenue of magnificent pine trees. It is built in the earliest style of architecture known in Japan and on that account the most dignified.

NARA

Nara was an ancient capital of Japan during seven reigns, from 710 to 784 A.D., regarded as the period in which Japanese arts, crafts and literature were born and during which were compiled the first written histories of Nippon. The temples and shrines in its eastern part have remained, in spite of the ravages of fire and time, practically as they were originally, and in Nara are found many rare old treasures. Visitors enjoy the quiet and restfulness of the old capital, and foreign visitors miss much if they omit Nara from their itinerary.

Hotel: Nara Hotel.

Nara Park, the largest of city parks in Japan, about 1,250 acres in area, and richest in classical memories, contains most of the relics of the ancient city. In the park there are the Shōsō-in Museum (see Chapter on Literature, Arts and Music), Imperial Household Museum with rich collections, Industrial Bazaar, Mt. Wakakusa, Uguisu Waterfall, and the ancient Kasuga Shrine situated in a grove of old cryptomerias. Deer strolling in the park are the favorite of all visitors.

On the way from the railway station to the hotel, the first pond noticed is Sarusawa-no-iké, fringed by willow trees. Kōfukūji, above the pond, is conspicuous with its two pagodas. Other temples and shrines near by are Tamukeyama Hachiman Shrine, Sangatsudo and Nigatsudo minor temples, Todaiji Temple, one of the seven great temples of Nara, noted for its big bell, beyond which is roofed the colossal bronze image of Daibutsu, or Great Buddha, 53.5 feet high. It was cast in 749 A.D. and is the largest of its kind in Japan.

Hōryūji, 3 miles from Nara, built about 1,300 years ago, is the oldest existing Buddhist temple in Japan, some of its buildings being probably the oldest wooden structures in the world: It contains priceless art treasures, best seen in the treasure house.

Among the other noted old temples and shrines in the vicinity are Hokkōji, Saidaiji, Tōshōdaiji, Yakushiji, Hasedera Temple, Omiwa Shrine, Shigisan Temple, the Mausoleum of Jimmu Tenno, the founder of the Empire, and Kashiwara Shrine dedicated to him.

OSAKA

Osaka, the second largest city in Japan with an area of 72.3 square miles and a population of 1,850,000, is the largest commercial center of the Empire, its industrial activities embracing many lines of business. Located at the mouth of the River Yodo and on the coast of Osaka Bay it is interlaced with numerous canals and is known as the city of canals and bridges.

Hotels: Hotel New Osaka, Osaka Hotel, Dōbil Hotel, Takarazuka Hotel.

Osaka Castle, built in 1585 A.D. by Toyotomi-Hideyoshi, was one of the greatest and strongest castles in this country. Most of the old structures having been destroyed by fire, there now remain the elevated site and two deep moats with stately stone walls. The huge donjon has recently been rebuilt on the former site to revive the old glory of the castle.

Tennoji, or Shi-Tennoji, a temple founded in the 6th century, is noted for its architecture. From Tennoji, Sumiyoshi Shrine can be reached in 20 min. by electric railway.

Dōtombori and Sennichi-mae, near Minatomachi Station, are amusement quarters with theaters and other places of entertainment. **The Bunraku Theater,** noted for its historic puppet show, should not be missed. Shinsaibashi-dori, running north from Dōtombori, is the best shopping quarter of the city.

Sumiyoshi and Hamadera Parks, both favorite sea-bathing resorts of Osaka residents, are reached from Namba Station by electric railway running to Wakayama.

Mino-o Park is noted for its landscape beauty, water-falls and colorful foliage in the fall.

Takarazuka, 40 min. by electric railway, is noted for its mineral baths, and the "Paradise Hall," a large theater where operatic and other performances are given by the famous Takarazuka team of girl players.

Mt. Kōyasau, alt. 2,833, 2.5 hours by electric railway from Osaka, is celebrat-

ed for the great Buddhist monastery founded in 516 A.D. by Kōbō-Daishi. The holy precincts, surrounded by magnificent trees, cover about 24 square miles.

KII PENINSULA

Kii Peninsula, its south-western portion in particular, best reached from Osaka by the O.S.K. steamers, or by combined service of railway and motor-buses, is considered one of the best tourist points in Japan, owing to its mild climate, beautiful coast views, numerous spas, ancient temples and shrines. The **Kumano** district of the peninsula and some of the Yoshino mountains in Nara prefecture have been designated as a National Park.

Nachi Waterfalls, the highest in Japan running down 430 feet, is within easy reach from Katsura, a pretty seaport. Doro Gorge, on the upper reaches of the River Kumano, is considered the finest of the kind in the country. Reached from Shingu by boat, 28 miles in 3 hours.

Yoshino and **Kumano** districts extend over the three prefectures of Nara, Wakayama and Mie and cover an area of 165,560 acres. Yoshino was the seat of the Imperial court for some 60 years, in the 14th century, under the Godaigo Tenno and his successors. It is therefore associated with many romances, heroic and tragic, which make the spot particularly famous. There is, moreover, the surpassing beauty of cherry blossoms which almost entirely cover the valleys and mountain-sides in the season, usually April 10-25. Yoshino is best reached from Osaka by electric railway in 2 hours. Among the peaks of the Yoshino mountain range, Sanjō (Ōminé), Shaka and Bukkyo are most prominent. The first named Ōminé is a sacred mountain with a temple on its summit. To the east of Ōminé stands Mt. Ōdaigahara which affords a wonderfully extensive view, including, on a clear day, even Mt. Fuji about 150 miles to the east. These peaks and historical places attract a vast number of pilgrims and excursionists not only in cherry time but in all other seasons.

Kumano is a sacred region in South Kii Peninsula, embracing the three holy places of Hongū, Shingū, and Nachi; the last being noted for the Nachi waterfalls mentioned above. Kumano's claim, however, for its celebrity mainly lies in its

attractive scenery; especially of Doro and other gorges, coastal views around Kushimoto, Katsu-ura, etc., and because of its rich vegetation found in the district in profusion, some being found only in the semi-tropical regions. Doro Gorge is situated on the upper reaches of the River Kumano which rises in the Yoshino mountains and empties into the sea at Shingū. The clearness of its water, fantastic rock formation and mountain scenery combine to display ever-changing views for several miles, is the center of the famous Hakata silk the beauty culminating in May and June when azaleas and rhododendrons in bloom on the cliffs are reflected in the liquid mirror below. For about 17 miles upstream from Shingū boats are available. The coastal views of Kumano are of exquisite beauty, especially in the vicinity of Katsu-ura, a picturesque harbor with many islets adorning the mouth. A group of hot springs around Katsu-ura Bay is comfortably reached by motor-boat from the pier. Kumano is not so conveniently situated as Yoshino, but the well-accommodated steamers of the O.S.K. will take one comfortably from Osaka to Katsu-ura in less than 15 hours.

KOBE

Kōbē, the sixth largest city in Nippon with a population of over 967,000, situated on the Inland Sea and land-locked by the Rokkō hills at the back, is one of the two greatest trade ports of the country. Kōbē is also a travel center, from it in every direction. All the wares of the Orient can be purchased here.

Hotels: Oriental Hotel, Tor Hotel, Kōshien Hotel.

Suwayama Park, on the hillside close to the Tor Hotel, is sometimes called "Venus Hill," from the story that a Frenchman in 1873 made observations of the transit of Venus at this spot.

Nunobiki Waterfalls, the celebrated twin falls located in a thickly wooded hill, are favorite objectives of the citizens' outings.

Ikuta Shrine, near Sannomiya Station, is said to have been founded by the Empress Jingō in the 3rd century.

Minatogawa Shrine, near Kōbē Station, dedicated to Kusunoki-Masashigé, a loyal hero of the 14th century.

Mt. Rokkō, alt. 3,062 ft., reached from

dral at Urakami is the largest in Japan and contains many relics associated with the Christian persecution in the 17th century.

Among the many delightful trips in the vicinity are those to the waterfalls of Takino-Kwannon, to Mogi, a seaside town on Chijiwa Bay, to Michino-o, a little spa much resorted to by Nagasaki folk, and to Obama, a well-known hot-spring resort at the foot of Unzén.

UNZEN

The renowned sulphide hot-springs of Unzén, alt. 2,400 ft., discovered in 1661, annually attract many foreigners and Japanese. It is regarded as the best summer resort in Kyūshū and is also visited for its wild cherry blossoms in spring, its splendid azaleas in May, its tinted foliage in the fall, and for its celebrated Silver Thaw in winter when trees and shrubbery are coated with ice. The Unzén district has been selected as a National Park.

Hotels: Kyūshū Hotel, Yūmei Hotel, Shinyu Hotel, Unzen Hotel, Midoriya Hotel, Takaki Hotel, Unzén Kanko Hotel.

Accesses: From Nagasaki, rail to Isahaya and thence by motor-bus to Unzén via Obama, or by motor-car all the way from Nagasaki. From Kumamoto, rail to Misumi, steamer connection to Shimabara, thence motor-car or bus to Unzén.

BEPPU

Natural hot water is so abundant at Beppu that it is provided at the railway station for travelers' hand-washing, and besides baths in many private houses, bathing facilities are installed in almost every school, police station, and even in the prison. Extraordinary sights are the ten or more solfataras or pools of boiling water in the district which bubble and steam. The sand baths are also renowned for their miraculous cures.

Hotel: Kaménoi Hotel, and Japanese inns.

Besides the hot-springs in the city of Beppu there are six spas in the district. The largest pools of boiling water, popularly called Jigoku, or Hell, are Umi, Chinoiké, Bōzu, Hachiman and Kōya.

Yabakō is known for its fantastic rocky heights and varied vegetation, which, with the meandering stream, form gardens of striking beauty. Train, Beppu to Nakatsu, 43 miles, change to Rakanji, 10 miles, thence bus, ricksha or on foot for the views.

MT. ASO

Mt. Aso, alt. 5,238 ft., recently selected as a National Park, is a general name for 5 volcanic peaks, of which Nakadake is active. Its original crater, over 70 miles in circumference, is the largest in the world. The shortest and easiest ascent is made from Bōchū on the Ōita-Kumamoto Line, thence motor-bus to the summit. Other routes are via the Kagoshima Main Line and from Nagasaki. The trip to Mt. Aso, with its wonderful active crater, the hot-springs in the district and natural beauty in the valleys, will live long in the memory.

KAGOSHIMA

From Moji, 245.5 miles, express 8 hours; from Beppu, may be reached by railway running for the most part along the east coast of Kyūshū Island.

Kagoshima, the picturesque southernmost city of Kyūshū, is noted as the birthplace of Saigō-Takamori and many other statesmen, generals and admirals renowned in the modern history of the nation. The city and vicinity produce the famous Satsuma porcelain.

Sakurajima, a volcano in Kagoshima Bay, once an island but now a peninsula, is reached in 30 minutes from the city.

MT. KIRISHIMA

Mt. Kirishima is a collective name for the two volcanic peaks, Takachiho and Karakuni, facing each other. In the vast area around the peaks, selected as a National Park, are found all the features of volcanic mountain scenery: wonderful craters, lakes, cascades, forests, hot-springs, rare trees and flowers. These peaks have associations linked with the dawn of the Empire. Kirishima hot-springs are 0.7 miles from Makizono Station, 29 miles from Kagoshima.

TAIWAN

(Formosa)

The foremost port of the island is Keelung, or Keelung, 990 miles from Kōbē, thrice weekly steamer service via Moji being maintained by the O.S.K. and other steamships.

Taihoku, 18 miles from Keelung, the seat of the Government-General, is the political and economic center of the island. Among places of interest are the Museum, Botanical Garden, Central Research Institute, Taihoku Imperial University, the Market and the Taiwan

Shrine dedicated to Prince Kitashirakawa.

Hotel: Taiwan Railway Hotel.

Hokuto and Sozan are delightful spas in the vicinity of Taihoku.

Jitangetsutan, a beautiful mountain lake, 10 miles in circumference, is best reached from Gaihatel on the Shushu Line.

Mt. Nitaka, or Mt. Morrison, is the highest mountain in the Empire with an altitude of 13,000 feet.

At Kagi, the center of the sugar industry in Taiwan, is handled a large quantity of timber from Mt. Arisan, 21.8 miles by train from Kagi. The heart of the mountain is Numano-taira, alt. 7,500 ft., a favorite resort of foreign visitors. The ascent of Arisan, with its scenic grandeur is quite enjoyable.

CHŌSEN

(Korea)

Keijo, or Seoul is the seat of the Government-General. Flourished as the capital of Yi Kings for over 5 centuries, the city has many places of historic interest. Keifuku-kyū Palace has many magnificent buildings such as the Hall of Administration, the Audience Hall and the Banquet Hall. Pagoda Park is a charming little park on the north side of Shōro Street. Shotoku-kyū Palace, in the northeast of the city, is the private residence of Prince Yi. The beautiful gardens in the residence, and the Botanical Garden, the Zoological Garden and the Museum, in the adjacent enclosure, are worth a visit. Nansan Park is a pine-clad hill on the southern city boundary, where stands the Chosen Shrine, a memorial shrine dedicated to Meiji Tenno.

Hotel: Chōsen Hotel.

Toa Kotsu Kosha (East Asiatic Travel Corporation)

On the first of December, 1943, the Toa Tourist Bureau (founded in 1912) and the Board of Tourist Industry were

amalgamated, giving birth to Toa Kotsu Kosha or East Asia Travel Corporation. As a result of this fusion all the overseas offices of both institutions have come under the control of the new organization.

As a travel agency, the first duty of the East Asia Travel Corporation is to tend to the needs of the travelling public by selling transportation and other kinds of tickets, giving out free information, issuing travelers' cheques, and operating hotels. The scope of the business of the corporation is expected to extend to other kinds of travel enterprise, such as sleeping-car and diner service and the banking business.

In addition to its activities as a travel agency and its work in the cultural field, the East Asia Travel Corporation has another important mission, which is to co-operate, mainly through passenger traffic, with other nations inhabiting the Co-Prosperity Sphere and to effect a collaboration of all these nations into one harmonious whole. In this task, as in all others, the East Asia Travel Corporation works, not for its own interests, but for the good of the public.

At present the East Asia Travel Corporation maintains some 280 offices with a staff of nearly 4,000 employees—offices scattered throughout the whole region of East Asia and elsewhere. In a few more years a remarkable increase is expected in the number of these offices—and consequently in that of its employees—especially those in the South, for the corporation has been making every effort to expand its chain of offices in this part of Asia.

Heading the corporation is Baron K. Okura, president (member of the House of Peers), assisted by the following officers:—T. Arai, M.P., vice-president, H. Takata, H. Schimozu, I. Yokota, directors, and eight other directors. The headquarters are in Otemachi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

CHAPTER XXXII

TOKYO

The City of Tokyo and Tokyo Prefecture were fused into Tokyo Metropolis on July 1, 1943. The fusion was effected in order to raise the efficiency of the capital's function and to meet the heavier demand upon it caused by exigencies of the times, removing all overlapping authority and other sources of confusion resulting from the dual governmental control in the former days.

During the past several inconveniences arose from the dual character of the government in the area, where the importance of the former city increasingly dwarfed that of the Prefecture. Though the city held only 26% of the whole prefectural area, it contained over 92% of the entire prefecture's population. Again, more than 97% of the prefectural tax receipts accrued from the erstwhile city area. Furthermore, 103 of the 112 members of the Prefectural Legislature were elected from the urban districts.

The principal objective of the activities of the Prefectural Assembly was therefore, naturally the Tokyo City of that time, which, however, maintained its own Municipal Council. Discrepancies of opinions thus were frequent between these two bodies as between the two governments on such matters as the supervision of education, sanitary and welfare work, etc. So in these two bodies there would naturally be considerable savings in the expense, monetary and otherwise resultant therefrom.

Legislature and Election The legislating body of the new Metropolis is the Metropolitan Assembly. The membership is 100, which is a reduction of nearly two-thirds from the combined membership of the former prefectural and municipal legislatures.

The term of membership is 4 years. The sessions are divided into two kinds: regular and special. The regular session meets once a year for not more than 30 days. Special sessions convene when-

ever deemed necessary for not over 7 days.

The Assembly elects Metropolitan Council as its standing executive body. The Council consists of 15 members, elected every other year.

Meetings of the Metropolitan Legislature are called at the discretion of the Governor. But whenever a demand for a special session of the Legislature is made by one-third or more of the members specifying the item to be voted upon, the Metropolitan Governor is bound to convene a special legislative session.

The Governor

As one object of the establishment of the Metropolitan System has been to strengthen the administration of the capital by removing anomalies resulting from dual prefectural and city government in the Metropolitan area, and as this area partakes simultaneously of the nature of a prefecture and of a city, it is essential that the Governor of the metropolis be invested with the powers which were formerly held by both the Prefectural Governor and the City Mayor. Moreover, it was deemed necessary to clothe the office with due dignity and so the Governor, instead of being elected, is appointed Imperially.

The Lieutenant-Governor, who is an Imperial appointee was deemed necessary for Tokyo Metropolis, unlike other prefectures, has an enormous amount of business to transact, and approximately 15,000 officials to be supervised.

Departments and Their Duties Departments within the Metropolitan administration are set up to deal respectively with public welfare, education, economy, new projects, civilian defense, transportation, water supply and harbor works, making eight departments altogether, under supervision of the Governor's central administrative department.

Building projects are no longer supervised as in the past by the Metropolitan Police. Applications for building permits must, therefore, be sent to the district offices of the Metropolitan administration instead of to the police office.

Note: For detailed accounts of the conditions for the fusion, refer to the Japan Year Book, 1943-44, Chapter XXXIX.

The Metropolitan Government holds somewhat upper hand over the Metropolitan Police Board at least as regards air-raid defense.

Wards

The district offices are now entrusted with the care of matters pertaining to properties and public buildings and such other business may be delegated to them under Metropolitan Ordinances.

The powers of the district offices are limited, too, and they have no power to impose taxes or to float public loans. The expenditures necessary for the district are derived from the revenues accruing from public properties and the rentals of public buildings. Deficit is made good from the metropolitan budget. In the past the estimates for the districts have averaged about ¥5,000,000 per district, about 70 per cent of their revenues being appropriated from the city treasury.

The district offices moreover have been reorganized and expanded. District chiefs who were only minor officials of the city have now become secretaries in the Metropolitan organization, a comparatively high ranking office.

City and prefectural hospitals which existed independently with no close connection between them now are placed under unified supervision.

The schools hitherto under supervision of the prefecture and of the city respectively now come collectively under supervision of the Tokyo Metropolis. The names of the schools have been changed where necessary.

In so far as transportation is concerned, the city street cars are now called Metropolitan Street Carlines, the city bus lines Metropolitan Bus Lines. The City of Tokyo formerly had charge of this business, which was supervised by the Prefecture.

Historical Sketch

In 1192 Yoritomo Minamoto (See Chapter III, Kamakura Period) established a military régime at Kamakura, 56.33 kilometers south-west of the present Tokyo, and it was at this period that the name of Yedo was recorded in the report of a local war in which a son of Lord Shiro Kanetsugu Yedo took part, and the name seems to have been given before he became the lord of the district. Yedo literally means "entrance to the gulf."

After the fall of the Yedo family the district was occupied by a feudal lord called Sadamasa Uyesugi; and Dokan Ohta, one of his retainers, discovering the strategic importance of Yedo constructed the Yedo castle which was completed in 1457. After changing hands a few times, it fell, in 1590, into the possession of Iyeyasu Tokugawa, who settled down there to be the overlord of the eight provinces of Kanto. From that time it gradually expanded until it became not only the capital of Kanto but the seat of the Tokugawa Shogunate during 15 generations. During the 268 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate the obscure village of Yedo became a thriving town and it is said that 2 million people lived there in the height of its prosperity in the Bunsai (1818-1830) and Tempo (1830-1844) eras.

In 1869 the Emperor Meiji transferred the Imperial capital to Yedo and renamed it Tokyo, or Eastern Capital. Then came still further growth and prosperity. Contact had just been made with Western countries and as Tokyo was serving as the gateway for Western civilization much attention was given to building the city on modern lines.

The 50 years of Tokyo culture met with a terrible catastrophe in September 1923, when earthquake and fire, unprecedented in history, dealt the city an almost fatal blow. Nearly one-half of the entire city was completely reduced to ashes. But with hard work and the enthusiastic support of the whole country and the citizens of Tokyo, as well as the sympathy of the world, a new and better Tokyo arose from the ashes in but a decade.

Location and Climate

Tokyo is situated at the south-east corner of Kanto plain in 35° 31' 59"—48' 50" N. latitude, 139° 33' 56"—55' 22" E. longitude. The climate of the city is generally mild; the annual mean temperature is 13° 9' C (57° F); the mean temperature in July is 24° 2' C (75° 5' F), in January 3° 1' C (37° 5' F); the annual average precipitation is 1,555 mm.

Population and Area

Growth of Population According to the 1940 census the population of Tokyo city area was 6,778,804 at the time when the census was taken on October 1. It increased 903,137 or 14.6 per cent during past 5 years. It represents 9.2 per

cent of the total population in Japan proper.

Year	Population	Household
1878	813,400	235,943
1888	1,298,661	287,833
1898	1,425,366	316,527
1908	1,626,103	376,428
1920 (census)	2,173,200	456,816
1923 ¹	1,527,489	340,278
1924	1,926,310	417,833
1925 (census)	1,995,567	429,852
1930 (census)	2,070,913	414,710
1931	2,103,880	421,620
1932	5,314,700	1,112,640
1933	5,495,460	1,138,470
1934	5,682,370	1,164,890
1935 (census)	5,875,667	1,191,939
1936	6,025,800	1,236,500
1937	6,274,000	1,275,800
1938	6,457,600	1,313,400
1939	6,581,100	1,339,100
1940 (census)	6,778,804	—

1) Earthquake year.

The number of residents actually residing in Tokyo's 35 wards, comprising the former City of Tokyo, was 5,727,680 on August 1, 1944, according to the registration with fish-mongers.

Buildings and Dwelling Houses At the end of 1938 there were 1,057,921 buildings and dwelling houses in the city, of which dwelling houses numbered 692,751, shops 223,552, governmental offices 8,924, and schools and libraries 6,078.

Early in May 1944, there were vacant houses enough for over 13,000 families.

Area The total area of the city of Tokyo in January 1939, was 535,668 square kilometers. The classified

ownership in January 1939, follows:

Ownership	Area (In square kilometers)
Total	535,668
Imperial household	6,397
State	78,795
Tokyo prefecture	1,161
City	14,617
Private persons	434,695

Commerce and Industry

In 1944, there were 2,300 members of the Metropolitan Bicycle Distribution Control Association mending some of the 1,100,000 bicycles and 700,000 rear cars then existing.

Tokyo at the same time had 7,000 green grocers and 1,000 persons connected with the produce markets.

The monthly requirement of soy sauce was 35,000 koku early in 1944, and monthly consumption of miso sauce 1,800,000 kan. The restaurants then were serving 700,000 meals plus 600,000 bowls of "zōsui" a day.

Drive for Self-Supply of Food In order to achieve self-contained economy in the supply of the citizens of Tokyo in 1944 turned to garden farming, cultivating a total of nearly 35,000,000 cho, including strips of land where houses were cleared in preparation against air raid.

They raised by the summer of the same year vegetables aggregating 8,300,000 kan, including 160,000 kan of potatoes from 4,000,000 cho, 900,000 kan of taro, 120,000 kan of sweet potatoes and 200,000 kan of spinach. The total produce was worth ¥6,500,000.

TOKYO RETAIL PRICES FOR DAILY NECESSARIES

(July, 1937=100)

Year & Month	Food	Housing	Fuel & Light	Clothing	Other	Average
1941	175.0	212.1	147.9	251.6	141.7	188.2
1942	183.8	231.1	164.8	273.6	155.7	202.3
1943	197.9	286.5	201.6	306.4	170.6	222.8
1943 July	194.2	294.0	205.7	309.6	173.3	223.9
1944 January	204.7	334.4	209.5	336.3	181.4	240.1
February	207.1	340.3	209.8	355.2	182.0	246.1
March	206.3	342.0	236.7	367.5	196.9	253.9
April	221.9	348.4	237.8	366.6	199.9	261.0
May	224.2	357.4	240.3	367.5	200.3	265.9
June	222.6	365.0	240.3	363.3	205.3	266.5
July	218.5	367.2	240.4	365.4	205.4	261.4

Note: Compiled by Tokyo City Office.

There are 4,800 tailors (as of April 1944) belonging to the Tokyo Metropolitan Tailors Association.

Industry At the end of 1938 there were, in Tokyo, 30,154 small work shops, where less than 5 operatives were employed, with 48,240 workers, and 15,419 factories, where more than 5 operatives were employed, with 482,939 workers.

FACTORIES IN TOKYO

(At the end of 1938)

Kind of Industry	Factories	Operatives	Production (In yen)
Textile	2,490	39,513	189,563,000
Metallic	6,127	81,331	731,546,000
Machine and Tool	9,195	238,123	1,153,492,000
Ceramics	769	10,123	32,316,000
Chemical	2,354	50,963	603,614,000
Sawing and Wood-work	3,200	13,817	52,603,000
Printing and Book-binding	3,243	29,031	136,679,000
Foodstuff	13,935	23,590	245,653,000
Gas and Electric	4	737	14,062,000
Others	4,256	43,951	168,376,000
Total	45,573	531,179	3,327,907,000

Companies At the end of 1938 there were 18,239 companies in Tokyo, with an aggregate capital of ¥14,954,279,000.

TRAFFIC SERVICE OF STATE RAILWAYS FOR TOKYO

Fiscal Year	Stations	Passengers who got in	Passengers who got off	Earnings (In Yen)
1932	63	335,659,845	334,105,799	47,353,680
1933	66	359,549,090	357,644,525	51,364,964
1934	65	374,591,543	373,084,109	54,050,989
1935	65	394,021,234	393,414,451	56,503,686
1936	65	420,627,220	419,349,144	59,823,498
1937	65	446,803,432	444,279,442	66,717,384

Underground Railway The urgent need of high speed underground communications to relieve the congestion and pressure of surface traffic was long felt. A private company built and opened its first section of an underground railway, from Asakusa to Ueno, in the latter part of 1927, and is pushing forward its line under the very center of the city to Shinagawa. It

completed the construction of the line to Shimbashi in June 1934, and the distance in operation now is 8 kilometers. The construction of the underground railway between Shibuya and Shimbashi was completed in the spring of 1939 by the hand of the Tokyo High Speed Railway Company and the traffic was opened on April 1, the mileage of the new tube is over 6 kilometers.

COMPANIES IN TOKYO CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRIES

(At the end of 1938)

Industry	Number	Aggregate Capital (In Yen)
Agriculture	115	116,178,000
Aquatic	27	196,170,000
Mining	511	1,759,919,000
Manufacturing	7,445	7,542,091,000
Commercial and Banking	9,654	4,516,915,000
Traffic	487	823,007,000
Total	18,239	14,954,279,000

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1940 the total mileage of public roads in the city was 8,710,055 meters covering an area of 51,210,737 square meters or 8 per cent of the total city area.

Railway Service In the fiscal year 1937, ending March 31, 1938 there were in aggregate 446,803,432 boarding passengers and 444,279,442 alighting passengers at 65 different governmental railway stations in the city, and the earnings in these 65 stations totalled ¥66,717,384 which was ¥6,893,886 more than in the previous year.

All the tram and bus lines lying entirely within the 35 wards of the Metropolis are now operated by the Metropolitan administration except the Government trolley belt lines.

There are 316 car stops with average distance of 581 meters between each other, lengthened early in October 1944, from 556 meters as before.

The whole Asakusa-to-Shibuya stretch is now run by the Rapid Transit Corporation while it pushes on construction of Akasaka-to-Shinjuku branch line.

Bridges The city of Tokyo has a network of rivers and canals and the beauty of the city is greatly enhanced by the bridges of manifold designs which traverse them. Before the earthquake the bridges under municipal management numbered 668, of which 426 were of wood. At the end of March 1937, there were 5,193 bridges in Tokyo, 1,126 of which were of stone, 469 concrete, 1,061 reinforced concrete, 537 iron, 5 iron and wood, and 1,990 wood.

Rivers and Canals The city is served with a veritable network of canals and rivers many of which are used for transportation purposes. Dredging has to be carried out continuously to keep them navigable. At the end of 1938

there were 65 rivers with the total length of 85 kilometers.

Harbor At the time of the great earthquake in 1923 the city of Tokyo keenly felt the necessity of better facilities for maritime transportation, and when rebuilding of the city took place it was decided to construct a pier, sheds and warehouses at Shibaura, Tokyo. A sum of ¥18,000,000 was appropriated for the work and construction was completed in April 1935. The length of the reinforced concrete Hinode-cho pier is 564 meters and six steamers of 1,000 to 3,000 tons can be moored alongside at a time. Another pier of Shibaura has a length of 910 meters and can moor 7 steamers of 6,000 tons. Furthermore, there are 12 mooring buoys and 8 sheds. The total area of the harbor is 8,591 square kilometers.

The Metropolis in 1944 was getting a daily milk supply of 260 koku.

GOODS CARRIED OUT FROM AND INTO TOKYO

(In metric tons)

Year	Outgoing Goods				Total
	By Railways	By Steamers	Through Rivers		
1933	2,647,049	102,415	61,960		2,811,424
1934	2,967,012	105,437	64,874		3,137,323
1935	3,385,452	62,773	69,002		3,517,227
1936	3,593,885	1,634,327	95,330		5,313,542
1937	3,815,000	—	131,000		3,846,000

Year	Incoming Goods				Total
	By Railways	By Steamers	Through Rivers		
1933	6,342,816	58,675	57,306		6,458,797
1934	6,573,974	90,054	79,642		6,743,670
1935	6,614,397	55,619	81,844		6,751,860
1936	7,380,876	9,086,196	107,409		16,574,481
1937	8,539,000	—	419,000		8,958,000

Waterworks

The construction of modern water reservoirs was first commenced in 1890 and it was 20 years before the Yodobashi water reservoir was completed. But this proved inadequate to meet the ever growing water consumption and the Murayama water reservoir was constructed in 1916. It consists of two reservoirs, upper and lower, and the upper reservoir has a capacity of 3,576,000 cubic meters while the capacity of the lower one is 12,148,000 cubic meters. In 1934 another reservoir at Yamaguchi-mura was completed and it has a capacity of 18,824,000 cubic meters. The total volume of water which can actual-

ly be maintained by these reservoirs at any given moment reaches 30,056,000 cubic meters. The total number of hydrants in Tokyo in March 1937, was 863,400, and the total quantity of water distributed during 1936-37 was 333,740,073 cu. m. In March 1935, the city bought all rights of the Tamagawa Waterworks which had been supplying water to the six southern wards.

Sewerage Works

General Conditions Until half a century ago waste water used to be discharged into moats, navigable canals and rivers. In 1876, there was a violent outbreak of cholera which impress-

ed upon the Government the urgent need of a general water and sewerage system, but it was not until between 1883 and 1885 that Tokyo prefecture laid the first sewers, with a government subsidy. The subject of sewage disposal was not undertaken in earnest until 1911, and it was not until ten years later that the modern Mikawajima Disposal Works were opened. Extensions and modernization are still going on. At present there are 7 sewage siphons at Sunamachi and Mikawajima.

Within the old city limits there are no longer any open street drains visible, the same, unfortunately, cannot be said of the new city area, though further development of the sewerage system is being planned.

In 1937 there were 594,055 square meters of undergrounds in use for the laying of iron pipes and the aggregate length of iron-pipes laid down was 1,791,092 meters. Moreover, 203,315,911 cubic meters of sewerages were the aggregate volume that were siphoned in the year under review and the water volume disposed of totalled 160,528,573 cubic meters.

SEWERAGE WORKS IN TOKYO

(At the end of 1937)

Area covered in sq. m.	594,055
Length of sewers in m.	1,791,092
Sewerage siphoned in cu. m.	203,315,911
Sewerage disposed in cu. m.	160,528,573
Sewerage washed out in cu. m.	1,474,785

Parks

Parks The absolute necessity of parks is more keenly felt in Tokyo than in other cities in Japan because many lives were saved through the existence of parks on the occasion of the terrible earthquake of September 1923.

In January 1938, Tokyo had 143 parks

with an area of 3,284 square kilometers.

In the old city area there are three large parks: Sumida, Kinshi and Hamacho and 89 others of about 2,682,136 sq. m., whereas before the earthquake the city had only Ueno, Hibiya and 32 other parks. Within the newly annexed quarters of the city there are two at Shinagawa covering an area of 3,900 tsubo.

Sumida park has an area of 174,400 sq. m., Hamacho park 36,000 sq. m. and Kinshi park 56,000 sq. m. All of the numerous small parks are laid out adjoining for the most part elementary schools. They serve as local parks, the largest being 4,700 sq. m. and the smallest 1,700 sq. m. in area.

The Tokyo Metropolitan Defense Bureau in 1944 built a semi-underground house as an experimental airraid shelter. It has 2 compartments, one of 3-mat space and the other of 6 mats, and has 3 windows to keep the interior bright. In the narrower compartment the dweller may cook. The proof is so constructed for by-passing rain water.

Education

The Metropolitan Government now manages, among others, several colleges including a higher school, engineering college, aeronautic engineering school, chemical engineering school and a women's college. In 1937 the number of elementary schools was 633. Schools equivalent to elementary grade numbered 79, of which 44 were in the old city limits; blind, deaf and dumb schools numbered 9; middle schools 53 and girls' high schools 78. Various schools of middle grade numbered 32; business and technical schools 139, normal schools 3, young people's schools 258 and various private schools 307. As for higher education there were 2 higher normal schools, 3 business teachers' institutes, 72 professional schools (colleges), 5 higher schools, and 22 universities.

KINDERGARTENS, ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

March 1, 1937

	No.	Instructors	Pupils	Graduates
Kindergartens	315	947	19,425	11,896
Elementary schools	633	16,237	790,869	148,227
Elementary evening schools	79	133	6,277	2,124
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	9	189	1,329	294
Middle schools	53	1,452	41,163	6,635
Girls' high schools	78	1,926	53,254	9,839
Other schools of middle school grade	32	556	16,360	2,970

	No.	Instructors	Pupils	Graduates
Vocational, business and technical schools	139	2,622	72,078	15,809
Young people's schools	258	356	48,696	15,842
Normal schools	3	103	1,745	548
Various private schools	307	3,502	67,203	42,660
Total	1,906	28,023	1,118,399	56,844

SCHOOLS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

March 1, 1936

	No.	Instructors	Students	Graduates
Higher Normal schools	2	156	1,597	417
Temporary teachers' institutes	3	5	282	77
Temporary teachers' institutes	33	5	282	77
Professional schools	72	4,299	54,267	14,658
Higher schools	5	340	3,712	1,019
Universities	22	3,798	47,444	14,491
Total	104	8,598	107,302	30,662

During August-September, 1944, over 220,000 school children moved to temples and inns mostly in the prefectures surrounding Tokyo, in an organized manner while 100,000 more sought shelter with their relatives in provinces, to continue education unembarrassed by airraid menace.

Public Libraries There are 32 libraries in Tokyo, of which 28 are owned by the city, 1 by the Government and the rest by private persons. In the fiscal year 1939 the number of books held in all those libraries was 2,343,015 of which 908,005 were held by the Im-

perial Library at Ueno and 590,738 by the 28 municipal libraries.

Religion (See p. 839, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.)

Finance

The 1942-43 municipal budget was ¥471,931,227 for revenue and ¥471,931,227 for expenditure. The following table shows the settled accounts for 1934-35 to 1936-37 and budgets for the following years. Among the enterprises tramways, bus, gas and water works are included.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF TOKYO

(In Yen)

Fiscal Year	Total		Ordinary Account	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1934-35	210,754,644	215,615,254	108,255,864	70,971,473
1935-36	196,497,423	180,086,912	107,457,241	78,877,884
1936-37	221,397,619	210,281,781	104,334,055	78,764,403
1937-38 (Budget)	239,728,780	238,455,096	124,657,897	97,942,072
1938-39 (Budget)	267,408,145	268,301,506	148,717,857	119,281,544
1939-40 (Budget)	256,394,000	256,003,000	132,108,000	101,348,000
1940-41 (Budget)	386,871,230	386,871,230	143,254,000	143,254,000
1941-42 (Budget)	406,776,539	406,776,539	127,440,000	127,440,000
1942-43 (Budget)	471,931,227	471,931,227	164,823,816	164,823,816
1934-35	94,383,118	89,649,688	8,115,662	54,994,093
1935-36	81,370,835	36,590,431	7,669,347	64,618,597
1936-37	103,684,809	49,474,800	13,378,755	82,042,578
1937-38 (Budget)	97,501,889	61,983,377	17,568,994	78,529,647
1938-39 (Budget)	102,993,656	67,769,892	15,696,632	81,250,070

TOKYO

Fiscal Year	Enterprises		Others	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1939-40 (Budget)	95,114,000	67,783,000	29,172,000	86,872,000
1940-41 (Budget)	243,617,230	243,617,230	—	—
1941-42 (Budget)	279,336,539	279,336,539	—	—
1942-43 (Budget)	370,108,415	307,107,411	—	—

Note: Metropolitan Tokyo's budget of outlays connected with the evacuation of populace in 1944 was over ¥700,000,000, of which payments by the end of August amounted to more than ¥268,000,000.

CHAPTER XXXIII

FIVE BIG CITIES

OSAKA

General

Geographical Position The city of Osaka was founded 1,600 years ago. It is located approximately in the center of Japan proper, near the eastern entrance of the Inland Sea with easy access to the Pacific Ocean, while on the other sides extend the fertile plains in the valley of the Yodo River. The city of Kyoto, the former capital of Japan, is situated 43 kilometers to the northeast, and the city of Kobe lies 32 kilometers to the west. The River Yodo runs through the city, and with the numerous canals that connect with it affords excellent transportation facilities by water. The Yodo rises in Lake Biwa, the largest fresh water lake in Japan, and branches off into the Shin Yodogawa, Okawa,

Dojimagawa, Tosaborigawa, Ajikawa, Kizugawa and the Shirinashigawa, which in turn connect with numerous canals, the most famous being the Dotombori Canal.

Area The area of the city of Osaka is 187.37 square kilometers which means it ranks third so far as the area is concerned exceeded by Tokyo and Kyoto, but in point of population it is the largest, next only to Tokyo. Its city limits were extended twice in its history, the first time in 1897 and the second in 1925.

Population The census population of Osaka was 3,252,340 on October 1, 1940, an increase of 262,474 or 8.7 per cent over the figures of 1935 census. *

Population, 1935-1940

October 1,	Men	Women	Total	Households
1935 (Census)	1,594,151	1,395,716	2,989,866	630,232
1936	1,654,900	1,447,000	3,101,900	653,900
1937	1,715,100	1,497,900	3,213,000	677,800
1938	1,773,500	1,547,700	3,321,200	700,100
1939	1,812,900	1,581,300	3,394,200	—
1941	—	—	3,195,506	733,016

The city in 1943 was re-divided into 22 wards (ku) instead of 15 as before.

The population of Japan could be dividable in 1935 between 22,666,307 (32.7%) of urban districts and 46,587,841 (67.3%) of rural districts and the population of Osaka was 13.2% of the entire urban population.

In 1938 births numbered 76,919 (23.2 per 1,000 of population) of which 39,649 were male and 37,270 female, a decrease of 10,225 (11.7%) and of 3.9% in the rate of birth in comparison with the previous year. In the same year deaths numbered 48,735 (14.7 per 1,000 of population) of which 26,103 were male and 22,632 female.

In the same year still-births totalled 5,075 (1.53 per 1,000 of population) of which male numbered 2,754 and female 2,228.

As for the causes of deaths, 96.4% were illness and 1.2% suicide. Of the diseases 13.0% were pneumonia and 12.8% tuberculosis.

Residents from Overseas Territories and Foreign Countries. Chosenese residing in Osaka at the end of 1937 were 234,188 (137,250 being men and 96,938 women), an increase of 9,439 over 1936. Taiwanese numbered 268 (173 being men and 95 women). Foreign nationals in 1939 run as follows: Manchoukuo 93; China 2,207; India 21; the United States 80; and others 00; totalling 2,498 and Chinese occupying 88%.

Industries

Osaka is an important industrial and commercial center in Japan surpassed only by Tokyo excelling the latter in many respects. The aggregate 1938 pro-

duction in all factories, excluding those where less than 5 operatives are employed, was valued at ¥2,541,680,000. Further particulars follow:

FACTORIES IN OSAKA AT THE END OF 1938

Principal Industries	No. of Factories	No. of Employees	Production (in ¥1,000)
Textile	1,591	25,879	189,025
Metallurgical	2,879	74,823	959,395
Machinery	4,013	102,395	617,688
Ceramics	371	13,370	53,113
Chemical	1,005	28,205	297,843
Milling and wood work	1,007	9,081	45,158
Printing and book binding	785	11,048	45,158
Foodstuffs	1,013	11,318	87,960
Gas and electric work	10	1,025	—
Miscellaneous	3,003	29,655	123,739
Total	15,677	316,799	2,541,680

Commerce

Business Companies At the end of 1939 there were 9,462 business companies domiciled in Osaka, an increase of 222 from the previous year. The aggregate paid-up capital amounted to ¥4,142,320,000 against ¥3,770,509,000 of the previous year, an increase of ¥371,811,000. Of these companies 4,689 (49%) were commercial companies and 4,196 (44%) industrial companies.

Banks At the end of 1938 there were 8 banks domiciled in Osaka, and 95 banks domiciled in cities other than Osaka were found represented in the city by their branches. The aggregate paid-up capital of the 8 Osaka banks

was ¥107,075,000, the aggregate deposits ¥4,464,387,000 and advances ¥2,293,546,000. Bills cleared at the Osaka Clearance House in 1938 amounted to ¥28,535,903,000, an increase of 0.6% over 1937.

Commodity Movements The aggregate quantity of commodities taken away from Osaka in 1937 was 15,863,000 tons for ¥5,436,889,000 and those brought into 27,539,000 tons for ¥5,243,506,000. The net result was the excess of influx in quantity by 11,076,000 tons but the excess of out-going movements by ¥193,383,000. The following table shows this trend in the 5 classified leading commodities:

PRINCIPAL INCOMING & OUTGOING COMMODITIES

	1937		1938	
	Quantity (1,000 tons)	Value (¥1,000,000)	Quantity (1,000 tons)	Value (¥1,000,000)
Foodstuffs	956	217	2,878	552
Raw materials	3,678	555	12,236	738
Manufactures as materials	4,397	1,005	7,025	1,561
Finished manufactures	6,767	3,653	4,200	2,360
Others	84	10	200	34
Total	15,863	5,437	27,539	5,244

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1940 the total road area of Osaka was 15,984 square km., 7.7% of the entire area of the city and the total road length was 2,668,321 meters. The total area of paved roads in 1939 was 6,421 sq. km. an increase of 2.2% compared with the previous year.

Rivers, Canals and Bridges Osaka may be called the Venice of Japan on account of its many canals, and to that fact it owes much of its development as a big commercial and manufacturing center. Rivers that run through the city number 12 and canals 4 which are serving the city as effective means of transportations. The total length of

rivers in 1938 was 182,928 meters and the total number of bridges was 1,299 in the same year.

Tramway and Bus Lines At the end of March 1939 the business kilometerage of street tramways was 212 kilometers. The total number of passengers in 1939 was 358,006,000 (14% increase from 1938) and the total revenue ¥19,889,000 (14% increase from 1938). All tramway lines and some bus lines are operated by the municipality.

The subway work was first started in 1930 and its operation between Shinsabashi and Umeda was inaugurated in 1933, and the line was extended southward from Shinsabashi to Namba in October 1935 and then from Namba to Tennoji in April 1938, the total business kilometerage being 7.5. The total number of passengers in 1938 was 23,575,000 with fares totalling ¥1,987,000. The subway lines are also operated by the city.

Suburban Electric Railways On March 31, 1939 there were 9 private companies operating suburban electric lines to various suburban points with a total kilometerage of 949 carrying 639,126,000 passengers, fares being ¥72,631,000.

These companies are the Nankai Railway Company, Hanshin Electric Railway Company, Hanshin Express Railway Company, Keihan Electric Railway Company, Osaka Denki Kido Company, Sangu Electric Railway Company, Osaka Railway Company, Hanwa Electric Railway Company.

Sea Transportation The Osaka Harbor is one of the three largest ports in Nippon and steamships that entered the port in 1939 numbered 17,488 (14% decrease from 1938). Sail boats numbered 107,526 (7% decrease from 1938).

Education

On March 1, 1938, there were kindergartens and schools in Osaka totalling 1,015 against 941 of the previous year; teachers, professors and nurses numbering 16,898 against 15,885 of the previous year; and pupils and students 548,775 against 517,953 of 1937. Schools and kindergartens established by the Municipality numbered 537; schools alone established by the Prefecture and the Government 30; and private schools and kindergartens 448.

Kindergartens numbered 128 on March 1, 1938, children enrolled num-

bering 16,400 and nurses 560. Attendants in elementary schools totalled 371,500, on March 1, 1938, with their teachers numbering 7,374. Middle schools and schools of the same grade totalled 127, with pupils numbering 77,512. Institutions for higher and university education were 10 in number, faculties totalling 774 and students 8,017.

Furthermore, there were on March 1, 1938, Young Men's Schools numbering 356 in all, with teaching forces of 3,066 and pupils counting 48,289.

Educational expenditure of the Municipality for 1937 was ¥24,491,000 an increase of ¥3,272,000 (15.4%) over 1936. Of this expenditure for education 35.4% was for salaries.

Universities and colleges in Osaka are the Osaka Imperial University (governmental), the Osaka University of Commerce (municipal), Osaka Higher School (governmental), the Osaka School of Foreign Languages (governmental), the Kansai University (private), Naniwa Commercial College (private), Osaka Girls' School (prefectural), etc. At the end of March 1937 there were 12 libraries, 1 being under governmental maintenance, 6 under municipal maintenance and 5 of private ownership. In the governmental library there were 283,308 books on March 31, 1938.

Social Welfare Work

Relief of the Poor Since the issuance by the Government in 1874 of the relief regulation, the municipality of Osaka has active interest in the relief of the poor, old-aged and deserted children. More recently it has undertaken to institute various social works directed for the prevention of poverty. In 1937 three municipal maternity homes received 5,766 expectant mothers of small means and births numbering 4,608 were obtained, still-births numbering 382.

Protection of Infants & Children At the end of 1937 there were 44 nurseries, 13 poor children educational homes; 8 blind and deaf protection homes; 10 minors protection houses; and 16 children health consultation offices. Infants who were received in the 44 nurseries totalled 2,684.

Employment Exchanges The municipality also maintains 23 employment exchanges and 2 training places for

workseekers. The employment exchanges gave work to 95,133 men and 17,531 women during 1937.

Medical Relief On March 31, 1938 there were 62 relief hospitals. The total number of patients treated in all the relief-hospitals was 4,492,165 (out-patients) and 15,010 (in-patients) in 1937.

Social Education Work In 1937 there were 19 institutes for the social education work, of which 8 were under

municipal management. Protection of infants and children, assistance to advice-seekers on matters of health, law, etc. and holding of necessary lectures for social educational purposes etc. are the works that are being carried on by the 19 institutes.

Municipal Finance

The budget for 1943-44 was balanced at ¥351,116,000.

The municipal loans aggregated ¥596,290,000 on May 31, 1938.

KYOTO

Kyoto, known in antiquity by the name of "Heian" (the city of peace), was for about a thousand years the metropolis of Japan. At the Restoration, the Emperor Meiji moved his capital to Tokyo, but Kyoto retained its position as a cultural center, and today it is looked upon as "the classic city" and the leader of culture in the western part of the country. The city, lying in what is called the Kyoto basin, is surrounded by many famous hills and mountains such as Arashiyama, Atagoyama, Kuramayama, Hieiizan and Higashiyama. The area of the city is 288.65 square kilometers, the greatest length from N. to S. is a little over 26 kilometers and the greatest breadth is about 25 kilometers, the form being roughly rectangular. Osaka lies 43 kilometers to the southwest.

Boundaries The boundaries of the city have undergone considerable changes since 1888. At that date the first annexation of adjacent villages was made, a second extension was made in 1902 and a third in 1918. In 1929 three wards, Nakakyo-ku, Sakyo-ku, and Higashiyama-ku were newly added to the city. In 1931 the last annexation was made and two more wards, Ukyo-ku and Fushimi-ku, were constituted.

Population The population grew from 717,100 in 1927, to 736,000 in 1928, to 755,200 in 1929, and due to the above mentioned extensions in the boundaries, was found in 1930, to be 952,397. On October 1, 1935 the total population of Kyoto was 1,080,593, the number of households being 224,863. According to the census taken on October 1, 1940, the population was 1,089,726, an increase of only 9,133 in the past 5 years.

Economy

Banking Statistics Figures concerning the banks in the city are quoted below:

At the end of	No. of Banks	Deposits	Loans
1932	88	453,702	156,344
1933	85	474,504	178,553
1934	80	494,295	208,386
1935	80	535,339	179,773
1936	71	680,692	185,964

Commercial and Industrial Corporations At the end of 1939 there were 2,529 companies in Kyoto. Their capital amounted to ¥452,289,000. Of the total number, 1,008 were industrial companies and 1,440 commercial companies.

Transportation

Municipal Tramways In 1940-41 the total length of the lines was 71.6 km. and carried 144,851,000 passengers, while the bus ran on 74.7 km. of the lines and carried 18,941,000.

State Railways In 1936-37 the number of passengers who moved through Kyoto and other seven stations in the city was 21,346,437.

Suburban Electric Railways On the north the Eizan Electric Railway extends from Demachi Bridge to Kurama and Mount Hiei; on the northwest the Arashiyama line starts Shijoomiya and goes to Arashiyama and connects with the Atago Electric line. To the south Kyoto is connected with Osaka and Nara by three electric railways, i.e. Kei-han Electric, Shin (new) Keihan Electric and Nara Electric. The Keihan line extends to the east from the terminal of Sanjō to the city of Otsu by Lake Biwa.

Rivers, Water-Power Works

Rivers Almost all the rivers that meet in the Kyoto Basin, rise in the Tamba tableland. The Hozu River, which later changes its name into the Katsura River, touches the western side of the city; the Kamo River and the Takano River, rise in the southern part of the tableland, join together and flow across the city to empty into the Katsura River. The Uji River, starting from Lake Biwa, and the Katsura River meet in the southern suburbs of the city to form the Yodo River which flows south-westwards, through Osaka, into Osaka Bay.

Canal and Water-power Work The first Biwa Canal, completed in 1895 at the cost of ¥1,838,317, was designed for the conveyance of passengers and goods and for the supply of water power, while the second canal, completed lately at the cost of ¥4,477,805, supplies water for drinking, fire-brigades and for producing electricity, etc.

The waterworks were started in 1908 and completed in March 1912, at the cost of ¥3,000,000 of which ¥750,000 came from the State treasury. The water is drawn from Lake Biwa by means of the second canal mentioned above and supplies water to 500,000 people. Further work, to cater to the needs of 200,000 people, is on the way. The supply in 1939-40 was 52,598,964 cubic meters to 165,604 households.

Education

Governmental and Prefectural: Kyoto Imperial University, the Third Higher School, Kyoto Higher Industrial and Art School, Kyoto Higher Sericultural School, Kyoto Sangyo Koshujo (School of Sericulture).

Municipal schools: Kyoto Painting School.

Private schools: Ritsumeikan University, Doshisha University, Ryukoku University, Otani University, Shingonshu University, Buddhist School, Military Arts School.

NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES

(At the End of March 1940)

	No.	Instructors	Students
Kindergartens	62	204	5,612
Elementary schools	145	3,266	142,063
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	2	53	404
Girls' high schools	15	541	13,289
Middle schools	17	511	11,286
Technical schools	16	616	13,241
Normal schools	2	101	959

(October 1939)

	No.	Instructors	Students
Higher school	1	70	812
Colleges	13	390	5,246
Universities	6	555	8,010
Young Men's Schools	134	933	12,245
Miscellaneous schools	42	624	8,279

Libraries and Museums There are also in Kyoto other institutions for educational purposes as the Imperial Gift Museum, Kyoto Municipal Library, Kyoto Fine Arts Museum, and the Memorial Zoological Garden.

Shrines and Temples In 1939 the numbers of Buddhist temples and Shinto shrines for which Kyoto is

famous were 405 shrines, 356 preaching places of sectarian Shinto sects, 1,429 Buddhist temples, while Christian churches numbered 47.

Social Work

Conditions of social undertakings under municipal management in 1939-40 were:

	No. of Establishments		
Public markets	16	Sales account	¥2,758,876
Housing	5 places	No. of houses	357
Public baths	6 houses	Floorage (tsubo)	334.46
Labor exchanges (1938)	3	{ Cases handled	60,297
Lodging houses	1	{ Employed	16,348
Lunch-room	1	Capacity	200
Pawn shops	6	Meals (1938)	94,713
		Loans	¥535,943

Finance

The annual revenue and expenditure, both general and special, of Kyoto in 1943-44 amounted to ¥68,193,000

respectively.

Municipal debts outstanding on March 31, 1940, totalled ¥66,594,475 or ¥56.57 per capita of population.

NAGOYA

Nagoya is situated in the very center of the main island. Facing Isé Bay on the south and bordered by the fertile plain of No-Bi on the north, the climate is always mild. Nagoya castle, with its famous golden dolphins, speaks of the glorious history of the city. Old and historically important as the city is, she fills today a more important role than of old, for she is a distributing and industrial center for the middle part of Honshu, a role that will grow in importance as time goes on.

Area and Population

Population in 1942 was 1,470,074 and area 161,519 square kilometers.

Buildings Number of buildings at the end of 1938 was as follows:

Concrete buildings	301
Brick buildings	301
Wooden buildings	315,402
Others	10,638
Total	326,702

Commerce and Industry

Companies and Banks At the end of 1939 the number of business corporations in Nagoya was 3,101 with an aggregate paid-up capital ¥634,746,000, and that of banks 8. At the end of 1939 their deposits amounted to ¥999,546,000, outstanding loans to ¥481,086,000.

Domestic Trade Home trade values

in recent years were as follows:

	Exports	Imports
	(In yen)	
1934	47,397,255	137,081,837
1935	57,205,175	149,122,814
1936	65,839,589	168,466,005
1937	80,242,407	215,705,847
1938	83,957,100	238,679,555

Industry Commodities that are brought into city are foodstuffs and raw materials such as rice, sugar, timber, coal, ginned cotton, iron, wool, etc., while those sent out are mainly lumber, coal, cotton piecegoods, porcelain and pottery, beer, cement and other manufactures. Nagoya has been from olden times a famous place for porcelain and pottery and in 1939 the output totalled as much as ¥37,219,000. It is only since the growth of the cotton spinning industry in the city that the value of the annual output of pottery has been challenged. The total production of the cotton spinning industry reached ¥183,926,000 in 1939. An equally significant development is that of the machine and tools. In 1939 the total output of the machine industry reached ¥429,546,000, an increase of 17.1 per cent as compared with the previous year.

Number of Factories and Production Number of factories and productions of various industries in 1939 follow:

Kind of Industries	Factories		Operatives		Output (In ¥1,000)	
	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939
Textile	880	1,268	30,135	31,490	169,738	183,926
Metallic	631	743	12,365	16,680	75,936	115,944
Machine and tool	1,505	1,683	86,314	104,966	355,738	429,546
Pottery and porcelain	212	209	9,659	9,995	27,726	37,219
Chemical	189	187	6,019	6,785	65,350	71,402
Saw mills and wood works	765	722	7,390	9,197	38,098	48,397
Printing and bookbinding	246	220	2,703	2,750	11,747	15,271
Comestibles and beverages	515	570	4,711	5,885	63,575	83,010
Gas and electric	3	4	352	533	—	5,575
Others	917	542	6,164	4,380	55,478	34,761
Total	5,863	6,166	165,812	191,661	863,386	1,025,051

Transportation

Railways Lying as it does between Kyoto, the old capital, and Tokyo, the present capital, Nagoya is known as Chukyo (middle capital). It is an important intermediate city on the Tokaido highway. The Kwansai line, which starts from Osaka, passes through Nara and Miyé prefectures and connects at Nagoya with the main Tokaido line to Tokyo. The Chuo line, which runs through Gifu, Nagano, Yamanashi and other prefectures to Tokyo, has Nagoya as its other terminus. Nagoya is thus one of the most important railway centers of Nippon. The railway station and the harbor are directly connected by rail and the importance of the city as a distributor of goods is thereby enhanced. There are 10 stations, viz., Nagoya, Nagoya-Minato, Atsuta, Chikusa, Ozoné, Hattá, Shiratori, Maizuru, Sasajima, and Horikawaguchi. The annual passenger traffic passing through these 10 stations is estimated at about sixteen million persons, and goods traffic amounts to approximately four million tons. The city is provided with an extensive network of electric railway lines to connect with outlying districts. Since 1935 the city bought several private electric railways, and now only two private ones are left, i.e. the Seto Electric Railway Co. and the Nagoya Electric Rail-

way Co., and most of electric car business is run by the municipality, the total kilometerage open to business being 84.5 kilometers.

At the end of 1939 the total length of roads in Nagoya extended to 3,562 kilometers, the number of bridges 724.

Harbor Works Nagoya has a splendid harbor well protected by Chita Peninsula from typhoons. Construction of the harbor was started in 1896 and the third stage of the entire plan was completed in 1928 after a total outlay of ¥15,490,000. The area of the wharves is 1.52 square kilometers, with anchoring space for thirty-eight steamers of ten thousand tons or so. The fourth stage of construction was undertaken at an estimated expenditure of ¥20,120,000. When the work is finished the area of the wharves will be increased to 2.23 square kilometers and there will be anchoring space for fifty-two steamers of ten thousand tons. At present direct trade is carried on with the American continent, Europe, China, the South Sea Islands, Australia and Africa. The number of ships which entered the Nagoya harbor in 1938 was 117,472 with an aggregate tonnage of 16,103,954.

Education and Social Work

Social Work Social undertakings in the city in 1937-38, were as follows:

	Establishment	Beneficiaries
Lodging houses	7	152,291
Public pawnshops	5	{ Loans ¥266,080 Persons 53,195
Labor exchanges	10	Cases handled 433,411
Public markets	14	Amount of sale ¥2,920,157

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS

(March 1939)

Kind of Schools	No.	Instructors	Pupils
Imperial University	1	69	388
Higher School	1	47	619
Colleges	7	248	2,351
Elementary schools	120	3,462	171,324
Middle schools	11	—	8,974
Girls' high schools	14	—	10,371
Business schools	31	—	10,305
Normal schools	2	—	688
Young Men's schools	128	3,451	42,758
Kindergartens	42	166	4,209

Total public educational expenditure including others ¥8,328,876.

Finance
Revenue and Expenditure The annual revenue and expenditure of Nagoya

city has shown a marked increase of late as it is clear by the following table:

Year	Revenue ¥	Expenditure ¥
1937-38	86,839,151	73,838,716
1938-39	65,744,570	51,022,070
1939-40 (Budget)	55,302,997	55,302,997
1940-41 (")	65,047,000	65,047,000
1941-42 (")	74,426,000	74,426,000
1942-43 (")	93,906,780	93,906,780
1943-44	115,250,000	115,250,000

Municipal Loans At the end of March 1939, the total indebtedness of Nagoya city amounted to ¥111,964,857 or ¥442.72 per capita of household.

YOKOHAMA

General

History Yokohama, in the Bunroku Era, about 1587, was a hamlet of twelve families and by the time it became an open port, July 1, 1859, it was only a small fishing village of one hundred families or 350 people. The real growth began with the arrival of the foreigners. The commercial treaties Japan entered into with the United States of America, the Netherlands, Russia, Great Britain, and France stipulated that Kanagawa should be an open port, because it stood on the open harbor nearest Tokyo, then known as Yedo and the seat of the Shogunate Government, but as that village was already very crowded the Tokugawa Shogunate opened up the village of Yokohama instead.

In the beginning four streets were laid out, but as more and more Western, Chinese and Japanese merchants gathered there the area was quickly extended. The population in 1877 was 30,000, five years later it had grown to

52,000, and five years after that there were more than 94,000 in the town. At the end of September 1932, the population was 661,500. Yokohama received the status of a municipality on April 1, 1889. In 1901, the once thriving port of Kanagawa and other adjoining villages and towns were absorbed by the newly risen Yokohama, and in 1911 and 1927, further extensions took place.

Location Yokohama is situated in the south-eastern part of Honshu, the main island of Japan, on the western shore of the Bay of Tokyo about 22 miles from the entrance to the bay, in latitude 35° 27' N., longitude 139° 38' E. It is the seat of government of Kanagawa prefecture, of which it is also the largest population center. It is surrounded by hills on which the better class residential districts are located.

Area and Population The population of Yokohama was 1,036,367 in 1943, and area 400-square kilometers.

POPULATION

October 1,	Men	Women	Total	Households
- 1930 (Census)	321,415	298,891	620,301	135,929
1935 (")	360,363	343,927	704,290	148,545
1936	377,200	361,200	738,400	155,785
1937	387,500	372,200	759,700	—
1938	395,800	381,700	777,500	—
1939	440,000	426,200	866,200	—
1940 (Census)	503,199	464,892	968,091	—

Commerce

Banks At the end of December 1936, the number of banks in Yokohama including branches of those banks hav-

ing their head offices in cities other than Yokohama counted 16 of which 3 were foreign banks. The banks which are carrying on foreign exchange

business extensively are Yokohama Specie Bank, Dai-ichi Bank (branch), Mitsui Bank (branch), Sumitomo Bank (branch), Bank of Taiwan (branch), Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation (branch), Bank of India, Australia & China (branch) and National City Bank of New York (branch). The banks domiciled in Yokohama numbered 5 in December 1936, the most powerful one being the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd. The 16 banks showed the following accounts in aggregate as outstanding in 1939. Aggregated capital ¥108,100,000, reserves ¥145,830,000, and deposits ¥619,863,000. 12 out of the 10

banks were on Dec. 31, 1936, member banks of the Yokohama Clearance House.

Companies. At the end of 1939 there were 1,638 commercial and industrial companies in Yokohama of which 960 were for trade and 557 for industries.

Warehouses At the end of 1936 stocks in all warehouses in Yokohama were balanced at ¥79,465,634 as against \$113,366,674 at the end of 1935. Stocks stored in during 1936 were valued at \$62,900,988 and those withdrawn ¥67,677,236.

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION IN YOKOHAMA

(In 1938)

Kind	Factories	Workers	Production (In yen)
Spinning	178	8,395	24,002,184
Metallic	107	9,115	116,021,079
Machine & tool	234	42,906	326,522,774
Ceramics	18	2,458	13,524,239
Chemical	89	7,985	203,557,272
Wood works	75	1,254	6,428,756
Printing & book binding	58	656	2,224,809
Commodities	112	3,849	62,068,283
Gas and electricity	2	294	—
Miscellaneous	170	2,490	32,262,902
Total	1,044	77,432	786,612,298

Note: This table excludes small factories operated by less than 5 workers.

Transportation

Railway Passengers In 1936 the Government railway passengers who left and arrived at Yokohama, Sakuragicho, Tsurumi, Higashi-kanagawa and Hodogaya stations numbered 52,369,890.

Electric Tramways Tramways were first installed in July 1904, by a private company and later were purchased by the municipality. There are now over 92 kilometers of lines and carried 68,978,000 persons in 1939. There are five private tramway companies attending to the suburban services, viz., the Keihin Electric Tramway, the Tokyo-Yokohama Electric Ry., Tsurumi-Rinko Ry. Co., Shonan-Electric Ry., and the Jinchu Electric Ry. The number of passengers of these private tramways for 1939 was 74,527,000.

Education

Schools and Colleges At the end of March 1940, there were 100 elementary

schools maintained by the municipality. The number of children at these schools was 138,124.

There were 22 kindergartens with 1,239 children.

The number of middle grade, higher, and special schools and their pupils follows:

	No.	Students or pupils
Middle schools	6	4,606
Girls' high schools	8	6,067
Technical schools	13	6,715
Young people's schools	41	8,459
Blind, deaf and mute schools	3	195
Colleges	5	3,373
Prefectural normal school	1	230
Miscellaneous schools	41	6,929

Libraries The library statistics as of March 1, 1938 were as follows:

	No.	Books	Visitors
Prefectural	1	10,012	1,580
Municipal	1	42,515	260,547
Private	2	22,560	10,654
Total	4	75,087	272,781

Religion At the end of 1939 the number of Shinto shrines was 224. Buddhist temples 232, and Christian churches 45.

Social Work In 1936 the conditions of social works in Yokohama were as follows:

	Total	Ordinary Account	Enterprises	Miscellaneous
		(In yen)		
1938-39	57,022,000	18,117,000	—	—
1939-40	55,529,000	15,799,000	—	—
1940-41	59,730,000	16,426,000	43,303,000	—
1941-42	65,877,000	18,486,000	47,391,000	—
1942-43	84,493,830	20,211,408	64,282,422	—
Expenditure				
1938-39	57,022,000	18,117,000	—	—
1939-40	55,529,000	15,799,000	—	—
1940-41	59,730,000	16,426,000	43,303,000	—
1941-42	65,877,000	18,486,000	47,391,000	—
1942-43	84,493,830	20,211,408	64,282,422	—

In 1940-41 budget of Yokohama the total amount of ordinary expenditure was estimated at ¥16,426,000. Itemized details follow:

Items	Amount in yen	Percentage
Municipal office	1,595,000	9.8
Education	4,515,000	28.0
Industry	527,000	3.2
Hygiene	828,000	4.9
Social works	915,000	5.6

	Establishments	Beneficiaries
Employment exchanges	4 cases employed	372,153
Lunch halls	5	46,568
Pawnshops	12 Loans	¥713,885
Dwelling houses	2,014 Households	1,536
Lodging houses	2 Establishments	91,016
Poor relief		17,568

Finance

Revenue and Expenditure The estimated revenue and expenditure of the city of Yokohama for the past 5 years were as follows:

Items	Amount in yen	Percentage
Public works	1,984,000	12.0
Loans and others	6,061,000	38.1

Note: The total differs from that given in the preceding table because of some overlappings with other accounts.

Bonded Indebtedness At the end of 1936, the total bonded indebtedness of Yokohama city amounted to ¥170,968,346.

KOBE

General

Located between the Osaka Bay and the Rokko mountain range, Kobe covers an area of 83.06 square kilometers, stretching 14.4 kilometers from east to west and 13.5 kilometers from north to south. With a population of 964,000 including about 8,030 foreigners, Kobe is one of the six largest cities in Japan. It is the "City of Wonders," as an international trade center in the world.

It ranks second in the revenue of bill-of-lading freight, London coming first.

Before the Restoration of Meiji in 1868, there were less than a thousand houses in Kobe, fishermen's village. In 1867 Hyogo harbor (Hyogo village) was first opened to foreign trade and then the foreign settlement came into existence near the East Recreation Ground in Kobe village and Kobe harbor has since been gradually turned to advan-

tage. Since then Kobe has increased in population. Accordingly, Kobe village grew into the "Town" of Kobe in 1868. Hyogo and Sakamoto villages being annexed to it in 1879, the city of Kobe was born in 1889. Recently neighboring villages being annexed again, Kobe has become a "Prosperous Greater Kobe."

Geographical Position and Area The city of Kobe lies on the southwest coast of Hyogo prefecture in the Kansai district of Honshu, situated at 135° 5'-15' E. long. and 34° 38'-45' N. lat. The greatest length from west to east is 14.47 kilometers and the greatest breadth from north to south is 13.5 kilometers, the total area being 83.06 square kilometers, of which about 60 per cent is occupied by mountains and hills, and the rest by farms and the city proper. The form of the city is like a long band, and is divided into eight wards known as Nada, Fukui, Kobe, Hyogo, Soto, Minato, Hayashida, and Suma.

Population The following are the results of the national census for the year 1935 and 1940:

1935: Families	108,018
Population	912,179
1940: Population	987,234

Houses With the exception of public and municipal buildings and the houses of foreign residents, the total number of houses in the city was registered as 80,615 at the end of 1927, among which one-storied houses numbered 44,473, two-storied ones 41,185, and three-storied ones 957. There were 84,507 buildings of wood, 98 per cent of the total number; of brick 1,651; of concrete 402; and of stone 11.

Waterworks The waterworks were at first designed in 1909 to supply 3 cu. ft. per capita a day to 250,000 inhabitants, but the plan was later altered to provide for 100,000 families, 25 cu. ft. a day. The work lasted until 1923 and cost ¥12,858,720, of which state grants amounted to ¥3,403,000. In 1926, the municipality increased its water supply by laying pipes in the eastern suburbs to draw water from the Sengari pond behind Mt. Rokko. In 1935 the city supplied 52,803,380 cubic meters to 167,576 households and other uses.

Police Stations The total number of police stations in the city at the end of 1940 was 11. Policemen numbered 1,508.

Commerce and Industry

Movement of Commodities The movement of commodities through the Kobe harbor and railway stations in 1934 within Nippon proper and Chosen was as follows:

	Value (in yen)	
	Tonnage (in 1,000 tons) proper	Japan Chosen
Outgoing	2,436	477,315,042 32,181,212
Incoming	4,916	357,710,973 57,128,612
Total	7,352	835,026,015 89,310,824

Warehousing At the end of 1936 number of principal warehouse companies in Kobe was 9 and the aggregate floor area covered by the warehouses was 146,803 tsubo. In 1936, goods received by these warehouses were valued at ¥713,410,635, while ¥682,064,177 worth of goods was delivered. Goods stored at the year end amounted to ¥127,696,298.

Electricity and Gas At the end of 1937 the number of electric lamps in the city was 1,182,502 and electric motors 117,422 k.w.

In 1934, gas was supplied to 138,448 families with 347,633 spouts.

Banks and Business Firms At the end of 1939 the total number of banks and branches was 60, in exception of savings banks. The deposits of ordinary banks and branches outstanding at the end of 1939 amounted to ¥10,307,246,000 and advances and loans ¥8,013,605,000.

At the end of 1939 the number of companies was 3,166 with the authorized capital amounting to ¥1,218,194,000.

Factories and their Workers At the end of 1939 there were 1,896 factories. The total number of workers was 103,939 and the total production was valued at ¥810,535,000.

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1940 the total length of roads in the city reached 799,425 m.

Sea Transportation In 1939 the number of steam ships which entered the Kobe harbor was 23,749 with 40,230,000 gross tons.

Of the total number 20,031 were vessels sailing home waters and 3,718 on international courses.

	No.	Books	Visitors
Prefectural	1	10,012	1,580
Municipal	1	42,515	260,547
Private	2	22,560	10,654
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Expenditure				
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1939-40	55,529,000	15,799,000	—	—
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Social works	915,000	5.6

	Establish- ments	Bene- ficiaries
Employment exchanges	4	372,153
Lunch halls	5	348,670
Pawnshops	12	46,568
Dwelling houses	2,014	¥713,885
Lodging houses	2	1,536
Poor relief	2	91,016
		17,568

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Police Stations The total number of police stations in the city at the end of 1940 was 11. Policemen numbered 1,808.

Commerce and Industry

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Transportation

Roads At the end of 1940 the total length of roads in the city reached 799,425 m.

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Of the total number 20,031 were vessels sailing home waters and 3,718 on international courses.

VESSELS ENTERED KOBE

	Number of vessels	Tonnage
1934	97,170	49,481,808
1935	105,642	52,359,980
1936	107,042	32,389,306
1937	104,279	30,531,245

TRADE VESSELS ENTERED KOBE

	Number	Tonnage
1934	4,145	15,649,444
1935	4,421	16,752,490
1936	4,603	17,289,371
1937	4,254	16,266,031
1938	3,603	23,060,000
1939	3,718	23,470,000

Railways In 1936 the total number of passengers who left from and arrived at 12 stations in Kobe was 53,334,000.

Electric Tramways The tramways within the city limits are operated by the municipality, the total open mileage being 32,578 km. at the end of 1940. Attending to the suburban service, there are private companies, the Sanyo Electric Tramway (Hyogo-Himeji), Han-Shin Electric Ry., (Kobe-Osaka), Han-Shin Express Electric Ry., (Kobe-Osaka), and the Shin-Yu Electric Railway (Kobe-Arima). Han-Shin Kokudo Ry. was laid along the national road between Osaka and Kobe in 1927 and opened business in 1932, forming a parallel line to the state railway.

Education, Religion and Social Works

Schools In March 1941 the number of municipal elementary schools was 72 with 2,737 teachers and 125,926 pupils. Middle schools numbered 32, of which 9 were prefectural schools and 17 were private schools, with 1,011 teachers and 25,609 students in 1940. Kindergartens numbered 42 with 180 nurses and 4,010 children. Young people's schools num-

bered 49, of which 13 were private schools, with 579 teachers and 17,178 students. There is a government university of commerce and a technical college. Above these schools there are 40 miscellaneous business schools with 475 teachers and 9,113 students. Budget for educational expenditure for 1937 was ¥11,781,231.

Shrines, Temples and Churches At the end of 1939 there were 99 Shinto shrines, 153 Buddhist temples, 388 Tenrikyo and Shinto churches, 284 Buddhist halls, and 57 Christian churches.

Social Welfare Work At the end of 1937 municipal establishments for social welfare work were as follows:

Markets, 11; cheap eating-houses, 6; employment exchanges, 4; public nurseries, 2; lodging-houses, 4; child consultation office, 1; municipal dwelling-houses, 2; municipal pawnshops, 3; relief houses, 2; peoples' hospitals, 3; sanatorium, 1.

Finance

Budget for 1942 of Kobe was ¥80,914,717. It shows a decrease of ¥4,467,717 compared with the previous year. The revenue and expenditure of the municipality for the past five years follow (in yen):

	Revenue	Expenditure
1938-39 (budget)	63,292,000	63,292,000
1939-40 (")	72,574,000	72,574,000
1940-41 (")	77,587,000	77,587,000
1941-42 (")	76,447,000	76,447,000
1942-43 (")	80,914,717	80,914,717
1943-44 (")	84,318,000	84,318,000

The total amount of the city loans standing at the end of May 1937, was ¥114,739,200. The loans and the sum borrowed in cash in the fiscal year 1936-37 was ¥125,752,000 while the sum refunded was ¥11,013,400.

CHAPTER XXXIV

CHOSEN (KOREA)

General Description

Chosen, a peninsula extending southward from the north-eastern side of the continent of Asia, is washed on its eastern and western coasts by the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea respectively, and borders Manchoukuo and the Maritime Province of Siberia on the north, from which it is separated by the two rivers, the Yalu or Oryokko and the Tumen. Between the upper waters of these two rivers there is a mountain range which separates and turns them in opposite directions, the former flowing through Antung into the Yellow Sea. On the south the peninsula faces the Island of Kyushu and the western coast of Honshu, across the Chosen Straits, with the island of Tsushima and Iki about midway. It lies between the parallels of 33°06' and 43° north and 124°11' and 130°56' east, having a total area of 220,788 square kilometers which is about one-third of the area of the whole empire.

Surrounded thus by sea on three sides, Chosen has a long coast line extending in all to 8,674 kilometers. It has many good harbors on the south and west coasts, such as Fusan, Pusan, Moppo, Jinsen and Chinnampo. The tides rise far higher on the west coast than on the east, the difference between the highest and the lowest tide-mark on the former reaching over 10 meters, while on the east coast near Gensan it is less than half a meter. The country is as a whole mountainous, the eastern side steep and rocky, but sloping down more gently on the western side toward fertile plains traversed by large rivers such as the Daldo, Kan, Kln and Rakuto. The northern half of the peninsula is comparatively level and fit for agricultural work, whilst the southern half is rich in timber and minerals indicating good possibilities for future industrial development. The climate in Chosen is continental running to extremities of both heat and cold, the spring and autumn seasons being very short but highly delightful. One needs hardly add that the climate is decidedly

rigorous in the north and milder in the south. Moreover, the eastern coast has on the whole a milder climate than the western, the average temperature being some 2° C. higher, except in the middle of summer.

Flora and Fauna Plants in Chosen are classified into 160 families, 883 genus, 3,070 species and 550 varieties. Of these five genus and 550 species are peculiar to the country. The pine, larch, spruce, juniper, oak, willow, maple, alder and birch trees are found over the whole peninsula, the spruce, larch and birch mainly in the north, and the pine, oak, maple and alder in the south. Large specimens of old sophora, ginkgo biloba and spruce are also scattered over the country, especially in the central district; they are remnants of ancient forests and old temple sites. The poplar trees of Chosen type exist, but the Lombardy poplar and the acacia have been imported and both are found widely scattered as aids against erosion. Flowering shrubs such as azalea, cherry lilac, syringa and spiraea are numerous and grow profusely on hill sides. The beech, maple and paulownia found on Dagelet Island are peculiar to that place. The soil and climate of Chosen have proved most suitable for the cultivation of fruit trees, and large orchards for imported apples, pears, peaches and vines have been set up. The walnut, chestnut, pinnut and persimmon are indigenous and yield good crops.

Fauna of Chosen is of the Palaearctic geographical distribution. Animals commonly found are the bear, deer, wildcat, wolf, hare, weasel, tiger and leopard, (the number of the last two is now much reduced). Native horses are small, but strong and wiry; the cattle are large and useful and are widely distributed. Among birds are the crow, magpie, jay, kite, heron, crane, oriole, lark, sparrow, robin, tit, pheasant, and quail, while the goose, bustard, duck, teal, swan and snipe are migratory, passing Chosen in spring and in autumn. The variety of aquatic

animals is extensive, comprising the mackerel, sardine, herring, sea bream, plaice, cod, pollack, whale, oyster, crab and lobster. Various kinds of snakes are found in the country, but few are venomous. Insect life has been well

studied, as many are harmful to trees and crops. Among butterflies over 200 species have been identified.

Population

According to an official report, the population of Chosen was as follows:

POPULATION OF CHOSEN

1935-1940

At year end	Total	Chosenese		Japanese		Per Household	Men to 100 Women
		Male	Female	Male	Female		
1935	21,891,180	11,116,144	10,775,036	299,700	283,668		
1936	22,047,836	11,205,940	10,841,896	313,211	295,778		
1937	22,355,485	11,352,056	11,003,429	322,412	307,100		
1938	22,633,751	11,489,113	11,144,638	323,187	310,101		
1939	22,800,647	—	—	—	—	650,104	
1940	24,326,327	12,266,230	12,060,097	—	—	—	

At year end	Chosenese		Foreigners		Per Household	Men to 100 Women
	Male	Female	Male	Female		
1935	10,769,916	10,478,948	46,468	12,420	5.28	103.2
1936	10,842,097	10,531,475	50,632	16,649	5.28	103.4
1937	10,997,432	10,685,423	32,212	10,906	5.29	103.2
1938	11,128,074	10,822,542	37,852	11,985	5.29	103.1
1939	22,098,310	—	52,233	—	5.30	—
1940	—	—	—	—	—	101.7

BIRTHS AND DEATHS

	Births	Per 1,000 of Population	Deaths	Per 1,000 of Population	Natural Increase	Per 1,000 of Population
1933	590,035	29.20	392,668	19.43	197,367	9.77
1934	615,579	30.01	398,482	19.43	217,096	10.58
1935	625,979	29.46	421,444	19.83	204,535	9.63
1936	615,381	28.79	424,063	19.84	191,318	8.95
1937	628,205	28.97	386,733	17.84	241,472	11.13
1938	792,975	36.13	384,179	17.50	408,796	18.63

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE GROUPS

(1935 Census)

Ages	Total	Unmarried		Married		Parted by Death or Divorce	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
	22,899,038	6,074,011	4,957,199	5,016,503	5,194,592	572,143	1,084,590
0	894,077	454,876	439,201	—	—	—	—
1	768,601	389,027	379,574	—	—	—	—
2	744,578	376,430	368,148	—	—	—	—
3	720,987	367,380	353,607	—	—	—	—
4	631,481	320,743	310,738	—	—	—	—
5	667,042	339,153	327,889	—	—	—	—
6	600,652	306,740	293,913	—	—	—	—
7	596,437	305,379	291,058	—	—	—	—
8	583,305	298,735	284,557	1	12	—	—
9	509,734	263,651	245,959	50	74	—	—
10	554,189	284,330	268,960	269	623	1	6

Ages	Total	Unmarried		Married		Parted by Death or Divorce	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
11	520,785	266,516	252,024	611	1,619	6	9
12	491,711	249,822	236,405	1,673	3,753	23	35*
13	522,730	263,414	241,718	4,937	12,493	70	98
14	499,903	247,542	210,338	11,355	30,284	153	231
15	446,062	211,137	158,170	19,250	56,646	289	570
16	418,899	185,457	109,260	30,541	91,992	537	1,112
17	408,941	163,091	66,952	46,923	129,207	1,008	1,760
18	454,505	159,446	41,752	71,254	177,624	1,851	2,578
19	432,373	131,215	22,721	87,674	185,061	2,593	3,109
20	391,221	100,905	13,956	95,555	174,562	3,082	3,161
21	423,073	96,117	11,124	119,532	188,538	4,086	3,676
22	395,732	70,702	8,201	127,663	180,915	4,519	3,732
23	372,337	49,065	5,495	133,861	174,631	5,267	4,018
24	404,498	40,699	2,953	158,470	191,001	6,797	4,578
25	338,378	25,779	1,948	138,690	161,709	6,106	4,146
26	368,511	21,364	1,541	157,854	175,641	7,180	4,931
27	337,358	14,826	1,100	150,156	159,434	6,897	4,945
28	299,703	10,669	874	133,908	142,578	6,621	5,053
29	344,499	8,724	705	158,992	161,949	8,059	6,070
30	299,689	5,784	482	139,886	140,827	6,895	5,815
31	242,352	4,486	395	113,443	112,751	6,108	5,169
32	264,638	4,056	382	124,539	122,815	6,669	6,177*
33	261,871	3,558	342	123,501	120,804	6,842	6,824
34	279,146	3,424	271	132,089	127,586	7,969	7,807
35	283,894	2,690	258	135,669	128,598	7,910	8,769
36	251,116	2,570	196	118,335	114,014	7,318	8,683
37	286,448	2,537	233	136,062	127,920	8,870	10,826
38	274,533	2,271	180	130,039	121,079	9,030	11,934
39	264,031	2,066	184	125,030	114,047	9,809	12,895
40	245,475	1,538	144	117,236	104,269	9,803	12,985
41	228,550	1,535	151	108,477	95,781	9,404	13,202
42	207,607	1,077	136	97,920	86,945	7,964	13,565
43	242,183	1,325	121	113,710	99,712	10,233	17,082
44	229,390	1,211	120	105,855	93,472	10,530	18,202
45	224,661	993	123	104,430	90,434	9,744	18,937
46	203,458	906	122	94,113	79,064	10,030	18,017
47	231,562	942	121	106,962	88,429	11,753	23,355
48	199,771	842	94	91,327	74,519	10,964	22,025
49	165,969	723	86	75,358	58,773	10,648	20,381
50	152,936	531	80	69,560	53,983	9,916	19,466
51	167,565	466	87	75,989	57,425	10,592	23,006
52	161,497	426	93	72,667	53,954	10,479	23,878
53	163,164	493	113	71,434	53,615	11,349	26,160
54	177,993	562	145	77,601	55,800	13,520	30,385
55	148,471	390	142	63,293	45,716	11,344	27,616
56	181,269	445	106	77,649	52,789	14,524	35,756
57	124,627	315	106	51,587	35,746	10,786	26,087
58	106,591	382	142	42,641	29,154	9,922	24,350
59	122,706	349	142	48,845	31,571	11,956	29,843
60-64	513,378	1,120	468	194,523	115,251	58,282	143,734
65-69	387,134	621	317	124,183	64,900	57,419	139,694
70-74	250,662	262	147	66,166	28,629	48,186	107,272
75-79	147,095	136	93	28,582	10,567	34,378	73,339
80-84	49,668	37	43	7,000	2,226	12,906	27,456
85-89	12,868	6	19	1,293	340	3,441	7,769
90-94	2,084	—	4	205	95	458	1,322
95-99	537	2	—	71	42	110	312
100 and above	146	—	—	14	4	31	97

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1938	22,633,751	11,489,113	11,144,638	323,187	310,101
1939	22,800,647	—	—	—	—
1940	24,326,327	12,266,230	12,060,097	650,104	—

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0	894,077	454,876	439,201	—	—	—	—
1	768,601	389,027	379,574	—	—	—	—
2	744,578	376,430	368,148	—	—	—	—
3	720,987	367,380	353,607	—	—	—	—
4	631,481	320,743	310,738	—	—	—	—
5	667,042	339,153	327,889	—	—	—	—
6	600,652	306,740	293,913	—	—	—	—
7	596,437	305,379	291,058	—	—	—	—
8	583,305	298,735	284,557	1	12	—	—
9	509,734	263,651	245,959	50	74	—	—
10	554,189	284,330	268,960	269	623	1	6

Ages	Total	Unmarried		Married		Parted by Death or Divorce	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
11	520,785	266,516	252,024	611	1,619	6	9
12	491,711	249,822	236,405	1,673	3,753	23	35*
13	522,730	263,414	241,718	4,937	12,493	70	98
14	499,903	247,542	210,338	11,355	30,284	153	231
15	446,062	211,137	158,170	19,250	56,640	289	570
16	418,899	185,457	109,260	30,541	91,992	537	1,112
17	408,941	183,091	66,952	46,923	129,207	1,008	1,760
18	454,505	159,446	41,752	71,254	177,624	1,851	2,578
19	432,373	131,215	22,721	87,674	185,061	2,593	3,109
20	391,221	100,905	13,956	95,555	174,562	3,082	3,161
21	423,073	96,117	11,124	119,532	188,538	4,086	3,676
22	395,732	70,702	8,201	127,663	180,915	4,519	3,732
23	372,337	49,065	5,495	133,861	174,631	5,267	4,018
24	404,498	40,699	2,953	158,470	191,001	6,797	4,578
25	338,378	25,779	1,948	138,690	161,709	6,106	4,146
26	368,511	21,364	1,541	157,854	175,641	7,180	4,931
27	337,358	14,826	1,100	150,156	159,434	6,897	4,945
28	299,703	10,669	874	133,908	142,578	6,621	5,053
29	344,499	8,724	705	158,992	161,949	8,059	6,070
30	299,689	5,784	482	139,886	140,827	6,895	5,815
31	242,352	4,486	395	113,443	112,751	6,108	5,169
32	264,638	4,056	382	124,539	122,815	6,669	6,177
33	261,871	3,558	342	123,501	120,804	6,842	6,824
34	279,146	3,424	271	132,089	127,586	7,969	7,807
35	283,894	2,690	258	135,669	128,598	7,910	8,769
36	251,116	2,570	196	118,335	114,014	7,318	8,683
37	286,448	2,537	233	136,062	127,920	8,870	10,826
38	274,533	2,271	180	130,039	121,079	9,030	11,934
39	264,031	2,066	184	125,030	114,047	9,809	12,895
40	245,475	1,538	144	117,236	104,209	9,803	12,985
41	228,550	1,535	151	108,477	95,781	9,404	13,202
42	207,607	1,077	136	97,920	86,945	7,964	13,565
43	242,183	1,325	121	113,710	99,712	10,233	17,082
44	229,390	1,211	120	105,855	93,472	10,530	18,202
45	224,661	993	123	104,430	90,434	9,744	18,937
46	203,458	906	122	94,113	79,664	10,036	18,617
47	231,562	942	121	106,962	88,429	11,753	23,355
48	199,771	842	94	91,327	74,519	10,964	22,025
49	165,969	723	86	75,358	58,773	10,648	20,381
50	152,936	531	80	69,560	53,983	9,316	19,466
51	167,565	466	87	75,989	57,425	10,592	23,006
52	161,497	426	93	72,667	53,954	10,479	23,878
53	163,164	493	113	71,434	53,615	11,349	26,160
54	177,993	562	145	77,601	55,800	13,520	30,365
55	148,471	390	142	63,293	45,716	11,344	27,616
56	181,269	445	108	77,649	52,789	14,524	35,756
57	124,627	315	106	51,587	35,746	10,786	26,087
58	106,591	382	142	42,641	29,154	9,922	24,350
59	122,706	349	142	48,845	31,571	11,956	29,843
60-64	513,378	1,120	468	194,523	115,251	58,282	143,734
65-69	387,134	621	317	124,183	64,900	57,419	139,694
70-74	250,662	262	147	66,166	28,629	48,186	107,272
75-79	147,095	136	93	28,582	10,567	34,378	73,339
80-84	49,668	37	43	7,000	2,226	12,906	27,456
85-89	12,868	6	19	1,293	340	3,441	7,769
90-94	2,084	—	4	205	95	458	1,322
95-99	537	2	—	71	42	110	312
100 and above	146	—	—	14	4	31	97

POPULATION OF CHOSEN ACCORDING TO PROVINCES

(At the end of 1939)

Province	Japanese	Chosenese	Foreign	Total
Kelki	167,807	2,416,057	6,138	2,590,002
North Chusei	9,297	890,469	345	900,111
South Chusei	25,949	1,498,509	921	1,525,379
North Zenra	35,287	1,507,239	900	1,543,426
South Zenra	44,015	2,446,678	520	2,491,213
North Keisho	43,967	2,387,285	423	2,431,675
South Keisho	88,274	2,120,499	362	2,209,135
Kokai	24,321	1,695,197	2,009	1,721,527
South Heian	43,130	1,490,584	4,483	1,538,197
North Heian	26,684	1,607,415	21,639	1,655,738
Kogen	19,839	1,571,502	577	1,591,918
South Kankyo	59,308	1,602,642	5,581	1,667,531
North Kankyo	62,226	864,234	8,335	934,795

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION

(At the end of 1939)

Occupation	Japanese	Chosenese	Foreign	Total
Agriculture	33,257	16,486,959	11,188	16,531,404
Fisheries	9,540	337,310	70	346,920
Mining	18,604	322,988	2,160	343,761
Industry	111,808	611,958	8,650	732,416
Commerce	144,647	1,601,548	19,027	1,665,222
Transportation	37,705	225,264	2,586	265,555
Public service and profession	246,967	666,782	1,425	915,174
Miscellaneous occupations	24,932	1,559,101	6,922	1,590,955
Others	22,644	386,400	196	409,240
Total	650,104	22,098,320	52,233	22,800,647

On October 1, 1940, the density of the population average was 110 per square kilometer. The average is 89 per square kilometer less than in Japan proper.

In 1940, a total of 334,168 Koreans went to Japan proper and 218,027 returned. There are said to be 1,500,000 Koreans in Manchoukuo, especially in the eastern section of it. In China there are estimated to be 100,000 of them. Many are in the United States including Hawaii, and also in Cuba.

Origin of the Native Race

Though no conclusive opinion has ever been given as to the origin of the Koreans, it is evident that they are of the Mongolian family, and it is generally admitted that their cradle was in the neighborhood of Changchun, Manchoukuo, in and around the place now called Peina on the River Sungari. It seems, therefore, but natural that they should have a profound liking to emigrate and settle in those parts of Manchoukuo. From various historic relics it appears that they were of the same stock as the Manchurians and those Japanese dwelling in the western

half of Japan. In course of time much intermingling of blood seems to have taken place among the Koreans and the Chinese ever since Chinese colonies were first established along the north-western coast. But the latter did not supersede the native Chosenese race to any appreciable degree. This is clearly seen from the fact that the two races today have a distinctly different facial appearance, though both alike have black straight hair, dark oblique eyes and a tinge of bronze in the skin. The Korean language belongs to the Turanian group; it is poly-syllabic and possesses an alphabet of 11 vowels and 14 consonants, and a script known as Eunmoon. In grammatical construction it is almost identical with Japanese, though in sound and vocabulary it is quite dissimilar. From all these and other facts and evidences it may be concluded beyond any doubt that these two peoples were closely related to each other from very remote times.

Administrative Organization

Chosen is administered by the Government-General which was inaugurat-

ed on August 29, 1910, and has 8 main administrative offices and two departments, viz., (1) Governor-General's Secretariat, (2) Home Affairs Bureau, (3) Financial Affairs Bureau, (4) Industrial Bureau, (5) Agricultural and Forestry Bureau, (6) Judicial Bureau, (7) Educational Bureau, and (8) Police Bureau, and the Department of Foreign Affairs and the Department of Planning. There are also many affiliated offices such as (1) Central Council, (2) Communications Bureau, (3) Railway Bureau, (4) Monopoly Bureau, (5) Provincial Office, (6) Revenue Superintending Bureau, (7) Custom House, etc.

Position of the Koreans For a number of years since the establishment of the Government-General in Chosen all Koreans in government service were placed under different regulations from those applying to Japanese officials. Gradually, however, almost all discriminative features in treatment and salary have been wiped out and in October 1919, Korean officials were finally placed on the same footing as the Japanese and came under the same regulations. Moreover, prior to March 1920, in the courts Korean judges were allowed to try only those civil cases in which both parties were Koreans and the criminal cases where the accused were Chosenese, but now they are allowed to try all cases in which people of any nationality may be involved. Moreover, prior to 1919 the freedom of the press had been rigidly restricted. No newspaper except the few already in existence was allowed to be issued. Now, however, more daily papers are issued, and the restrictions placed on the holding of public meetings have been partly removed.

The Central Council As the highest consultative body there is the Central Council which is convened by the Governor-General several times a year to discuss such measures as may be presented by him. This Central Council consists of 5 advisors, 65 councillors, 1 chairman and 1 vice-chairman. One of the characteristic principles by which the Japanese administration in Chosen is guided is respect for the old Chosenese customs and manners, and the work of investigating these old customs so dear to the native people is entrusted to the Central Council. Koreans attach great importance to their ancestral tombs as a form of ancient worship, and the selection of a burial site is always made with great care. This,

coupled with their age-old superstition that the fate of one's family would be greatly affected by the position of its grave, has resulted in the devastation of a large area of land; wherefore the Government-General in 1912 issued an order requiring all people to use the public cemeteries for the disposal of their dead. This order, however, was revised in 1919 so as to allow the people to follow their old customs.

Local Autonomy and Suffrage

In establishing local administrative system due consideration was given to the system obtaining under the old régime and also to Korean culture and customs. Revisions have been made from time to time to suit changes in local conditions, and the system has finally developed into what it is at the present day.

The main principle upon which revisions were made was to prepare the way for laying foundation for local autonomy. The establishment of advisory organs in the revision of the local administrative system effected in 1920 had this object in view. During the 10 years following progress in the preparation for self-government was made to such an extent that the time was considered ripe to effect further important reforms in the local system. An ordinance was, therefore, promulgated on October 1, 1930, the substance of which was as follows:

Administration of Province The former provincial advisory council (Do-Hyogi-Kwai) was changed into the provincial council (Do-Kwai) which is vested with administrative power. Two-thirds of members of the council are elected by members of the municipal councils, "yu" councils and "men" councils in each province, and one-third appointed by the Provincial Governor.

The Provincial Governor acts ex-officio as Speaker of the council and the Vice-Speaker is elected from among members of the council. The term of members of the provincial council is four years.

Municipal System Each municipality has two bodies of the first and second educational sectional councils. The former is composed of Japanese and the latter of Chosenese members of the municipal council.

Yu-Men System The "men" (township) system (men-sei) has been substituted by the yu-men-system, and the yu (town) council was established in each yu and made an executive organ.

The "men" council, composed of elected members, remains as an advisory body. The term of members of the yu and men councils is four years.

Administration of County and Island Counties and Islands have county and island councils, the councillors of which are elected by the members of the yu and men councils. The term of the councillors is four years.

Supervision of Local Bodies As in Japan proper the right to reverse, to cancel, or to reconsider any decisions reached by local administrative organs is reserved to the Government-General, which may suspend or dissolve meeting when necessary.

Those portions of the ordinance that apply to the municipal system, yu-men system, county and island councils were enforced on April 1, 1931, while other parts which apply to the administration of provinces were enforced on April 1, 1933.

Finance

Budgetary System Introduced Under the old Korean régime there was no clear distinction between the court and the government in the use of money collected from the people in the form of various taxes. Moreover, most of the state revenue was from the ginseng monopoly, leasing of state lands, and granting of concessions of various sorts. Accordingly, therefore, there was no means of framing a yearly budget. This state of affairs, more than anything else, called for speedy remedies. When, therefore, a Japanese financial adviser, Baron Megata, took up his duties in August 1904, his first task was to bring order out of this financial confusion and his work was quickly done during the protectorate period. He drew up necessary plans for introducing the modern budgetary system, and the gold standard with a central bank to act as a state treasury and empowered with a right to issue convertible notes. A rigid taxation system was brought into existence, with the burdens of the people more equitably distributed. The former method of tax collection which gave rise to many serious abuses was quickly corrected. All the monopolies, such as that of ginseng, were turned over from the Imperial court to the government, and a clear distinction was marked between the finances of the court and of the state.

The Japanese Government Treasury was advancing a yearly subsidy to Chosen before 1919 when the revenue of the Government-General's own was enough to offset expenditures. The subsidy was revived in 1920 and the total up to 1943 amounted to ¥411,409,000.

BUDGETS

	Revenue	Expenditure
	(In yen)	
1937	427,653,964	425,123,781
1938	527,814,250	528,245,954
1939	656,099,928	656,099,928
1940	837,786,717	837,786,717
1941	996,725,094	996,725,094
1942	1,014,942,507	1,014,942,507
1943	1,319,274,000	1,319,274,000
1944	1,881,261,723	1,881,261,723

Government Monopolies

Several industries are being carried on as monopolies by the Government-General under direct control of the Financial Affairs Bureau; they are the manufacture or preparation of ginseng, tobacco, salt and opium. Net profit from the Government monopolies amounted to ¥55,498,000 in 1940-41.

Ginseng This medical herb is regarded as a wonderful cure for many diseases in China and Chosen. The drug is obtained from the root of the plant carefully tended for six years. The principal customers for this plant are the Chinese, who are ready to pay a high price for it. Figures relating to its production follow:

	Raw Prepared			
	Area (tsubo)	Root (kin)	Product (kin)	Receipts (yen)
1932	365,090	165,172	58,789	2,090,819
1933	350,623	142,686	49,525	1,839,941
1934	357,600	142,577	49,829	1,567,001
1935	357,947	142,662	52,125	1,703,788
1936	379,124	152,083	55,368	1,832,462
1937	377,564	151,390	53,502	1,812,963
1938	302,401	121,247	43,872	1,454,000
1939	—	99,077	36,136	1,723,515
1940	—	10,732	34,131	2,061,788
1941	—	157,220	56,188	3,206,555
1942	—	—	—	3,519,000

Tobacco As practically all Chosenese smoke, the tobacco industry is a great source of income to the Government. Three kinds are grown in Chosen, namely, Native, Japanese and American. There are four tobacco manufacturing centers, these being Keijo, Heijo, Tal-

kyu and Zenshu, the annual production reaching over 5 million kan valued at 6 million yen.

In 1941 the output of cigarettes was 9,956,505 pieces, and that of cut-tobacco 14,967,789 kg. Tobacco amounting to ¥83,579 was also imported from Japan and foreign countries in 1939. The receipts from tobacco sales amounted to ¥148,966,000 in 1942.

Salt The yearly salt consumption in Chosen amounts approximately to 350,000,000 kg. Production capacity in Chosen is 282,050,000, kg., so that 76-

000,000 kg. has to be imported. The demand for industrial use has increased recently and about 300,000 kg. is imported to supply the need. The Chosen Government-General is making efforts to bring about the time when it can supply the total demand of 350,500,000 kg. with domestic production. The output in 1942 was worth ¥21,424,000.

Economic Progress

The following table shows recent banking progress as compared with the conditions in 1910:

	(Value in ¥1,000)			
	1910	1936	1937	1943
Paid up capital of corporation	15,909	663,569	853,988	1,869,462
Value of agricultural products	157,158	830,321	1,134,114	—
.. forest products	19,240	118,065	138,709	—
.. marine products	8,466	79,879	89,023	—
.. mineral products	6,068	110,429	150,145	—
.. manufactures	30,964	730,806	959,308	—
Trade	56,696	1,355,730	1,545,753	—
Bank deposits	17,855	415,530	462,454	2,083,235
Bank loans	40,912	845,831	957,914	2,561,718
Amount of bills cleared	20,489	1,782,369	1,061,472	7,762,821
Price Index (Average in Keijo)	—	100.00	—	215.09
Wage Index (Average in Keijo)	—	—	100.00	168.20

N.B. In the column of agricultural products only rice, barley, wheat, oats, rye, pulse and miscellaneous grains are included.

Banking on a modern system was first introduced into Chosen in 1878 when the Dai Ichi Ginko of Tokyo established a branch office at Fusan. Later on, the Juhachi Ginko of Nagasaki opened branches at Jinsen and Gensan. After the China-Japan War these banks opened their branches in Keijo and other centers, while two native banks, the Chon-il (later renamed the Chosen Commercial) and the Hansong, came into being in Keijo.

In 1902 the Dai Ichi Ginko was authorized to issue bank notes for circulation within Chosen. In 1906, to promote economic development in the provinces, agricultural and industrial banks were formed in several of the principal towns, the Government taking shares in them or granting them loans free of interest, and in the same year a third native bank called the Han-il was founded in Keijo.

In 1909 the Bank of Chosen capitalized at ¥10,000,000 was founded in Keijo as a de jure central institution, and to

It was transferred all the functions belonging to a central bank hitherto performed by the Dai Ichi Ginko. After the Annexation the bank was renamed the Bank of Chosen and branches were opened by it one after another in important places. Nor was its sphere of activity confined to the peninsula, for many branches were opened in Manchuria where it enjoyed free circulation of its notes, and its activity even penetrated North China and East Siberia. The Bank also made loans to China, and opened an agency in New York with a view to facilitating exchange operations and to utilizing the American money market for the development of Chosen and Manchuria. Stimulated by the steady expansion of its business, the Bank increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 in 1918, and to ¥80,000,000 in 1920, while authority was given to increase its maximum limit of note issue as occasion demanded; but owing to continued business depression the Bank suffered severe losses and was compelled in 1925 to reduce its

capital by one-half. A decision was taken in 1944 to bring up the capitalization to the old sum.

Since then, encouraged by the economic development in general, and especially influenced by the war-time boom, many local banks were established in the country. During this time, however, the agricultural and industrial banks in existence were found much too weak to cope with the increasing demand for funds, their capital all told being only ¥2,600,000, so in 1918 they were all merged into the Industrial Bank of Chosen under special Government protection, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, which has since been increased to ¥40,000,000.

CONDITIONS OF BANKS IN CHOSEN

(In ¥1,000)

	1934	1939	1943
Capital subscribed	100,675	127,175	—
Capital paid-in	61,731	79,431	107,206
Reserve funds	22,673	36,931	—
Deposits	567,754	1,550,586	2,038,235
Loans	1,047,339	1,915,778	2,561,718

The banking institution which is utilized most by the native people is the Post Office Savings Bank. In 1921 there were about one and a half million depositors at this bank, their aggregate deposits reaching ¥18,726,338. On March 31, 1940 the number of depositors increased to 6 millions, with the aggregate deposits expanding to ¥112,802,101. The following figures show the annual expansion:

P.O. DEPOSITS

March 31	Number of Depositors	Amount (yen)
1931	2,118,178	38,852,866
1932	2,283,871	41,432,670
1933	2,494,062	40,939,391
1934	2,840,656	44,807,154
1935	3,156,074	52,631,553
1936	3,571,237	54,820,710
1937	3,861,105	60,422,961
1938	4,247,123	68,303,285
1939	5,381,152	87,270,254
1940	6,066,378	112,802,101
1941 (Dec. 31)	9,354,321	157,164,000
1942 (")	8,410,071	201,648,000

Local Credit Associations Local credit associations were first organized in

The first clearing house was opened in 1910, and banks in Keijo became its members. Later additional clearing houses were established in Jinsen (Chemulpo) and other large commercial centers—the total number being nine at the present time.

In 1911 there were in Chosen 11 banks with 59 branches. The total aggregate capital was then ¥12,350,000, with total reserve funds amounting to ¥366,000 and the deposits totalling ¥18,335,000. At the end of 1939 the number of banks was 9, together with branch offices of 3 banks in Japan proper. The following gives a more detailed account of the 9 banks:

1907 by virtue of the Local Credit Association Regulations promulgated in the same year. The object of the organizations is to assist the Agricultural and Industrial Banks in the capacity of their auxiliaries, accommodate small Korean farmers with funds, and look after their interests in several other ways so as to ensure a healthy development of agriculture. Membership is confined to those who engage in agriculture, and each association is organized as a corporate juridical person. The Government endows each association with ¥10,000 as foundation fund or grants subsidy to encourage its development.

Principal business of the associations is to loan funds to the members, and store crops for them. In addition they distribute and loan seeds, seedlings, and fertilizers to their members, and also undertake consignment sales of products for the members.

At the end of June 1940, there were 723 associations with 2,036,434 members and an aggregate paid capital of ¥15,232,000. The progress of these associations is illustrated in the table below:

Year	Associations	Members	Paid-up Capital	Deposit (In ¥1,000)	Advance	Reserve Fund	Government Grant
1929-30	621	588,560	8,561	76,892	104,931	12,295	3,777
1930-31	622	606,813	9,010	80,128	123,368	13,131	3,777
1931-32	663	726,322	9,279	88,755	123,842	13,556	3,970
1932-33	674	831,805	9,362	103,752	127,832	14,316	4,027
1933-34	685	1,003,648	9,871	124,284	133,897	15,647	4,092
1934-35	692	1,178,769	10,580	139,417	150,107	17,779	4,132
1935-36	698	1,363,537	11,496	153,417	179,525	19,070	4,162
1936-37	709	1,563,391	12,462	162,355	228,464	20,809	4,217
1937-38	719	1,637,323	13,644	179,515	232,178	23,200	—
June 1939	723	1,793,616	14,477	244,652	271,029	28,860	—
" 1940	723	2,036,434	15,323	323,625	342,278	32,864	—

Agriculture

Chosen, though mountainous, is essentially an agricultural country. In 1939, more than 72 per cent of its entire population was engaged in agricultural pursuits. Though the soil is not very fertile, it is sufficiently so to produce enough foodstuffs to support its entire population.

In 1910, the year of annexation, the value of production scarcely reached ¥250,000,000, but in 1939 it reached ¥1,644,401,479.

Grains In 1910 the rice fields covered a total area of 1,350,000 cho, yielding 10,400,000 koku, which rose in 1941 to 1,645,877 cho and 24,885,642 koku. This wonderful development has been achieved by the improvement made in cultivation, in the selection of seeds and manure, and in irrigation and reclamation. Next in importance come barley, wheat and rye, which are, however, mostly cultivated for home consumption. In almost every province these grains are raised in the paddy fields, after the rice crop is harvested, production of these in 1940 being 6,883,162, 2,078,230 and 3,441,914 koku respectively. Owing to the help in various ways given by the authorities to aid in the cultivation of these three cereals, their production has been on the increase year after year. Third in importance comes soya bean. In earlier times it was far from being an important produce owing to ignorance on the part of native farmers of the proper method of preparation, such as drying and assorting. It is now, however, in high esteem on the Japanese market where there is a demand for it not only as food, but for chemical and industrial purposes, and thus the amount exported to Japan is yearly on the increase. In 1940 the total area under cultivation was

665,499.6 cho and the amount produced reached 3,266,000 koku. German millet is for most Chosenese what rice is for the Japanese people. They depend more upon it than upon rice on account of its cheapness in price. The Chosenese farmers sell their rice, but use their millet crops for their daily diet, so that the supply of the grain hardly suffices to meet the entire demands of the Korean people. In 1940, the native production of the grain reached 4,261,000 koku.

Cotton Cotton is another important agricultural produce in modern Chosen. The present scale of its growth is owing to the encouragement given by the Government-General. It was in 1906 that the first trial plantation of American cotton was carried out in the neighborhood of Morpo. As its superiority over the old native cotton was sufficiently demonstrated, soon its cultivation was vigorously encouraged in all parts of southern Chosen, so that the cotton acreage was increased from 1,200 cho in 1910 to 270,174.4 cho in 1940, and the crop expanded from 660,000 kin in 1910 to 180,223,000 kin in 1940. If the production of the native plant is added, the total cotton production in 1940 amounted to 186,841,000 kin from the total area of 293,477.3 cho, as against 21,000,000 kin from 60,000 cho, in 1910.

Fruit Farming Fruit farming has also become a thriving industry of the erstwhile hermit kingdom. Soil and climate alike are suitable, especially for the growing of apples, and the Government authorities are extending their assistance in this direction likewise, with the object of improving the quality of the fruit and gaining for it a world-wide market.

Many new varieties of apples, super-

lor to the old native ones, are now cultivated, the quality being in some cases better than that of the fruit grown in Japan. The value of fruits produced in 1939 reached ¥21,467,325, including apples, pears, grapes, peaches, persimmons, etc.

Sericulture By 1910 the Government-General had done everything in its power to improve the native methods of cultivating the mulberry trees and raising silk-worms after the Japanese fashion. In 1919 a new system was instituted for carrying on a compulsory examination of egg-cards and for giving adequate care to the growing of good mulberry trees. All this paternal care and effort on the part of the Government-General for the advancement of the economic welfare of the Korean farmer was by no means thrown away. In 1910 the cocoon production was 14,000 koku and the number of households engaged in the work was figured at 76,000. In 1940 the number of households was 1,529,626 and the output was 22,713,127 kg. The production of raw silk amounted to 598,668 kan valued at ¥43,227,644 in 1939.

Stock Farming As Korean beef is very palatable, the demand for it is rapidly increasing in Japan and Manchoukuo as well as in Siberia. In 1910 the cattle in all Chosen numbered only 700,000 head, which in 1941 increased to 1,753,556. The export of cattle and hides totals ¥14,350,000 a year. The raising of both pigs and poultry has been greatly encouraged by importing from Japan animals and birds of superior quality, with the result that in 1941 the former totalled 1,327,042 and the latter 6,284,992, both more than doubling the numbers found in 1910. Sheep were unknown in the old days in Chosen. Efforts were made since 1919 to raise them but the results were not satisfactory. Since, however, it is of great importance to make Japan self-sufficient in respect to supply of wool, a new plan for encouragement of sheep was formed in 1934. Carriedale, which is suited to the climate and soil of Chosen, has been decided upon as the kind to be raised in Chosen. Subvention will be given to private undertakings, and the national sheep breeding grazing ground has been located at Ama, Melsen county of North

Kankyo Province. In 1939 the number of sheep reached 37,957.

Conditions of Farm Households. In 1941, the total number of the farming households in Chosen was 3,071,000, consisting of 548,274 landed ones, 723,345 semi-landed, 1,647,388 tenanted, 59,339 "fire field," and 92,654 hired; divided into nationalities as 3,061,374 Chosenese households, 6,455 Japanese and 3,171 Manchoukuoan, Chinese and European. The type and size of farm households in Chosen vary to a large extent. The average size of farm land is about one cho six tan (about four acres), which is larger than the average in Japan proper where the size is just over one cho (2½ acres). However, in Chosen, due to poor methods of cultivation, the yield per tan is only slightly over one koku (5 bushels) while it is two koku in Japan. Supplementary products are as yet hardly worth mentioning. The large ownership of farm land by a few landlords is one of the roots of the difficulties. The majority of farming population have to hand over a greater portion of crops as interest at rates ranging from 3% to 4% per month on borrowed foodstuffs or money in addition to farm rent which is also high.

A farmer working one cho eight tan is regarded as a fairly good farmer in the central or southern Chosen. His annual cash income is, however, as small as ¥100. A farmer less favorably fared obtains ¥48 per year. Majority of farmers are in similar conditions and they form a poverty-stricken community.

Expenditure is always greater than income, as is shown in the table below. The farm household generally suffers from shortage of foodstuffs. It will be seen that deficit is ridiculously small but even a shortage of ¥10 or ¥20 is a great burden to a petty farmer who is altogether unable to make out any plan for covering it.

Eighty per cent of the farming community may be regarded as having debts, bearing interest at 3% or 4% per month.

A Korean farmer works from 70 to 100 days a year while a farmer in Japan works from 200 to 250 days. The margin of difference is too great and might be made good use of by Korean farmers.

CONDITIONS OF REPRESENTATIVE KOREAN FARMERS

Name of farmer	A.—	B.—	C.—
	Number of family	6 persons	5 persons
" capable of work	2.9 "	2.1 "	2.4 "
Kind of farming	Partly landed	Tenant	Tenant
Area of cultivated land	1 cho 8 tan (4½ acres)	1 cho 2 tan (3 acres)	8 tan (2 acres)
Cash income per year	¥ 98.50	¥ 52.70	¥ 48.40
Expenditure " "	¥121.70	¥ 69.60	¥ 59.20
Deficit " "	¥ 23.20	¥ 16.90	¥ 10.80
Debts " "	¥130.00	¥ 49.00	¥ 52.00
Shortage of foodstuffs	8 "to" of unhulled rice	1 koku of rice	1 koku of unhulled rice
	2 "to" of millet	3 to of millet	6 to of hulled rice 4 to of millet
Number of days open for further work	290	260	240

At the end of 1941 the total cultivated area was 4,489,536 chobu (a chobu=2.45 acres) including watered field 1,769,572 chobu, upland 2,719,965 chobu and "fire field" (farm land in the mountains) 399,014 chobu. This total area represents about 20 per cent of the total area of Chosen. The average area of farm land for each household is 1.44 chobu. It is larger than in Japan proper, but the productive power of land is much less.

Rural Revival To alleviate the severe agricultural depression, the Government-General devised a plan in 1932 for recovery of the farm through the effort of farmers themselves. The results have so far been good and farmers regained hope. With improved economic conditions the relation between the Chosenese and Japanese became more harmonious, the industry more active and living conditions of farmers as a whole improved. The concrete result of the plan has been that 4,695 villages comprising over 120,000 households have enlisted in the movement.

Measures Taken for Improvement of Condition of Farmers

Since 1912 steps have been taken to prevent possession of large estates by individuals. Uncultivated state-owned lands were leased to farmers who were willing to personally cultivate it and if the land were properly reclaimed it was given to them gratis. These measures were taken with a view to increase the number of independent farmers.

Tenant farmers, of course, predominate and form the bulk of the farmers. Their lives are miserable, and they have been driven into poverty, by their landlords and their agents. In view of this

fact ordinances were put in force in 1920 with a special reference to the method of payment of rent. The ordinances were revised in 1928. In the new ordinances provisions were made for lease contract, farm rent payment, transport of crop, payment of taxes, improvement of yield, supervision of landlords' agents, etc. In 1932 regulations on mediation on tenancy disputes which had as their aim quick settlement of such disputes and lowering of the cost of law suits through simplification of the procedure were issued. Finally in 1934 the Chosen Farmland Ordinance was promulgated by which the safety of tenure of a tenant farmer and the right of his family or heirs were ensured. In accordance with provisions in the Ordinance local tenancy committees settle all questions regarding matters on tenancy, and actions of agents of landlords are subjected to control. This ordinance provides for: (1) the appointment and dismissal of "Saom," or landlord's agent to obviate abuses these agents make of their power; (2) term of lease; which has been made three years at the minimum for ordinary crops and seven years for perennial crops like mulberry, fruit, China grass, paper mulberry, etc.; (3) inheritance of privileges and liabilities of the lease by heirs of a tenant; (4) protection of the landlord against sub-lease; (5) payment of farm rent; and reduction of its payment on its postponement in case of crop failure; (6) appointment of tenancy committee and its duties, etc. The Ordinance was put in force on October 20, 1934.

Agricultural experimental stations have been established with staffs of experts and their assistants. Many model

villages have been selected and they are shown to farmers in other villages as models. Many young men have been trained also to get the best out of their farms and to employ their own time most profitably.

Special agricultural courses are now given in common schools to infuse love of work in the mind of young people. Lastly the widespread self-help movement for the improvement of agriculture has been launched to make farmers endeavor to improve their conditions on their own account.

The native farmers are still obliged to sell their produce during harvest time on account of poverty and the lack of warehouses. Large quantities of Chosenese rice are exported to Japan proper in a rush for the period of four or five months after harvest. The Government-General established agricultural warehouses to aid the producers from selling their crops at harvest time, to encourage them to wait for more favorable prices, and to stabilize the exportation of rice. In 1930 the warehouse plan was enlarged, and in addition to the agricultural warehouses in places of production, export warehouses were established at the ports. At the end of August 1940, there were 67 agricultural warehouses and 13 export warehouses with a capacity of 1,285,804 koku and 2,447,911 koku respectively. It is hoped that these warehouses will be instrumental in safeguarding the interests of the rice producers, and in regulating the export.

Forestry

At the end of 1939 the area of forests in Chosen covered 16,313,194 cho which corresponds with 73 per cent of the entire area of the land. But there existed before 1910 nothing like a forestry policy in Chosen, and except a few protected ones, all forests were allowed to be devastated by ignorant and superstitious people. Therefore, before 1910 nearly all the mountains in Chosen were treeless. As a matter of fact, only one-third of the so-called "forest" areas was covered with standing trees, the remaining two-thirds being only thinly wooded, although in the basins of the northern rivers, the spruce, birch, larch, etc., are to be found, and in those of the central and southern part the red and black pine, oak, alder, bamboo, etc.

In 1940, the total value of forestry production reached ¥236,874,000.

Fisheries

Since 1910 all sorts of encouragement have been given to the Chosenese fishermen for the development of the fishery industry in Chosen, with the result that improvements in one way or another have been introduced in the building of fishing-boats and in the method of catching. Thus, while before 1910 the total value of catches was only about ¥8,000,000 a year, by 1939 it increased to ¥151,098,000, and other aquatic products in the meantime advanced from ¥2,650,000 to ¥167,916,692. The first fishery law in Chosen was issued in 1909, and this was replaced three years later by a new law providing for the definite establishment of fishing rights over a certain area of waters, the prohibition of certain actions harmful to fishing in specified areas and the prevention of individual monopolization of any fishing area. Trawling within special zones was also prohibited, and certain restrictions were made to the number of whaling-boats and to the diving apparatus carried. Mention should be made in this connection of famous "hahyo" (woman divers) of Quelpart Island. There are 7,000 of these women and they are engaged in catching sea-ears and many kinds of shellfish, and gathering laver and other sea-weeds by diving into the deep sea. The total earnings of these women amount to one million yen a year.

The following shows the marine catches in value:

Kind	(In yen)	
	1938	1941
Mackerel	5,816,872	7,546,000
Sardine	22,862,512	8,017,000
Selaena	5,289,537	—
Herring	2,064,616	6,045,000
Hair-tail	3,045,297	—
Shrimps	2,095,407	1,219,000
Mintal (Alaska pollack)	10,237,994	41,781,000

Besides these, there are sea-bream, plaice, cod, Isinglass, yellow-tail, glue, shark, grey, mullet, rays, oyster, sea-eel, conger-eel, etc., valued each at between ¥500,000 and ¥2,000,000. The important manufactures of sea products in 1939 were sardine-oil ¥34,181,266, sardine-cake ¥36,896,245, dried mintal ¥22,152,572, fish-meal ¥16,579,721, and dried laver ¥7,633,732.

Mining

The present mining law, enacted in 1916, provides that mining rights can be granted only to Japanese citizens or to legal corporations under the Japanese law, and mining rights are treated as a form of real estate. As for mining rights secured by foreign citizens under the old régime, they are well respected. Of all minerals produced in Chosen gold occupies by far the most important position, the largest gold mine being the Unsan Mine operated by an American syndicate called the Oriental Consolidated Mining Company. Next in importance are the Shojo Mine worked by Frenchmen, the Sulan Mine by Englishmen, and Sansel and Koyo Mines by Japanese. Formerly the mining industry in Chosen was carried on in a very primitive way except in those mines operated by foreign concerns. Soon after Chosen had been brought under Japanese protectorate rule in 1906 the Government tried hard to induce Japanese capitalists to invest capital in the mining industry of Chosen, but it was only in 1910 that Japanese capitalists began to display their energies in that lucrative undertaking. As, however, most of the more promising gold fields were already under operation by foreign capitalists, Japanese capitalists turned their attention to the exploita-

tion of other minerals such as iron and coal. Iron ores in Chosen hitherto found were mostly of hematite and limonite, the former being found in South Kankyo and Kokai provinces and the mixture of the two in South Helan and Kokai provinces. The amount of these ores stored, the purity of which is about 50 per cent, is estimated at about 20,000,000 metric tons. In 1933 about 570,000 metric tons of these ores were mined, of which about 394,000 metric tons were sent to the Kenjiho Iron Works and the balance of 176,000 metric tons to Japan proper. Fortunately a much greater store of magnesite ores is found in North Kankyo province. The purity of these magnesite ores is about 40 per cent on average.

As regards coal, almost unlimited quantity of brown and anthracite coals are stored in Chosen, the quantity of the latter stored being especially large. Anthracite is mostly produced in the Heijo coal-field, and in South Kankyo, North Keisho and South Zenra provinces.

It must be mentioned that in Chosen nearly all kinds of minerals except sulphur, petroleum and asphalt are found in appreciable quantities, gold, coal, and iron preponderating. The following shows the value of the mineral products of Chosen:

MINERAL PRODUCTION

(In ¥1,000)

	1911	1921	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Gold	3,744	2,992	17,809	26,066	33,214	38,320	49,909
Pig iron	—	4,819	4,114	5,605	7,722	7,321	7,866
Coal	388	3,192	5,970	7,205	9,940	11,925	13,300
Iron ore	421	1,716	749	1,287	1,123	1,279	1,429
Copper	—	17	307	417	933	1,535	3,272
Gold and silver ore	262	584	944	1,906	2,511	6,502	9,373
Graphite	153	208	255	465	524	1,207	1,010
Placer gold	821	359	1,823	3,327	5,323	7,136	9,443
Silver	6	4	552	721	1,468	2,558	2,830
Lead	—	—	64	120	306	388	793
Tungsten ore	—	—	29	117	734	1,388	2,293
Zinc ore	21	4	—	97	85	80	240
Steel	—	—	—	—	4,178	6,764	6,533
Others	21	374	487	961	1,111	1,636	2,212
Total	6,069	15,767	33,746	48,301	69,172	88,039	110,503

Note:—The publication of figures has ceased since 1937. The total amount of mineral production in 1937 was valued at ¥150,000,000.

Manufacturing Industry

It is only since 1916 that there has been any manufacturing industry worthy of the name in Chosen, and in 1939 the total value of manufactures reached ¥1,189,716,551, being over 38 times as large as that in 1911, in which year the total output was valued at ¥30,000,000. As the land has abundance of materials and a good labor supply, Chosen may be looked upon as a promising land for the future expansion of various industries. In 1911 there were in all the land only 252 manufacturing plants employing about 14,575 workers, but in 1940 the number of factories was 7,142 and the total number of employees 294,971.

Total of industrial production of Chosen for the year 1940 was as follows:

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION FOR 1940 (In ¥1,000)

Textile industry	232,178
Metallic industry	129,689
Machinery and tools	70,665
Ceramics	61,654
Chemical industry	699,442
Wood works	35,028
Printing and book binding	19,071
Gas and electric	—
Foodstuffs	373,404
Others	240,523
Total	1,873,634

Of the total 1,870 million yen in 1940, ¥380,000,000 was the production by the so-called household industries, outside factories managed by industrial companies or where more than five operatives are employed.

Justice and Police

Chosen has now a judicial system similar to that of Japan. That is to say, in addition to the supreme court there are courts of appeal and local courts, the last-named having detached and sub-detached courts widely located. Both civil and criminal cases are first tried by local courts, while appeals against the decisions of local courts are made to the courts of appeal. The supreme court handles those appeals made against judgments rendered by the local courts or complaints against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the courts of appeal. Grave crimes of one sort or another have greatly diminished owing to the improvement in the work of maintenance

of order and security. On the other hand, what might be called intellectual crimes such as fraud, forgery, and perjury have yearly increased. Prior to the establishment of the Japanese administration flogging was a common form of punishment. In 1912 its application to aged persons, women and children was prohibited, and in 1920 it was finally abolished as it was unsuited to modern ideas of penology. The number of persons kept in prisons was 17,546 at the end of July 1940.

Police The police service in Chosen had been under Japan's direction for some years even prior to the establishment of Japan's protectorate in 1906. But the system which had been in force at that period proved unsatisfactory. Accordingly, in June 1910, a new system was introduced by which the commander-in-chief of the military police was appointed chief of police, and gendarmes and civil policemen were separately stationed as local needs required. In 1919, however, that semi-militaristic police system was displaced by the one now in force. This new and present police system is modelled on that in Japan proper, with its headquarters entrusted with the entire administration of police and sanitary affairs. The police force in 1938 was 21,782.

Education

In the old days Korean children were taught in school nothing but Chinese writing and classics, but soon after the new régime was introduced they began to receive a more modern education, with such new subjects as arithmetic, geography and the Japanese language. The parents at first objected to the introduction of these revolutionary methods, and specially to the forcible teaching of the Japanese language, believing that this was a deliberate attempt on the part of the government to deprive the Chosenese children of their national and inherited traditions. It was due to this misconception held widely among Korean people that the educational authorities found much difficulty in enrolling pupils despite the fact that no tuition fee was charged and all textbooks were supplied to the pupils free of charge. In 1930 the Government-General, animated by a desire to respect the wishes of the native race and to foster Oriental morals developed by Confucius, reopened the old Meirongakuin (Confucian Insti-

tute) at the Keigakuin (formerly known to Korean as the "Songkyun Kwan"), the oldest and highest seat of learning in the country for the study of the Confucian classics.

Important Reforms But many more reforms of far-reaching importance were made in 1920, when the present educational system was introduced. By it not only was the standard of educational attainment raised, but the principle of equality was laid down firmly though no compulsory features were adopted with regard to elementary education as in Japan. The following differences, however, were made and are maintained out of respect for Chosenese sentiment.

(1) The Korean language is made an obligatory subject in schools for Chosenese children exclusively, while it is optional in schools for Japanese children in Chosen.

(2) The teaching of Korean history and geography is to be particularly emphasized in schools for Chosenese children.

(3) Different text-books, though of an equal standard, may be used in view

of the difference of language and customs of the two races. That is to say, schools for Japanese children may use text-books compiled by the Education Ministry of Japan, but schools for Korean children those compiled at the Education Bureau of the Government-General. Koreans are mostly educated in common schools, higher common schools and girls' common schools. The term of the common school is six years while that of the higher and girls' higher common schools is two years. Korean children who prefer to receive education at the Japanese school may enter the elementary or the middle school as they chose. The system proved very efficacious in developing the education in Chosen. With the gradual increase of elementary schools more teachers, especially women, are in demand; therefore in April 1935 the Keijo Women's Normal School was established, and the training course at the Keijo Normal School was closed.

The table below shows clearly the development of educational work in Chosen since 1938:

	1938		Faculty	1942	
	Schools	Students		Schools	Students
Kindergartens	337	21,104	—	—	—
Elementary schools	3,226	1,143,362	23,515	3,510	1,607,810
Short course elementary schools	1,145	76,192	—	—	—
Middle schools	50	25,822	1,345	64	33,118
Girls' high schools	54	20,716	866	68	27,011
Vocational schools	77	22,331	1,765	105	37,280
Vocational continuation schools	135	7,413	513	137	10,699
Normal schools	8	4,959	364	12	8,170
Colleges	15	4,373	814	20	6,565
University	1	501	781	1	789
Total	5,043	1,327,287	—	—	—

Christian mission and other private schools are included in this table.

There are still a large number of Sohtang, which are old fashioned Chinese style schools where Chinese classics and brush-writing are taught. At the end of March 1940, the number was 4,686 with 164,507 pupils. These schools are now utilized by the Government as agencies to foster public education and are controlled by regulations on Sohtang.

Korean Students in Japan The Korean students in Japan proper numbered 13,273 in October 1940, most of them being in Tokyo. * Those sent

by the Government-General are comparatively few. The students sent by the Government-General are not only supplied with necessary funds by the Government during the period they stay in the colleges to which they have been sent, but are after graduation given official or educational positions.

Reform in 1938 In view of the advance of Korean education in recent years and the advisability of raising the position of the educated Chosenese to the same standard as the Japanese, the Government-General of Chosen

made a general revision of the Chosen Education Law in March 1938, according to which all the people in Chosen, Korean and Japanese alike, are educated in elementary and secondary schools just as in Japan proper, and the former differences in courses of study between Chosenese and Japanese were altogether wiped out.

Koreans for Defense Service

Chosen has been defended by the Chosen Army which solely consisted of the Japanese. But the China Affair gave Koreans an opportunity to show their loyalty to the Emperor. An Imperial Ordinance was promulgated in February 1938, according to which Koreans are allowed, for the first time, to enter military service as volunteers.

The Koreans are now conscripted into the Imperial Army and Navy beginning 1944.

Religion

Buddhism Buddhism first entered Chosen about 370 A.D. It was introduced from China by a priest who brought with him a Buddhist image and the "sacred books," and it flourished greatly in the peninsula during the days of Silla and Koryu. Under the dynasty of Yi, however, it met with persecution. The number of priests was limited and members of good families were forbidden to enter the priesthood, with the consequences that it soon lost its hold among the masses to a large extent. Things remained so until Japan extended her rule throughout the country. Then in September 1911, an ordinance on religions was promulgated giving freedom of preaching and full protection to temples, and also raising the status of the priesthood. Since then Buddhism has been revived to a marked extent, so that there were, at the end of 1939, 1,606 temples and preaching places, 6,662 monks and nuns and 198,200 Korean adherents. There are several native religions not recognized by the Government-General, among which the most influential one is the Tendokyo, which is a mixture of Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism. This religion has followers numbering 82,200. Apart from Korean Buddhism and allied sects, we find Japanese forms of Buddhism lately established in the peninsula, priests of the Shin sect being the pioneers. Later three others, Jodo, Soto and Nichiren sects, entered the

new religious field in competition with other sects and religions. At present nine sects of Japanese Buddhism are working among the resident Japanese as well as among the Korean masses, and at the end of 1939 there were 131 temples, 636 preaching houses, 802 priests, and 334,000 believers including 37,500 Koreans.

Shintolam At the end of 1939 there were in Chosen 53 Shinto shrines, while 11 Shinto sects had 305 preaching halls, 633 priests and 98,800 adherents including 20,400 Chosenese.

Christianity Christianity in Chosen was first brought by an official mission sent to Peking, China, by a Korean king in the latter half of the 18th century. This mission brought back with them a Bible and other Christian books. As its teaching, however, ran counter to the deep-rooted custom of ancient worship, King Seiso in 1784 issued an order prohibiting its preaching which was followed by a severe persecution. Though later occasionally the persecution was more or less relaxed, nothing for a time indicated a revival of Christianity. In 1833 a French missionary named Pierre Maubant came to Chosen to preach the Gospel. He was the first foreign missionary to tread the soil of the hermit kingdom. His energetic and devoted evangelistic work was not fruitless, but it alarmed the government officials, who in 1839 issued a prohibition edict. But it failed to suppress the spread of Christianity, and in 1863 there were as many as 18,000 converts. In 1866 the persecution against Korean converts was renewed with vigor, which cost the lives of 30,000 people. In 1882, however, freedom of worship was fully recognized in the country as a result of diplomatic pressure brought upon its Government, and in 1885 several American missionaries came to Chosen. This was the first time for Protestantism to be preached there, and it gained influence among the masses as time went on. When in 1900 Prince Ito, the foremost Japanese statesman at that time, was appointed first Resident-General, he pursued a policy of friendliness toward these foreign missionaries, this policy being pursued up to the present day under various Governors-General. There were, at the end of 1939, 5,289 preaching houses, 4,763 missionaries including 436 foreigners and 508,900 adherents in

cluding 6,400 Japanese, 502,200 Korean and 200 foreigners.

Communications and Transportation

Highways Highways existed in Chosen in olden times. The Peking highway, which was one of them, connected Peking with Gishu and Keijo, and through that way embassies were exchanged between the old Chosen and China. But in later years they were left in ruin. Under the Residency-General work for new ones was started with a sum of ¥1,500,000. As the first stage plan construction of four new lines aggregating 254.80 km. in four provinces was commenced in 1907, and in 1908 on another 196 km. highway in various provinces. In 1909 construction of three more highways totalling 188.16 km. in length was started, together with widening and readjusting works of streets in Keijo, Tai-kyu and Jinsen. In 1910 construction of 12 roads extending 164.64 km. in length was also commenced.

Since 1910 the Governor-General devised a plan to improve highway facilities

through a construction of 23 roads extending over 2,263.60 km. with a sum of ¥10,000,000. The work was to run for five years consecutively, beginning with the fiscal year 1911.

At the end of 1938, the total highways in Chosen extended 27,731 km., including 38 first class roads 3,236 km., 97 second class roads 9,976 km., and 516 third class roads 14,675 km.

Railways The construction of railways as a civilizing agency is being vigorously carried on in accordance with the 12 year program laid in 1927. The program covers the construction of a Tumen River line and four other lines totalling 1,384 kilometers and the purchase of five lines including the Zenshu-Riri Railway, totalling 339 kilometers. At the end of August 1940, the total government-owned railway kilometerage reached 4,293.3 kilometers in active operation, a portion of which run by the South Manchuria Railway Company. The following gives some idea of the development of railways run by the government:

	Length k.m.	Passengers	Freight (tons)	Receipts (yen)
1933	2,935	22,238,338	7,254,859	43,611,142
1934	3,078	25,614,000	7,681,000	51,148,000
1935	3,389	29,344,188	8,667,642	56,477,897
1936	3,575	33,708,178	9,980,227	65,036,058
1937	3,737	35,906,000	11,360,000	76,909,000
1938	3,831	—	—	95,133,000
1942	4,525	—	—	—

As for the private railway enterprises in Chosen, regulations were issued in 1912 so as to provide adequately for effective supervision and protection. In 1921 new regulations were issued by which increased state aid was extended to private railway undertakings. These have in consequence made rapid progress, and in 1938 their total mileage reached 1,252 kilometers operated by 10 companies, carried 11,418,000 passengers and 2,920,000 tons with the receipts of ¥10,268,000.

Bus At the end of June 1940, there were 150 persons engaged in bus business with business lines extending 30,546.7 km.

Navigation There were at the end of 1939, 1,943 steamships and 14,857 sailing boats with the total tonnage of 311,352 tons, their routes being interport, Chosen-Japan and Chosen-China-Russia.

The following table shows the progress in this method of transportation in recent years:

	Steamers		Sailing-boats	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
1931	202	52,302	745	24,778
1932	223	57,512	756	24,889
1933	235	57,020	796	26,573
1934	259	53,547	851	28,429
1935	270	64,641	10,502	134,386
1936	1,134	70,184	11,726	150,473
1937	1,398	100,014	13,154	169,355
1938	1,773	110,079	14,125	186,850
1939	1,943	118,391	14,857	192,901

Navigable Rivers The most important river in Chosen is perhaps the Yalu or Oryokko which, forming the boundary line between Chosen and Manchoukuo, rises in the Paktusan or "Everwhite" Mountains (2,744 m.) and empties into the Yellow Sea. Its length

is about 800 km. of which about 700 km. is navigable by air-propeller boats under governmental subsidy. Timber felled on the mountain slopes is made into rafts and floated down until it reaches the lumber-yards at Shingishu or Antung. Another river of importance is the River Daido which flows through Heijo and empties into the Yellow Sea in the neighborhood of Chinampo. The river is 400 km. long, navigable for a distance of 245 km. There are also four other rivers wide enough for navigation by sailing boats and motor boats. These are Rakuto (flowing into Chosen Channel) 344 km. (navigable course), Kanko (flowing into Yellow Sea) 300 km., Kinko 130 km., and Tumen 85 km.

Airways There are at present three airports established in Chosen. These ports are located at Urusan, Keijo and Heijo. Besides that in the following places ground marks are set up: Urusan, Kwokan, Talden, Tenan, Sharlin, Heijo, Teishu and Shingishu. Moreover, in Urusan and Keijo there are now built wireless stations for keeping in communication with the airways. At the airport of Urusan there is installed a meteorological observatory for forecasting weather conditions in the interests of air navigators. Most of the air traffic between Chosen and Japan is being done by planes belonging to the Dai-Nippon Airways Company.

Post, Telegraph and Telephone Prior to 1905 there were 516 postal offices in the peninsula. At the end of August 1940, they numbered 1,296 including 203 offices engaged for telegraph and telephone service exclusively. Number of mails accepted and delivered in 1939 amounted to 373,034,491 and 408,168,577, that of parcels to 3,802,939 and 5,016,834 and that of telegrams to 13,713,835 and 14,029,227 respectively. In November 1926, a Radio Broadcasting Office was

established in Keijo and opened to business in February 1927. Fusan Office was opened in 1935, Heijo Office in 1936 and Seishin Office in 1937. At the end of 1930 there were 167,049 subscribers.

Public Health

Prohibition of Opium Smoking Soon after its inauguration the Government-General made a serious effort to deal with opium-smoking. The habit of opium-smoking among the Korean people had been quite strong, specially among those in the frontier regions, many deaths resulting therefrom. The Government-General's drive for the abolition of this vicious habit was a thorough one. The following is the policy being pursued by the Government-General since 1929 in its effort to conquer the evil of opium-smoking:

1. Efforts shall be made to cure all morphine addicts within ten years.
2. All addicts shall be registered and a fixed quantity of morphine administered.
3. The Government-General shall monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine which is supplied to the registered addicts above mentioned.
4. Stricter control of morphine shall be enforced and no morphine be used by persons other than registered addicts, and heavier punishments be provided for smugglers and secret sellers of morphine.
5. Schools and other institutions of social culture shall educate the public in order to prevent the development of addicts and to assist the already cured to avoid relapse.

On March 3, 1930, the Government-General issued an order forcing all addicts to be registered and in 1935 the Ordinance of Control of Narcotics was issued the result of which was very good and the number of registered addicts was only 315 at the end of 1935 as against 3,278 in 1930.

CHAPTER XXXV

TAIWAN (FORMOSA)

General Description

Area and Topography Taiwan (Formosa) forms the westernmost part of the Japanese Empire. It is washed by the Pacific on the east, and is separated from China on the west by the Taiwan Straits and on the south from the Philippines by Bashi and Ballintang Channels. It extends from 111° 30' to 122° 06' E. longitude, and from 7° to 25° 38' N. latitude. The tropic of cancer bisects the island, which is about 394.28 km. long, its greatest width being 122.31 km. The Pescadores (Bokoto) and other outlying islands form a political division of the Taiwan Government-General. They cover 126.86 sq. km. The area of Taiwan, including the Pescadores, is 35,961.20 sq. km., being about 5.3 per cent of the total area of Japan, little smaller than Kyushu, and about one-sixth the size of Chosen (Korea). As regards its topography, Taiwan is an island which rises from the sea to a height of 3,950 meters, reached at the summit of Mount Nitaka (Mount Morrison). It consists of a mountain range with narrow valleys on both coasts which form the population centers. The valley on the west coast are the principal population centers.

Those on the east coast are little developed and capable of but slight further development. The rivers are not long and their current is very swift; in the rainy season they flood the surrounding country, causing much damage. The climate is semi-tropical. In summer the north is visited by rains; in winter the south. The temperature rarely falls below the freezing point.

The Inhabitants The territorial system of Taiwan was organized during five years, 1898 to 1902, by a large land-investigation enterprise made by the Government-General. The island is inhabited by Japanese, natives, Koreans and foreigners. The Japanese went there after the occupation of the island by Japan, and the foreigners are mostly Chinese (15,367 at the end of 1940). The number of Western people is small (115 at the end of 1940). The natives are mostly Mins from Fukien province and Cantonese from the China coast across the Taiwan Straits, composing 94 per cent of the total population. The aborigines consist of savages and semi-civilized tribes.

The following figures show the estimated number of Taiwan population at the end of each year:

	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Japanese	299,280	308,845	323,148	346,663	368,000
Koreans	1,985	1,903	2,260	2,299	(2,530)*
Honto-jin	5,261,404	5,392,800	5,524,990	5,682,233	5,673,000
Aborigines	—	—	—	158,000	159,000
Foreigners	46,373	43,405	45,466	46,190	48,000
Total	5,609,042	5,746,959	5,895,864	6,077,385	6,249,000

Note: (*) The figure is included in that for the Japanese.

Including the aborigines, the census population on October 1, 1940, in Taiwan was 5,872,084 (men, 2,970,655; women, 2,901,429), showing an increase of 2,832,333 over that at the end of 1905, when the first census results were announced.

The Climate Being in the semi-tropical zone, the summer time is long and the winter is short. The highest tem-

perature, however, is not very much higher than in Japan proper, but the weather is warmer during the winter time. Forest is very rare and water has been known to freeze over only twice since Taiwan came under Japanese rule. The island lies in the highway of typhoons, and is yearly visited by them, terrible damage being sometimes caused. During a 38-year period ending in

1934, Taiwan was hit by severe typhoons no less than 91 times; of these, as many as 7 occurred in the year 1914.

Typhoons originate generally in the offing northeast or east of Luzon Island of the Philippines, and cross the island or enter the Chinese mainland, passing the southern or northern extremity of the island. Taiwan forms a part of an earthquake zone connecting Kyushu, Okinawa Islands and the Philippines and naturally it is very often visited by seismic shocks. The number of earthquakes registered in the island or the neighboring seas during 28 years ending 1936, was 9,248, which means 330 a year or nearly one every day.

Administration System

When Taiwan came under Japan's rule in April 1895, the Japanese Government established the Taiwan Affairs Bureau in June of that year and then in August of the same year the Taiwan Government-General Act was promulgated in connection with the introduction of military administration. This was replaced by the civil administration in April of the following year. The Taiwan Government-General came under the supervision of the Minister for Overseas Affairs with the establishment of the Ministry in June 1929. The Governor-General invested with authority to require military assistance from the commanders of the army and navy in the territory under his jurisdiction, when he deems it necessary to do so for the maintenance of peace and order in Taiwan. If the Governor-General is either a soldier or a naval man, he is able simultaneously to assume the command of the Taiwan Army. The Governor-General also is invested with authority to supervise officials under him, promote them in rank, retire them from service, or recommend them for honors through the Minister for Overseas Affairs and the Premier, and to suspend or cancel orders and administrative measures of provincial governors under him, when such are deemed damaging to public interest or overstepping the sphere of their authority. He is assisted by the Vice-Governor-General. The Taiwan Government-General consists, besides the secretariat to the Governor-General, of seven bureaux, that is, the Home Affairs Bureau, Educational Affairs Bureau, Financial Affairs Bureau, Colonial Development Bureau, Rice Bureau, and Police Affairs

Bureau. There are also the Planning Department and the Foreign Affairs Department. The chief of general affairs, or civil governor, directors of the seven bureaux and many other officials are under the supervision of the Governor-General. There is an Advisory Council to the Governor-General, which serves as a very important organ for the administration of the island. Not only does it give advice to the Governor-General on laws or regulations but also on general important business. The members consist of Government-General officials and leading persons in private circles in the island. The provincial administration extends over 5 provinces, 3 districts, 11 cities and 51 counties. There are the same number of provincial governors, district superintendents, city administrators and county chiefs all under the Government-General.

Wartime Conditions Feeling more keenly than all others the pulsation of the current war, Taiwan has set out to arm itself. In fact the 6,000,000 islanders are sparing no effort today in turning the island into a veritable fortress in all respects. Since the outbreak of the current War of Greater East Asia, Taiwan has been playing an important role of serving as a relay supply base for facilitating the Imperial forces' operation in the Southern region. And it is for this reason that the march for the arming of the island was started by the people.

The Government-General of Taiwan adopted its draft formula providing for setting up of war structure for the island on August 5, 1944 and made it public on the same day. It calls for wartime mobilization of all human and material strength of the island in keeping with operation of the Army and Navy in the hope of perfecting the defense of the island.

What is to be noted in the formula is that it was the result of careful negotiations and cooperation among the Government-General of Taiwan, Commander of the Taiwan Army, and Commandant of the Naval Headquarters of Takao. Another characteristic is that provision is made whereby the leaders of the Army and Navy shall either as directors or in other capacity participate in the practical phases of the wartime administration.

Great importance is also attached to the preferential mobilization of men and

material for the defense purposes. With that purpose in view all Government offices and other national policy organs are to be remolded, while at the same time Defense Headquarters of the Government-General of Taiwan as well as Economic Mobilization Headquarters of the same has been established for carrying out a powerful, simplified and flexible wartime administration. Moreover, all business affairs of the Government-General are to be transferred to these two headquarters, while such business affairs of the Government-General and its government offices as have no connections with these two headquarters, are to be discontinued and the personnel who are consequently released are to be shifted to various fields of production or frontline work of the Local Governments of the island.

The Defense Headquarters of the Government-General of Taiwan is to have as its chief the vice-Governor and as its vice-chief the Director of the Police Affairs Bureau of the same, and it is their duties to devise and carry out such plans as have to do with the air defense, guard, or protection of people in conjunction with the Army and Navy. Within the headquarters are to be established three departments; defense, air defense and protection. All affairs under charge of both the Police Affairs Bureau of the Government-General are to be transferred to the headquarters and, moreover, the *Komln Hokokai* (Imperial Subjects Public Service Society), which resembles much the *Taisei Yokusankai* in Japan proper, Medical Department of the Taihoku Imperial University, Foodstuff Dealers' Association, Medical Research Laboratory for Tropical Diseases, Homestead Business Organization, or the Physicians' Association, et cetera are made to participate in the administration of such affairs. The operation of the headquarters is to be entrusted to its members including nine directors and thirteen members selected out of the Army and Navy forces as well as a number of leading men representing different circles of the people. And for the speedy and accurate disposal of the headquarters' affairs a number of councils are to be created.

The Economic Mobilization Headquarters of the Government-General of Taiwan has as its chief the vice-Governor, and his binding duty is to map out and enforce important measures for

turning into fighting force all available human and material power in the island in conjunction with the Army and Navy forces' plan. The headquarters is to be divided into six departments; raw materials, technical, national mobilization, financial, transportation, and necessities of life. All affairs pertaining to the various bureaux, departments, and sections, that have not been incorporated into the Defense Headquarters are to be placed under the direct control of this headquarters, while the different business organizations, control associations, national policy companies, or research institutes will participate in disposing of such affairs, and thus the headquarters is charged with the task of fulfilling its task as the economic artery of the warring structure of the island. As is the case with the Defense Headquarters the Economic Mobilization Headquarters is to be manned by a large number of directors and other officials to be selected out of the Army and Navy forces, so that close connections may be established between the Army and Navy and the headquarters. The councils will also be established within the headquarters as are the case with the Defense Headquarters.

The present wartime administration in Taiwan has for its purpose the establishment of closer relations between the Government-General and the people so as to remove the bottleneck which has hitherto attended wartime production, and at the same time to attain speed and mobility in the administration. Moreover, since a large number of the representatives of the Army and Navy, business and civilian organizations, control associations, or of the national policy companies are affiliated with both the Defense Headquarters and the Economic Mobilization Headquarters either as directors or members and attend the various meetings of the councils.

The councils are charged to investigate into the various bottlenecks attending production and devise appropriate measures for carrying them out.

Taiwan also decided to organize a unit corps in each respective field of work and locality. The purpose is to get the islanders, one and all, to line up for the war and defend their respective fields of work. Aent the concrete plan for organizing such corps, it provides not only for taking an emergency step to readjust and expand the police force, but also for completing auxiliary police

ing function by strengthening the guard-corps and mobilization of students. Besides, the following measures are being taken in connection with the plan:

1. Full utilization of the personnel requisition system and more appropriate distribution of labour power in parallel with it. At the same time those working in factories and work-shops are subject to discipline similar to the military discipline.
2. Organization of volunteer corps comprising mostly the members of the Hoko Sonendan (Patriotic Service Manhood Corps) and those of the young men's organizations.
3. Strengthening of mobilization, for production purposes, of students and women.

The Conscription System Ever since the island was annexed to Japan, civilization has been found paving its way into the island. The conscription law for the island was put into effect on September 1, 1944. It was in the Cabinet meeting held on September 23, 1943, that the decision that the system would be enforced and conscription of the islanders would be commenced from the year 1945 was made. Consonant with the above decision, a way was opened by the military authorities for the islanders to serve as military workers, interpreters, as well as nurses. And the services they have rendered so far on the battlefields really deserve commendation. When an enlistment call for volunteer nurses was announced by the military authorities in April, 1942, the number of girls of the island who responded to it totalled 6,000, whereas the required number was only 200.

Special volunteers' system was established in Taiwan by the Army in June, 1941 and the system was put into effect in the following year. The Government-General set the first year following the enforcement of the system for giving preliminary training to the volunteers and for that purpose set up training quarters at different localities. Patriotic young men of the island numbering 420,000 made a rush for these quarters in the hope of taking the training. In the following year, the number increased to 620,000.

In May, 1943, the Navy established the special volunteers' system in Taiwan as in Chosen, and announced the regulations governing the qualifications

of the applicants. As was in the case of the applicants for the Army's volunteers' system, the number of the applicants for the Navy's volunteers' system was also large, totalling 320,000 during the year following the establishment of the system.

With the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War the Government-General of Taiwan saw it advisable to organize a so-called "special labour service corps." Those who joined the corps immediately left their native island for the Southern regions, and since then have been rendering meritorious services on the frontlines in the Philippines, Malaya and other places.

Police and Judicature

The Police The Taiwan police consist of men appointed from among Japanese, natives and semi-civilized aborigines. Their services are divided into the ordinary services and aboriginal police service. At the end of 1940 the police force in Taiwan was 12,460, including all ranks. The police in aboriginal districts are re-enforced by police assistants appointed mostly from among natives. These are features of the police services of Taiwan. What is known as the tithing system of Taiwan provides a feature of peace preservation in the island. This system is of Chinese origin and was first adopted as an auxiliary to the police system in 1898. Owing to the satisfactory results attained, it also was extended to the lower grades of the administration in 1909. One tithing group consists of 100 houses and it looks after the peace of the group. In case these groups organize an association, the matter has to be sanctioned by provincial governors or district superintendents. Each group has its chief, who is elected and sanctioned by governor or superintendent. His duty is to maintain peace and order in his tithing district. Members of groups consist of men ranging from 17 to 50 years old and must be of good character. They offer their services free. The number of groups involved in the tithing system of Taiwan was 5,812 at the end of 1940. In July 1938 the economic police was created in order to enforce laws concerning economic control.

Special Police The aborigines in Taiwan numbered 158,321 at the end of 1940. Of the total, 62,753 are living in

the districts under ordinary police. The remaining 95,568 are savages still living in the mountains. The land of these savages extends over 16,166 square kilometers or about 44 per cent of the total area of the island. In order to keep peace and order in the savage part of the land and to help and educate the savages, a special police system is established, which is worked by 5,271 policemen, medical men and social workers. Protection and guidance are the main purposes of the special police, and there are established 180 schools, 42 medical offices, 195 small hospitals and 111 trading offices in the parts occupied by the savages.

The savages have been civilized with years, and the number of criminal cases was 293, including only 5 cases of killing in 1940, a decrease of 174 cases as compared with the preceding year. The aborigines keep guns as a household treasure. But they are persuaded to exchange the dangerous weapons with farming tools, and 1,350 rifles were voluntarily brought into the police offices in 1940, making a total of 37,588 during past 40 years. Since the commencement of the China Affair the aborigines have rendered services to the Imperial Army or made contributions in money amounting to ¥3,195 in 1940 to make a total of ¥22,333. They are instructed in the agricultural industry to get away from savage ways of living. In 1940 they had the harvested area of 3,918 ko for rice crop, besides raising cocoons, hemp, sugar canes, etc. They also raise livestock such as buffaloes, cattle, goats and pigs. Those who were in high mountains have been encouraged to move to fertile valleys for farming, and the number of the households thus migrated to low land reached 6,830 including 39,280 persons, by 1940.

Judicature The judicature of Taiwan consists of two grades of courts viz., the supreme court and five district courts, the latter having three branches and 38 offices in all—all under control of the Governor-General. The number of prisoners at the end of July 1941 was 5,031.

Religion and Education

Religion There are 59 Shinto shrines in Taiwan. The Taiwan Shrine is a first-rank Government shrine and is the

central shrine of worship for the Japanese people in the island. It is located in a suburb of Taihoku, the capital of the island, and is dedicated to Okuninushi, Oanamuchi and Sukunahikona, all legendary leaders of early Japanese race, and to His Imperial Highness General Prince Yoshihisa Kitashirakawa, who died in the island when commanding the Japanese expeditionary force in Taiwan during the Sino-Japanese War. Shintoism, Buddhism and Christianity have been propagated by the Japanese since 1895. Confucianism is observed among the natives and Chinese people in the island.

In 1940 the number of the native temples and shrines of Buddhism, Confucianism and Taoism was 3,635, and that of the native religious societies was 6,279. In regard to religious beliefs introduced by the Japanese, Buddhist sects had 111,601 adherents, sectarian Shintoism 33,909, and Christian denominations 58,798.

Education The continuous efforts of the Government-General have been rewarded to such an extent that the natives have been receiving education since 1922 together with Japanese in the classes of middle-school grade and in higher institutions, although the elementary education is still given both in the vernacular and Japanese languages. Besides numerous elementary schools, Taiwan had at the end of April 1941, 95 kindergartens, 19 middle schools, 19 girls' schools, 20 business schools of middle school grade, 6 normal schools, 4 colleges and 1 Imperial University. The Taihoku Imperial University was founded in March 1928. It consists of three departments, namely, literature and politics, physics and agriculture and medicine.

The rate of attendance to primary schools in 1940 was 85 per cent of the school age children, the enrollment numbering 12,086. Those who finished primary courses number 23,426 among the aborigines. Many of them advanced to secondary and higher educational institutions. In 1940 the trading offices handled the products of the aborigines valued at ¥1,069,947 shipped from and goods valued at ¥576,429 brought into the savage land. The number of cases treated by the medical service aggregated to 1,405,387 by the end of 1940.

The number of schools and pupils at the end of April 1941 was as follows:

	Schools	Teachers or Professors	Pupils or Students
Primary education	1,000	12,076	740,693
Normal schools (May)	6	225	{ Japanese 2,122 Natives 385
Business schools (agriculture, industry, commerce)	20	506	{ Japanese 4,372 Natives 5,100 Others 29
Business schools (Lower)	79	468	{ Boys 6,802 Girls 4,960
Colleges (technical, agricultural and commercial schools)	4	236	{ Japanese 1,141 Natives 244
Imperial University	1	*713	{ Japanese 267 Natives 76 Koreans 2
Schools for the blind and the mute	17	28	{ Japanese 30 Natives 324 Others 2
Miscellaneous secondary schools	11	161	{ Japanese 618 Natives 2,482 Others 14
Kindergartens	95	233	{ Japanese 2,546 Natives 5,796 Others 8
Total	1,273	15,652	800,180

There were in 1942 the following:

Higher school*	1	34	634
University preparatory division	1	20	326
Middle schools	21	437	13,228
Girls' schools	9	365	10,736

Note: (*) This is a 7-year course school.

Social Work

The Government-General of Taiwan early paid attention to promoting social works in the island and has given aids

to institutions and organizations. In March 1939 their number reached over 1,600, as detailed below.

NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS OR ORGANIZATIONS FOR SOCIAL WORK IN TAIWAN

(March 1940)

Branches of Work	Facilities or Organizations	Branches of Works	Facilities or Organizations
General organs		Relief	
Unifying and Investigation organs	10	Poor relief	274
Bloc Committees	244	For the sick and the dead on wayside	8
Organs for promotion	98	Relief in calamities	8

Note: (*) including administrative officials.

Branches of Works	Institutions or Organizations
Private military relief	8
Economic protection	
Employment exchange	5
Giving works	5
Lodging	16
Supply of dwelling houses	11
Public bath	88
Public market	244
Public pawnshop	16
Accommodation of small funds	5
Medical protection	
General medical service	64
Special medical service	14
Protection of children and women	
Orphanage	2
Protection and education of children	194
Reformatory instruction	1
Education of deformed children	315
Health consultation	8
Pleasure-ground for children	5
Midwifing	142
Special protection of women	1
Cultural work	
Temperance	3
Protection of discharged prisoners	170
Improvement of customs and manners	37
Settlement work	7
Personal consultation	25
Improvement of villages	1
Promotion of school attendance	19
Total	1,856

Medicine

At the end of 1940 the number of public and private hospitals in Taiwan was 298; physicians 2,401; dental surgeons 446; assistant practitioners 349; and midwives 2,026.

The number of pharmacists in public employment was 81, while pharmacists in private pharmacies numbered 170. The number of manufacturers of medicine was 26; pharmacies for modern medicine 333, those for Chinese medicine 1,836. Manufacturers of ready-made medicines numbered 859, while traders in those medicines numbered 6,596.

Agriculture

Agriculture is the most important industry of Taiwan. Since the island came under Japan's control, it has made a rapid development and the total farm

production in 1939 was worth ¥536,890,000, composing about 50 per cent of all the industrial production of the island. The area under cultivation in 1899 was 363,290 ko (one ko being 2,377 acres or 2,934 tsubo). It increased to 887,142 ko at the end of 1940, more than double that of 36 years ago. The cultivated land is more than 20 per cent of the island's total area. The area of cultivated land since 1931 has been as follows:

Year	Paddy Field (In 1,000 ko)	Dry Land	Total
1931	411	424	835
1932	439	400	839
1933	482	362	845
1934	463	388	851
1935	493	363	856
1936	533	338	872
1937	544	338	883
1938	534	341	884
1939	546	339	886
1940	548	341	887
1941	545	344	889

People engaged in agriculture are about 51 per cent of the total population. At the end of 1941 their number was 3,069,979 of whom tenant-farmers were 1,148,733, landed farmers 932,388 and landed tenant-farmers 988,858.

Rice Crops The climate is very well suited to rice cultivation especially in the western district, where crops are harvested twice a year. The production in 1940 was about 8,000,000 koku. Rice forms the chief of the three most important farm products of Taiwan, that is, rice, sugar cane and potatoes. Rice known as Hōrai rice is grown heavily in recent years. Its plantation area for 1941 totalled 666,989 ko and the crop amounted to 8,393,040 koku for two crops a year. The plantation area and rice crops since 1931 follow:

	Plantation Areas (In ko)	Crops (In koku)
1931	653,380	7,479,846
1932	684,928	8,949,216
1933	698,423	8,361,839
1934	687,664	9,088,886
1935	699,675	9,122,152
1936	702,685	9,558,390
1937	678,082	9,234,244
1938	644,793	9,816,899
1939	645,549	9,151,740
1940	658,427	7,901,492
1941	666,989	8,393,040

More than one half of the annual crop of rice is exported to Japan proper.

But, the acute situation in the distribution of staple provisions in Japan proper compelled the passage of a bill relating to the control of import of Taiwan rice into Japan proper at the 74th session of the Imperial Diet, and the law was put into force as from October 1, 1939, the main purpose of which is to control the export of Taiwan rice to Japan proper by prohibiting free export, the Government-General taking whole responsibility into its own hand.

Sweet Potatoes Sweet potatoes also are extensively produced almost everywhere and all through the year in the island. The chief producing centers are Tainan, Tainan and Takao provinces. Potatoes serve as fodder for cattle besides being used as ordinary foodstuff. Dried potatoes are shipped to Japan as material for producing alcohol and starch. The export value of dried potatoes for 1935 totalled ¥4,332,580 kin (one kin being 1.3 pounds), worth ¥1,290,529. The crop of sweet potatoes for 1902 amounted to 501,160,292 kin and the amount has been increasing yearly since. The 1940 crop totalled 2,822,290 koku. The plantation area of 63,147 ko for 1902 increased to 146,656 for 1941.

Tea Tea is one of the principal exports of Taiwan. The export totalled once as much as ¥11,500,000, though it has somewhat declined in recent years.

	Yielding Area (In ko)		Production (In koku)	
	1900	1941	1900	1941
Peanuts	11,958	25,558	120,838	440,441
Beans	11,365	—	50,281	—
Barley	1,479	1,835	11,460	5,576
Wheat	1,857	10,774	11,282	46,024
Sesame seeds	6,889	4,684	30,279	17,002
Jute	1,155	11,546	1,481,548(kin)	18,875
Hemp	1,654	1,840	1,022,063(kin)	1,356
Tobacco	240	—	363,900(kg.)	—
Oranges	752	—	4,725,000(kin)	—
	(1909)		(1909)	
Pineapples	—	246,318,000(trees)	—	130,076,000(pieces)
Lungyen	—	511,286(")	—	1,596,000(kin)

The export of raw pineapples for 1939 totalled ¥389,092 and that of canned pineapples ¥13,329,928.

Bananas are Taiwan's representative fruits. They are planted everywhere in the island, but are produced most heavily in Tainan province, where 52 per cent of the total production is obtained. They occupy the third position in the export list of the island, the first being rice

The tea production amounted to 20,808,765 kin (in plantation area of 28,308 ko) for 1902 and that for 1941 amounted to 19,167 koku (in the area of 46,152 ko). Tea plantation was introduced there by immigrants from China. In 1868 some amount of tea roughly made in Taiwan was exported to Amoy, where it was refined, but later the Taiwan producers, bringing tea operators from Amoy and Foochow, began to export refined tea, and in 1869 as much as 280,000 pounds of refined tea was exported to New York. This was the first export of Taiwan tea to America. Then tea production developed considerably year after year. Export tea is classified into varieties, viz., Oolong, Pouchong, green and black. Oolong and Pouchong teas are most abundantly produced; the former, appreciated by Americans, and the latter, preferred by the people of the South Sea Islands, is exported to Java and Thailand. Black tea is extending its markets, and, although not as good as Ceylon tea, it is better in quality than Japanese black tea.

Other Products Other agricultural products are peanuts, beans, wheat, sesame, lungyen, (otherwise known as "dragon's eye") and vegetables. The yielding areas and production of these farm products for 1941, as compared with those for 1900, follow:

and the second sugar. Bananas exported during 1940 totalled 2,692,359 baskets, one basket being 75 kin. In 1909 the plantation acreage was 560 ko with a crop of 10,536,062 kin, which increased in 1941 to 19,217 ko with a crop of 311,699,000 kin.

Taiwan's Useful Fiber Plants In the southern region trees and plants in general grow faster than in the north

where materials for fiber products have been sought up to now. The south in this way offers a great possibility as regards the source of fibrous goods. In Taiwan jute and flax are obtained in large quantities, while 1,000 metric tons of pineapple fiber, 2,500 tons of wild hemp-palm fiber are produced annually. Various sorts of bamboo are also used widely and the use is being made, meanwhile, of kapok, lotus, banana, castor, sugar cane, straw, miscanthus, sisal hemp and pampas grass fibers, as well as of paper mulberry and cotton. They are mostly for packing and wrapping as pulp and rope materials.

Live-stock The live-stock raising industry in Taiwan is flourishing. The number of cattle at the end of 1939 was 300,112 of which buffaloes numbered 266,136. Buffaloes play the most important rôle in agriculture. Hog-raising industry is widely maintained and hogs are kept by almost all native farmers. Their number at the end of 1940 was 1,204,983, having increased three-and-half times since the cession of the island to Japan. Poultry consists of chicken and geese, their total number at the end of 1941 being 7,930,809.

Sericulture It was in 1912 that sericulture was started in the island. Before that year no sericulture existed there. It took nearly 10 years before native farmers appreciated it as a sideline. This industry is becoming important among farmers. In the first year the cocoon crop amounted to only 84 koku and it increased to 30,163 kg. in 1941. One of the unique features of sericulture in Taiwan is that silkworms can be raised at any time of the year, since even during the winter-time mulberry leaves are grown. Moreover, no insect ravage is experienced in the island. The cost of production is scarcely half of that in Japan.

Sugar Industry

Taiwan is the center of the sugar industry of Japan. The industry has existed since the coming of the Han race to the island and, when the Dutch occupied the island in 1624, sugar had already become one of the staple products of the island. It has maintained the topmost position of Taiwan's industries. At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan the annual output was only about 80,000,000 kin, one kin being 1.323 pounds. Japan proper con-

sumed more than 300,000,000 kin of sugar, most of which had to be imported from abroad.

Dr. Nitobé's Plan Alive to this situation, the Taiwan Government-General concentrated its energy on the increased production of sugar by means of business improvement and expansion, and this has resulted in the present industrial prosperity. The late Dr. Inazo Nitobé was engaged by the Government-General to work out a sugar-industry development plan. He proposed several measures for industrial development, namely, the improvement of kinds of sugar cane and their cultivation, improvement of pressing and manufacturing methods, the application of artificial irrigation, increased land cultivation and expansion of sugar plantations, the establishment of sugar experimental stations, and the organization of sugar production guilds, as well as other measures. These formed the basic policy of the Taiwan sugar industry. The sugar encouragement regulations were issued in June 1902. According to these regulations, the Government-General would give a subsidy to sugar-cane planters or sugar manufacturers for cane plantation, fertilizers, cultivation, irrigation, and manufacturing machines, or, if necessary, implements will be lent or given. The subsidies given in this connection up to the end of the fiscal year of 1931-32 totalled ¥12,908,698. The Government-General is adopting a policy of reducing the subsidy with the progress of the sugar industry.

The following are figures showing the area of sugar plantations, cane crop and crop per ko (see "Japanese Weights and Measures") since 1930-31:

Sugar Plantation year	area (In ko)	Cane crop (In kin)	Crop per ko (In kin)
1930-31	99,094	10,944,669,505	110,447
1931-32	109,496	13,415,197,477	122,518
1932-33	83,690	8,782,001,849	104,835
1933-34	91,163	8,883,801,544	97,449
1934-35	121,028	13,477,260,178	110,807
1935-36	128,329	13,190,389,494	102,785
1936-37	124,555	14,271,874,413	114,583
1937-38	134,208	15,101,099,328	112,520
1938-39	149,834	19,602,120,652	130,825
1939-40	152,409	15,487,490,000	101,205
1940-41	174,292	16,628,466,000	95,404

Production of Sugar The sugar industry at the time of Japan's occupation

of Taiwan was very primitive. Out of about 1,100 sugar mills, not a single mill had adopted the modern mechanical method of manufacturing, and all of them used animal power. Owing to insufficient pressing power, a large percentage of sugar-substance was wasted during the manufacturing process and, moreover, the product was inferior. By 1938 there were only 62 mills of this kind, as the majority of them were gradually eliminated. The modernly-equipped mills have pressing capacity ranging from 300 to 3,000 tons a day and are able to produce in great quantity. The Taiwan Sugar Manufacturing Company founded in 1901 was the first of its kind. During the financial boom following the Russo-Japanese War many sugar-manufacturing concerns were

established, and Japan finally leaped into a prominent position among the world's sugar-producing countries. In the sugar year 1941 (Nov. 1941—Oct. 1942) there were 49 mills. Most of them produce crude sugar known as centrifugals. Some of them turn out white sugar by a change of milling operation. The aggregate amount of the authorized capital of sugar companies in 1927 was ¥290,000,000. It increased to ¥284,920,000 at the end of 1941, ¥217,112,000 paid up. The total production in 1902 was only 90,000,000 kin, but in 1927 it rose as high as 1,315,540,000 kin and further to 1,648,440,000 kin in 1932. It increased to 1,678,920,000 kin in 1937, and to the highest record of 2,364,550,976 kin in 1939, but decreased to 1,887,500,000 kin in 1940.

JOINT-STOCK SUGAR COMPANIES

(At the end of 1941)

Companies	Head Offices	Subscribed (In ¥1,000)	Paid-up	No. of Mills
Taiwan Sugar	Helto, Takao province	64,200	44,280	14
Meiji Sugar	Mato, Taiwan province	58,000	45,200	7
Dai Nippon	Sunamachi, Tokyo city	98,170	85,083	19
Ensulko Sugar	Shinel, Taiwan province	60,000	36,937	7
Taito Sugar	Taito	3,000	2,062	1
Sango Sugar	Nirinsho, Tainan province	3,550	3,550	1
Total		284,920	217,112	

YEARLY COMPARISON OF SUGAR PRODUCTION

(In kin)

Year (Nov.-Oct.)	Mechanically-operated Mills	Improved Mills	Primitive Mills	Total
1931	1,311,805,427	9,584,858	7,458,389	1,328,798,674
1932	1,628,731,287	11,240,564	8,441,111	1,648,415,962
1933	1,028,066,503	16,784,410	11,358,418	1,056,207,331
1934	1,057,338,553	7,869,235	13,197,643	1,078,405,431
1935	1,571,186,721	16,656,732	21,577,230	1,609,420,683
1936	1,467,586,586	17,336,027	17,875,478	1,502,798,091
1937	1,645,751,379	17,371,682	15,797,097	1,678,920,158
1938	1,610,925,338	22,435,302	16,906,172	1,650,266,812
1939	2,290,071,794	41,114,942	33,364,240	2,364,550,976
1940	—	—	—	1,887,500,000

Forestry and Afforestation

The surface of Taiwan is covered by mountains to the extent of almost two-thirds of its entire area, and the island is rich in thick forests of immense depth. Forest protection and afforestation are done on an approved

system by the Government-General. The great mountain ranges running north to south with numerous peaks provide vegetation peculiar to temperate as well as to tropical and sub-tropical regions. The most renowned of the natural forests of Taiwan are those on

the mountains in the central ranges, from Taibysan in the south to the peninsula of Koshun; those on famous Mt. Arisan; those on Mt. Rokujodalsan in the north; and those on Mt. Selran. Besides these, there are also extensive forests in the valleys of the River Daku-sui and in some districts of Karenko. The total forest area in Taiwan in 1937 was 2,496,749 ko, of which 2,215,314 ko were government owned forests. Building-timber, sleepers and other forest products turned out in 1939 amounted to ¥6,474,157. When the Portuguese first discovered the island, they were impressed with the immense expanse of forests and cried "Formosa!" signifying "beautiful." Reckless cutting of trees was done by Chinese immigrants and this, combined with the lack of adequate forest administration by the Manchu Dynasty, resulted in the devastation of forest districts. The Forest Bureau was established in 1915 and since then forest protection has been carried on in an approved manner by the Government-General.

Timber Industry The timber industry of the Arisan group is controlled by the Government-General. This famous mountain group is located east of Kagi in Tainan province and is on the Tropic of Cancer. It stands 9,240 feet high. It is covered with red cypress, Mongolian oak and hemlock. The former two kinds of wood are highly valued. There are many trees aged more than 3,000 years. Even the Imperial forest at Kiso in Nagano prefecture has few oaks of such great age. Timber used for the building of important shrines such as the Kashiwabara Shrine, dedicated to the memory of Jimmu Tenno, the first Emperor of Japan, the Imperial Mausolea at Momoyama for the Emperor Meiji and Empress Shoken, and the Meiji Shrine was grown on these mountains. The two great pillars constituting the torii of the Meiji Shrine are estimated to be 1,900 and 1,000 years old respectively. Both came from these mountains.

The lumber industry on Mt. Taihet near Rato town in Tainan province and Mt. Hassen in Shinchiku province is considered one of the most promising of all in the island.

Sales of lumber from these mountains totalled ¥1,245,554 in 1916; ¥4,327,821 in 1937; and ¥7,245,594 in 1940.

Taiwan wood is not only used for shrine and temple construction, but for building of warships and merchant-ships. Demand from naval arsenals and dockyards is yearly increasing. Taiwan wood is exported to Japan proper, Chosen, China, British India, South Africa, Australia and other places.

Aquatic Products

The seas about Taiwan are rich in various kinds of fish and shell-fish, and catches are especially abundant in spring and autumn. Fishing is to a great extent still conducted in a primitive manner. There are, however, now 56 fishing companies of which 2 have their head offices in Japan proper and the rest in the island with capitalization of ¥101,500,000 for the former and ¥6,401,000 for the latter. There were 101 fish markets in the island at the end of 1939, and the total fish sales there during the year amounted to ¥23,938,609 and showed an increase of ¥7,840,598. The Takao Fish Market led the list. The Taiwanese are a fish-eating people, but the annual catch is so great that a large quantity is exported to Japan proper and other countries. Taiwan's marine product trade for 1939 amounted to ¥25,927,114. Trade figures including exports abroad totalling ¥2,949,199, imports from abroad totalling ¥308,532, exports to Japan proper totalling ¥3,949,308 and imports from these districts totalling ¥18,720,075. The making of dried bonito is the largest marine products industry. The annual output of dried and canned marine products is worth about ¥2,500,000 a greater part of which is accounted for by the dried bonito production. The marine production of Taiwan follows: (In yen)

	Catches	Manufactures	Cultivated Fish Production	Total
1936	14,934,405	2,500,295	4,207,178	21,641,881
1937	14,513,106	2,324,009	4,545,292	21,382,407
1938	15,670,812	2,358,530	5,525,265	23,554,607
1939	25,183,328	3,328,138	6,582,465	35,093,931
1940	38,894,399	6,719,467	6,644,560	52,258,426
1941	87,193,000	6,945,000	9,884,000	54,024,000

Mineral Products

The principal mineral products of Taiwan are gold, silver, placer-gold, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, zinc, coal, petroleum, sulphur and phosphorus. The

mine-lots at the end of 1940, numbered 914 with a total area of 305,197,030 tsubo, one tsubo being six feet square. The mineral production during the past five years, 1933-1937, follows:

	1933	1934	1935 (In yen)	1936	1937
Gold	1,681,592	1,581,328	3,494,040	4,223,712	4,451,000
Gold-copper ores	3,709,157	3,773,194	3,995,854	5,881,080	7,214,000
Placer-gold	57,017	94,730	62,477	159,509	—
Silver	16,632	8,472	21,542	16,746	—
Copper	294,388	274,484	376,072	409,830	—
Gold ores	—	66,633	2,330,178	2,076,851	2,119,000
Quicksilver	—	—	—	—	—
Coal	6,571,195	7,681,089	9,868,193	11,364,943	15,014,000
Sulphur	37,148	62,075	65,553	87,034	—
Phosphorous ores	—	—	365	851	—
Petroleum	245,944	424,677	384,860	312,159	—
Gasolene	994,003	574,857	490,383	456,396	—
Carbon black	205,527	341,079	516,125	291,554	—
Others and total	13,950,888	14,196,250	22,838,751	28,726,978	36,223,000

Note: Figures for most of minerals are not published since 1937.

The Government-General conducted a mineral and geological investigation for eight years over the island following the introduction of civil administration in 1896. As a result, oil seepages were found almost all over the island. Subsidies were granted to those who had proper equipment for boring for oil to a depth of more than 2,000 feet. The subsidy was given from 1901 to 1924. It was then suspended, owing to financial reasons, but was resumed in 1930. Metal ores are found exclusively in the extreme north and the eastern district, coal in the northern and central parts and oil all over the island, especially in the central and southern districts. The mineral production in 1897 was only ¥112,000, but in 1907 it increased to ¥2,255,000, and in 1936 to as much as ¥15,196,250. Of this more than 50 per cent was coal, gold-copper ores 25 per cent; gasolene 4 per cent; gold 10 per cent; other minerals in smaller amounts in the following order: petroleum, carbon black, copper, placer-gold, gold ore, and sulphur.

Oil in Taiwan was discovered by a Chinese about 80 years ago at Shukotan, near the Koryu valley, over an area covering 599,670 tsubo. Since 1905, 71 oil wells have been sunk. Well No. 18 is the best of all. From 1913 to 1925 the oil output from this well totalled 53,205 koku, by the Nippon Sekyū Kal-

sha (Japan Oil Company, Ltd.). Owing, however, to the concentration of energy on the exploitation of the Kinsui Oil Field by the company, the output has gone off from the daily output of 300 koku. Lamp oil, gasolene, light oil and paraffin are manufactured from crude oil obtained here. The oil refinery is in Hyoritsu.

The production from the crude oil is gasolene, 5 per cent, lamp oil 85 per cent, heavy oil 8 per cent and wax.

The kinsui oil field is the most important one in Taiwan. It is operated by the Japan Oil Company. A government subsidy was paid to exploit wells No. 1 to No. 5. It took 11 years for well No. 5 to realize satisfactory results. Well No. 10 produced an enormous output of 30,000,000 cubic feet a day in March 1930, and a gasolene plant was installed there in November of the same year. When the capacity of the gasolene plants is fully developed, the daily output of gasolene will be 1,000 koku.

Industrial Productions

Prior to the World War, industries other than sugar and tea developed very little in the island. Since the War, however, chemical, spinning, machinery and other miscellaneous industries have developed to a considerable extent. The value of industrial products for 1940 was as follows:

	(In yen)
Spinning Industry	9,070,000
Hemp tissues	5,570,000
Metal Industry	31,290,000
Tin cans	3,620,000
Machinery Industry	24,000,000
Machine and tools	19,040,000
Food Industry (Including sugar)	382,260,000
Tea	22,300,000
Canned pineapples	20,850,000
Confectionaries	7,270,000
Macaroni, etc.	6,200,000
Chemical Industry	62,250,000
Mixed fertilizers	12,450,000
Paper	7,170,000
Oil cake	3,120,000
Kiln Industry	14,750,000
Cement	5,370,000
Bricks	4,220,000
Printing and Binding	8,030,000
Printing	7,830,000
Wood Works	7,850,000
Miscellaneous	31,210,000
Hats	3,650,000
Total	570,720,000

The total output of all kinds of industry for 1940 in yen was as follows:

Agriculture	551,826,343
Fisheries	35,088,930
Forestry	22,299,688
Manufacturing Industry	570,763,328
Total	1,179,978,289

Number and Capital of Companies

At the end of 1939 the total number of commercial and industrial companies in Taiwan was 1,641, with an aggregate amount of authorized capital of ¥779,127,486, of which ¥467,795,000 paid up.

NUMBER AND CAPITAL OF COMPANIES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO ENTERPRISE

(At the end of 1939)			
Branches of Industry	Number of Companies	Authorized Capital (In yen)	Percentage of Capital
Agriculture	86	51,568,120	6.6
Fisheries	18	18,157,500	2.3
Mining	23	27,500,500	3.5
Manufacturing	492	484,249,380	62.2
Commerce	647	169,980,186	21.8
Transportation	175	27,665,800	3.6
Total	1,641	779,127,486	100.0

Overseas Trade

The overseas trade of Taiwan, although it has experienced temporary set-backs from time to time, has made remarkable progress in recent years. The bulk of overseas trade is, however, with Japan proper, the rest being chiefly done with China, the United States, the Straits Settlements, the Dutch East Indies, the United Kingdom, Germany, British India, the Kwantung Territory and Hongkong. The trade is carried on principally through the four large ports of Keelung, Tamsui, Anping and Takao. As Keelung is the most important port of trade in the north, so is Takao in the south. The trade volume for 1898 amounted to ¥30,000,000 which increased to ¥50,000,000 in 1906, and, owing to the phenomenal growth of the sugar industry and import of sugar milling machinery, the amount went up to more than ¥100,000,000 in 1910. In 1917 the amount recorded a further gain to ¥234,000,000, due to active trade in sugar, alcohol and rice and heavy transit trade with China. Taiwan's overseas trade since 1935 is as follows:

TOTAL VALUE OF OVERSEAS TRADE (In yen)

	Exports Abroad and exports to Japan Proper and its Territories	Imports from Abroad and Japan Proper and its Territories	Total	Index (Normal Year, 1897)
	1935	305,744,673		
1936	387,948,978	292,685,948	680,634,926	2,178
1937	440,174,995	322,123,742	762,298,737	2,440
1938	456,453,837	366,659,192	823,113,029	2,635
1939	592,938,199	408,650,840	1,001,588,039	3,206

TAIWAN'S FOREIGN TRADE WITH THIRD COUNTRIES (In yen)

	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of Imports
1935	36,544,190	44,978,909	81,523,099	8,434,719
1936	29,053,980	48,854,419	77,908,399	19,800,439
1937	29,916,109	44,228,818	74,144,927	14,312,709
1938	36,349,923	38,709,142	75,059,065	2,359,219
1939	83,194,628	51,042,833	134,236,461	32,152,795

(Note: Kwantung, Manchoukuo and China included)

(Excess of exports)

Vital Role of Taiwan Takushoku Kaisha

Practically all industrial development operations within Taiwan today are planned and undertaken under the unified control of the Taiwan Takushoku Kabushiki Kaisha (Formosa Development Company). This concern, which functions as the nucleus of industrial, agricultural and colonial enterprises of the island, was created on November 25, 1936, under the provisions of the Taiwan Takushoku K. K. Law approved at the 69th special Diet session on June 3 of the same year.

Organization and Activities. Side by side with industrial development projects within Taiwan, the company also supervises extensive colonization enterprises and affiliated activities in South China and the South Sea region including French Indo-China, Thailand, the Philippines, Borneo, Celebes, Bali, Lombok, Java, Sumatra, the Andamans and Malai. With the head office in Taihoku, the company has thirteen main branch offices at Tokyo, Taihu, Tainan, Takao, Canton, Halow, Yulin, Hanoi, Saigon, Bangkok, Shonan, Djakarta and Macassar and 11 local branch offices at Shinchiku, Karenko, Taito, Kagi, Rato, Toyohara, Hongkong, Manila, Haiphong, Pa-

dang and Kuching. Principal activities of the company, as defined by the provisions of Imperial Ordinance, are as follows:

1. Agricultural, forestry, fishery and water-utilization projects necessary for colonial development operations.
2. Acquisition, management and disposition of land (and affiliated rights thereof) necessary for colonial development operations.
3. Management and supervision of land by governmental commission.
4. Immigration necessary for colonial developments.
5. Welfare activities for farmers, fishers or emigrants concerned; Purchase, treatment or sale of their productions.
6. Supply of industrial funds necessary for colonial developments.
7. Other undertakings affiliated to the foregoing projects or closely related to colonial development operations.

The Taiwan Takushoku Kabushiki Kaisha is capitalized at ¥60,000,000 with ¥52,500,000 paid-up at the end of 1943 business-year. Industrial investments by the company, aggregating ¥102,841,300 as at the close of 1942, are classified as follows:

Branches	Investments in Yen	Percentage in Total
Agriculture & Forestry (Real estate; colonization, farming, cultivation, forestry)	45,172,184	43.9%
Manufacturing Industry (Metals, ceramics, pulp, fibres, machinery & tools, chemicals, food-stuffs)	26,647,757	25.9%
Mining (Coal, iron, chrome, asbestos, apatite, petroleum, others)	16,134,280	15.5%
Livestock (Hainan Island and Taiwan Livestock Company)	2,934,908	2.9%
Communications (Automobile & Warehousing)	2,126,380	2.1%
Commerce & Trade (Investments in banana fibre and enterprises in Canton)	1,862,533	1.8%
Public works (Hainan Island)	1,668,027	1.6%
Fisheries	1,000,000	1.0%

Branches	Investments in Yen	Percentage in Total
Emigration	565,058	0.5%
Miscellaneous investments	4,730,300	4.6%
Total	102,841,300	100.0%

In addition to the afore-listed investments, the company has made enormous investments in industrial and other undertakings in the South Sea region.

Cultivation and afforestation are two of the most important undertakings of the company. Farms and forests under the management of the company throughout Taiwan cover a total area of 13,637 ko (one ko equals 2,934 tsubo or 2.4 acres) principally located in sharp slopes in mountain districts which in the past were neglected as waste land. By employing of immigrant labour the company has achieved an encouraging success in cultivating raw cotton, ramie, sweet potato, paulownia, Acacia richii. Already, more than 5,000 ko of waste land has been planted or cultivated while 213 ko afforested. The company is particularly showing keen interest in raw cotton cultivation which has been successfully undertaken by the Taiwan Raw Cotton Company, one of its many affiliates. The raw cotton concern has raw cotton plantations at Kagi and Shinko and gin houses at Kagi and Taito while it also manages a number of raw cotton enterprises in various parts of the southern regions. This raw cotton company, in addition to raw cotton production, also is engaged in manufacturing and marketing cotton-seed oil and other vegetable oils.

Marked progress also is being noted in the production of ramie, derris, tobacco, black tea, paddy-rice and sweet potato.

Paulownia, Acacia richii, natal bark and quinine are some of the cardinal items of afforestation operations by the development company. Paulownia, mostly native Taiwan paulownia, is furnishing a vital raw material for munitions production while Acacia richii and natal bark are proving valuable raw materials for tannin extraction. Quinine production is undertaken by the Hoshi Quinine Industrial Company, a ¥1,000,000 concern jointly financed by the development company and the Hoshi Pharmaceutical Company. The company also is exercising efforts towards self-sufficiency in fibrous materials within Taiwan by producing an excellent fibre from banana-trees.

Labor for various industrial and agricultural undertakings by the development company is being furnished largely through immigration. Immigrants from the Japanese mainland, under the guidance of the company, have successfully cultivated waste tracts in the western parts of the island into model farms. Native Formosan migrants are engaged in extensive farming and afforestation projects of the company in the eastern districts. Leaders for migrants and immigrants are being trained at the Farmers' Training Camp which was opened by the company at Shinko in 1942 where fundamental courses in agriculture are being given. Labor in Taiwan is also being furnished by Chinese immigrants who visit the island through the medium of the Chinese Workers Booking Station which the company manages at Keelung.

Rich forest resources throughout Taiwan are being positively exploited by the company through large-scale deforestation undertakings at Mt. Ari, Mt. Taihei and Mt. Hassen involving a combined area of 117,700 hectares of thick forest abounding in superior varieties of acerose trees and latifoliate trees. Preparations also are under way for gigantic deforestation projects at Mt. Suiran and Mt. Shikaba Taksan. The company manages railway lines extending over 227 kilometers and employs 2,344 rolling-stock including 67 engines, 30 passenger-cars and 2,247 freight-cars for transportation of lumber produced at the already developed three forest areas. A total of 2,460 employees of the company are engaged in lumbering enterprises involving a combined population of 9,874 at the three forest areas. Complete medical, educational and other welfare facilities including five primary schools under the direct supervision of the company take care of this "forest" population.

The company started production of chemicals from farm products in August, 1939. The growth of chemical industry under the company's management was so speedy and energetic that the company on March 1, 1943, established an independent company, capitalized at ¥20,000,000, to look after all chemical

enterprises. The chemical concern is jointly financed by the Dai Nippon Brewery Company.

Coal is the most important mineral product being developed by the development company in Taiwan. At present, the company manages six collieries covering 3,480,000 tsubo (one tsubo equals about 4 sq. yards) in Taihoku and Shinchiku Provinces. Asbestos production is undertaken by the Taiwan Asbestos Company, another subsidiary concern.

Production of rare elements is the newest branch of modern industry upon which the development company embarked in October, 1943 through the establishment of the Rare Elements Industrial Company, a new ¥1,000,000 subsidiary. The creation of this new concern was due to a bright prospect of rare elements industry based on a great success achieved in chemically treating zircon and monazite which are abundantly available within Taiwan. Salt, tannin extract, cement and caustic soda are some of the other important materials which the development company is engaged in manufacturing through its subsidiary concerns within the island.

Overseas Undertakings. The Formosa Development Company played an active part in reconstruction operations in South China in the course of the China Affair. Particularly noteworthy was the company's contribution to the reconstruction of the water-supply service in Canton after the occupation of this city by the Japanese forces. The company also reconstructed water supply facilities in Swatow.

The company's activities in South China are most extensive in the Hainan Island where the company has been engaged in agriculture, afforestation, stock-raising, transportation, refrigeration, public works and deforestation. By the close of 1943, the company's investments in various undertakings in the Hainan Island totalled ¥7,575,000 including ¥2,640,000 in agricultural and afforestation enterprises, ¥1,870,000 in transportation, ¥1,420,000 in public works and ¥330,000 in ice-manufacturing.

The Formosa Development Company plays a cardinal role in the life of Hongkong where the company, by the commission of the Hongkong Government-General, manages the city water-service,

exploits a tungsten mine twenty kilometers from Kowloon, cultivates rice, vegetables and fruits in the suburban districts.

The company's activities in French Indo-China are confined principally to mining fields as its investments in the past have been made exclusively in mineral products such as iron ore, manganese, apatite, chrome, lead, antimony and copper. The company, however, has not neglected other branches, as it has undertaken, since April, 1942, extensive test cultivation of rice, raw cotton, flax and hemp in promising districts throughout French Indo-China. In Thailand, the company is making a noteworthy progress in raw cotton raising by transplanting superior varieties from Taiwan. In Malai and Sumatra, the company is engaged in cultivating rice and raising live-stock while similar enterprises also are well in progress under the company's management in the South and Little Andamans.

Activities of the company in the East Indies are wide-ranged. In Djawa and the Lesser Sunda Islands, the company produces vegetable oils, manages rubber plantations, cultivates quinine and tapioca, raises live-stock and manufactures daily necessities. In Celebes, stock-raising, salt and raw cotton are the company's specialties. Its main lines in Borneo comprise Manila hemp, rice and raw materials for tannin extracts.

In the Philippines, the company specializes in cultivating hemp, raw cotton, castor-oil plants and rice and is also engaged in mining sulphur.

The Formosa Development Company administers these numerous enterprises in Taiwan and the South-Sea regions through the medium of 42 industrial, mining, trading and development companies including 16 direct subsidiary concerns, 9 semi-subsidiaries and 17 companies which it controls through investments.

Public Finance

The Bank of Taiwan is invested with authority to issue notes. This bank was founded in September 1899, replacing the Taiwan Agency of the Bank of Japan. The bank was capitalized at ¥5,000,000 when it was founded. After 1920 its capitalization was increased to ¥60,000,000, but in September 1925, it was cut to ¥45,000,000 and further to ¥15,000,000 in November 1927, due to its readjustment following the great

financial panic of the spring of 1927. The head office is in Taihoku and it has 31 branches and two agencies in Japan and abroad (see Chapter IX). The Japan Hypothec Bank maintains its real estate business in Taiwan and the outstanding balance of its loan in the island at the end of June 1941 amounted to ¥122,800,000. The aggregate capitalization of banks having their head offices in the island at the end of June 1941 was ¥43,300,000, of which ¥35,000,000 was paid up. The

balance of deposits at the end of June 1941 was ¥373,100,000 of which savings deposits totalled ¥39,120,000 and the outstanding balance of loans totalled ¥478,200,000. Exchange deals for the 1937-1939 fiscal year totalled ¥1,440,730,000 for income and ¥1,402,370,000 for payment. The average amount of note issue of the Bank of Taiwan at the end of June 1941 totalled ¥197,900,000.

Deposits in post offices amounted to ¥55,917,423 as outstanding at the end of March 1941.

DEPOSITS IN POST OFFICES

End of March	Number of Depositors	Increase (In percentage)	Deposits (In yen)	Increase over the previous year (In percentage)
1936	574,423	0.54	23,682,297	1.08
1937	604,373	0.52	25,925,162	0.95
1938	633,053	0.47	27,106,748	0.45
1939	905,321	4.30	34,838,764	2.85
1940	1,066,520	1.78	44,214,908	2.69
1941	1,239,409	1.39	55,917,423	2.09

Government-General Finance. The finance of the Taiwan Government-General has become independent from subsidization by the general accounts of the Central Government since the 1905-06 fiscal year, owing to favorable income following the Russo-Japanese War. In 1897 the revenue was about 11 million yen. In 1907, 10 years after the establishment of special accounts in Taiwan, the revenue increased to three times that amount; in 1917, after 10 more years, to six times; in 1927, to 12 times; in 1929 to 13 times the first figure. Revenue and Expenditure follow:

	Revenue (In yen)	Expenditure (In yen)
1943 (Budget)	445,882,105	445,882,105
1944 (")	607,901,020	607,901,020

Bonds. Expenses required for enterprises such as the railway construction, land investigation, Keelung harbor construction, building of government offices, river work, Takao harbor construction, and purchase of private railways were raised by bonds. The outstanding balance of bonds in 1900

Length (Kilometers)	Passengers	Freight (1,000 tons)	Receipts (¥1,000)
532	8,777	6,431	4,735

Communications

Communications in Taiwan are super-

vised by the communications department of the Communications and

was ¥3,200,000, which increased to ¥34,465,399 in 1910, ¥94,213,038 in 1925, ¥106,946,733 in 1927 and ¥126,380,958 at the end of 1937, while the estimated amount reached ¥166,800,000 at the end of 1941.

Monopolies. The products of Taiwan, opium, salt, camphor, tobacco, and saké are placed under monopoly of the Taiwan Government-General. The proceeds from the sale of these articles in 1940 amounted to over 90 million yen, representing 37 per cent of the total revenue of the Government, and including ¥2,278,541 of opium, ¥10,480,313 of camphor, ¥3,190,609 of salt, ¥35,530,719 of tobacco and ¥38,814,115 of saké and alcohol.

Railways

At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan there was a 62-mile railway between Keelung and Shinchiku. Railway construction was undertaken by the Government-General subsequently and now the total mileage is 902.1 km. The railway conditions were as follows in 1941 exclusive of small local lines:

Transportation Bureau. The number of post offices increased from 27 in 1896 to 198 in March 1941. General conditions of communications in Taiwan in recent years are shown in the following tables:

NUMBER OF GOVERNMENT OFFICES OF COMMUNICATIONS

Fiscal year	Office	Divided according to Business			
		Mail	Telegraph	Telephone Message	Telephone Exchange
1937-38	264	193	218	219	117
1938-39	267	194	219	222	120
1939-40	268	195	220	223	123
1940-41	231	198	—	—	—

VOLUME OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED

Fiscal year	Ordinary Mail		Increase or Decrease (In percentage)	
	Received	Delivered	Received	Despatched
1937-38	82,271,393	99,670,143	-1.03	-0.98
1938-39	81,835,710	101,711,030	-0.05	0.20
1939-40	90,594,195	113,849,283	1.07	1.19
1940-41	90,778,632	112,512,981	0.02	-0.11

Fiscal year	Parcel Post		Increase or Decrease (In percentage)	
	Received	Delivered	Received	Despatched
1937-38	783,049	1,309,129	0.78	0.53
1938-39	855,163	1,373,787	0.92	0.49
1939-40	971,110	1,386,280	1.56	0.09
1940-41	1,044,636	1,390,063	0.70	0.02

NUMBER OF TELEGRAMS HANDLED

Fiscal year	Despatch	Arrival	Total	Increase
				(In percentage)
1937-38	2,067,283	2,115,754	4,183,037	0.88
1938-39	2,102,253	2,197,425	4,299,678	0.28
1939-40	2,702,529	2,751,531	5,454,060	2.68
1940-41	3,019,875	3,045,551	6,065,426	1.00

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS

At the end of March	Number	Increase (In percentage)	Taiwanese in the total	
			Number	Increase (In percentage)
1938	18,674	0.82	6,192	0.53
1939	20,251	0.84	6,741	0.90
1940	21,933	0.83	7,256	0.76
1941	24,040	0.87	—	—

NUMBER OF RADIOS

Year	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Taihoku province	9,750	12,266	16,595	18,175	20,988	—
Shinchiku province	1,246	1,680	2,917	3,235	3,331	—
Taihu province	4,028	5,165	7,604	8,263	9,752	—
Tainan province	3,533	4,919	7,753	8,912	10,388	—
Takao province	2,107	3,180	4,822	5,507	6,436	—
Taito district	124	164	378	367	328	—
Karenko district	333	387	698	745	887	—
Boko district	76	80	152	195	235	—
Total	21,197	27,841	40,919	45,399	52,295	62,224

CHAPTER XXXVI

SOUTH SEA ISLANDS (Mandated)

Geographical Features

The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan, numbering over 1,400, with an aggregate area of 2,148,80 square kilometers, are the Mariana, Marshall and Caroline groups, between 131° 10' and 172° 10' of east longitude and between 1° 15' and 20° 32' of north latitude. The Hawaiian Islands are to the east; the Philippines and Celebes to the west; the Bonin Islands to the north, and New Guinea to the south.

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

So small are the individual islands in area that the premier ones, such as Ponape and Babelthusp, cover barely 369 square kilometers. Their topography differs according to geological conditions. The Marshalls, which are made up of coral reefs, rise only 1.5 or 2 meters above sea level, but the Marianas and Carolines, which are composed largely of volcanic rocks, have peaks rising as high as 758 meters and little level land. There are no navigable rivers, and in several places good roads are still lacking.

With the exception of Yap, practically all of the islands are composed of

volcanic rocks and coral reefs. There are three kinds of coral reefs, though no clear demarcation can be drawn; and the volcanic rocks are of two kinds, basalt and andesite, the former being found in Truk, Ponape and Kusale, of the Carolines, and the latter in Palau and Saipan. Everywhere in the islands, sea-birds nest and deposit phosphate, principally on Angaur, Peleliu, Togobel and Fals. The soil also contains some amount of phosphoric acid, which helps vegetables and trees to grow. The narrowness of each islet, the volcanic topography and the dearth of rainfall, however, are handicaps to agriculture.

Groups of Islands

The Marianas The Marianas, the northernmost part of the territory, consist of 14 islands covering 639 square kilometers. At the southern extremity is Saipan, the seat of the Saipan Branch Office, with jurisdiction over the whole of the Mariana archipelago. The Saipan group, 185.00 square kilometers in area, extends over 64.36 km. to the northeast of Guam and stretches 104.59 km. to the southwest. Being nearest to Japan proper, the group forms the gateway to the South Sea Islands. It not only enjoys favorable communication with the mainland of Japan, but is endowed with fertile soil adapted to the cultivation of sugar cane, which has drawn no small number of immigrants. Here the South Sea Islands Development Company engages in the refining of sugar.

The Carolines The Carolines, lying along the equator, are divided into the four administrative groups of Palau, Yap, Truk and Ponape. On the island of Corrol in the Palau group are located both the South Sea government and its Palau branch office. The number of isles under the jurisdiction of this branch office is 109, covering an area of 80.29 square kilometers. Babelthusp, commonly called the Main Island of the Palaus, has 370.37 square kilometers. Angaur, about 64.36 km. southwest of

Corrol, is called the treasure island of the archipelago, being buried under phosphate mounds. A regular steamship line connects it with Menado of Celebes and Davao of Mindanao, in the Philippine Islands. The Palau are not only the administrative pivot, but are important geographically.

The Yap group lies 418.31 km. to the northeast of Palau and consists of 85 islets covering 228.91 square kilometers and extending over 801.50 km. from north to east. The four main islands, with an area of 36.26 square kilometers, form the nerve center of communication as the submarine cables from different directions meet here. Here also is located the Yap branch office.

The Truk group lies 1,383.74 km. east of Yap, dotting the surface of the sea like a nebula. The Truk branch office, located on Natsu Island, controls 245 islets, which total in area only 124.16 square kilometers. As Natsu Island was formerly the seat of the German local government and later the headquarters of the Japanese defense corps for the entire mandated territory, it is fairly well known to the outside world.

The Ponape group is located 627.51 km. due east of Truk and consists of 138 islets covering more than 402.10 square kilometers. The island of Ponape, with 380.73 square kilometers in area, ranks first among all the islands of the territory. It is full of hills and is lacking in level land. Textile manufacturing and sugar refining were once started here by the Japanese, but later discontinued. Hope is still retained for some industrial undertaking, and a branch laboratory of the Industrial Experiment Station of the Islands was established here in 1925 to make trial plantings of rice and medical herbs.

The Marshalls The Marshalls are located 1,222.84 km. east of Ponape. At the southern tip is Jaluit, on which is located the Jaluit branch office, which has control over the main portion of the archipelago, 52 islets, made up of more than 800 coral reefs comprising an area of 150.94 square kilometers. The soil being quite suited to the growth of coconut palms, they flourish everywhere. The copra industry of the islands is chiefly dependent on the material produced in this group.

Atmospheric Conditions

All the islands being within the tropical zone, they have one season instead of the four of the temperate zone. Cool sea breezes sweep over them day and night, contributing much toward balancing the temperature, and the inhabitants are favored with a mild maritime climate rarely found in tropical countries and free from the danger of attack by venomous snakes, wild animals and miasma peculiar to the tropics.

There is an observatory established by the South Sea Government, where all sorts of atmospheric observations are conducted, and four hyetographical observatories. In addition, each branch office of the government has its own observation station. Thorough study of the insular climate is now being planned.

Atmospheric pressure in the neighborhood of Truk and Ponape is generally low; in the vicinity of the Carolines and western Marianas, it is high in February and March and low from October to December; in the eastern islets of the Carolines, high from May to September and low in other months. The temperature is about the same all over the islands and shows little change through the year, the highest in the daytime ranging from 29° to 31° C. It seldom rises above 31°, and the difference during 24 hours is only 4 or 5 degrees. Humidity averages 82% and rarely falls lower than 60%.

From November to April, the wind generally comes from between the east and northeast. This is the trade wind. From May to October, the direction differs according to the position of the islands. The velocity averages 5 meters in the Marianas, being weak in August and September and strong between October and February; in the western part of the Carolines, it is weak in April, May, June and September and strong in November, December, January, February and March.

The mean annual rainfall is more than 3,000 mm., and at Ponape it reaches even 4,000 mm. The rain comes in sudden torrents and passes away with the same suddenness. By this the unbearable tropic heat is greatly mitigated. The rainfall is greatest during July, August and September and least in January, February and March.

The Islands are, as it were, the hotbed of the typhoons that devastate Taiwan and Japan proper, but locally

the wind rarely gathers hurricane strength. If a typhoon does strike, it leaves the islands in a miserable condition, and the natives fear typhoons as they do their gods. When Ponape was struck in 1906, nearly all the coconut palms fell. Jaluit suffered in 1918 and Yap in 1920 and 1923.

A third tempest at Yap caused tidal waves to sweep over the coast, considerably damaging houses, woods and farms. A typhoon at Palau in May, 1927, swept away practically all dwellings in Peleliu and caused no small damage to other islets far and near.

History

The discovery of the islands dates back to the 16th century, when Spain and Portugal were vying with each other for discovery of untroubled soil in any corner of the world. As they are scattered and insignificant, not all of the groups were found at the same time. The Marianas were found first and the Carolines at about the same time, though exploration of the latter was neglected for a long time until about 1885, when the Marshalls were discovered.

Found by the Portuguese, the Marianas came into the possession of Spain. Toward the close of the 19th century, Germany took possession of the Marshalls and threatened to encroach on the Carolines, then under Spanish control. Spain protested, and arbitration by the Pope in 1886 terminated the dispute amicably, the whole of the Carolines remaining under Spanish rule. Assiduous efforts by the Spanish to exploit and govern the islands continued until 1899, when, financially straitened due to the war with the United States, they sold the Marianas and Carolines to Germany. The whole of the present South Sea Islands mandated by Japan was thus shifted to the possession of Germany. The German reign lasted until 1914, when a Japanese squadron occupied the islands, which were later juridically placed under Japanese mandate, following the conclusion of the Paris Peace Treaty and other relevant agreements.

German Administration It is generally agreed that the establishment of sovereignty over the Marianas and Carolines by Spain in 1886 and the complete domination by Germany of the Marshalls in 1885 should be made the

starting point in a historical study of the archipelagos. Until purchased by Germany, the Marianas and Carolines had no government worthy of mention, and nothing now remains to recall the Spanish administration except the defense work on Yap and Ponape and a few buildings standing here and there. After the transfer to Germany, a complete change was effected. In the manner of the British East India Company, Germany started the Jaluit Company shortly after acquiring the Marshalls. The Government took over the business in 1906, when the company's contract expired, and tried to put all the island industries under its monopoly. Thus Jaluit has naturally flourished as the business center of the territory, reinforced by communications with Singapore, Hongkong, Australia and the United States.

In looking back upon the German program in the South Sea Islands, we are struck above everything else with the largeness of its scale. A general government was first established in New Guinea, which sought to implant German authority in the Orient by embracing the numberless islets between New Guinea and Tsingtao. A step to this end was the laying in 1904 of a submarine cable connecting Yap with Shanghai, Guam and Menado, and in 1913 a radio telegraph station of gigantic size was erected on the same island. To make a scientific study of the South Sea Islands, the German Government dispatched a number of experts. One of their discoveries was phosphate, of which a deposit of 3,000,000 tons was found on Angaur. The German Phosphate Company, founded in Bremen in 1908, conducted mining operations until the Japanese occupation. Other deposits, though less valuable, were located at Peleliu, Togobel and Fais.

Germany exercised special efforts in diffusing culture among the natives, and to this end it dispatched no less than 100 missionaries, who opened churches in all the principal villages of the islands. The older natives still keep the German style of Roman letters to this day. Besides paying attention to educational advancement within the territory, the authorities sent men of talent to Tsingtao for further study.

Relations with Japan It is presumed that there must have been some early intercourse between Japan and

the archipelagos because of their geographical position, but there is no reliable evidence for it. The Japanese training cruiser *Ryujo* in 1884 touched at Kusale, an islet belonging to the Ponape group, where the chief of the natives enthusiastically welcomed the crew, declaring that his people were descendants of the Japanese race. In the same year, the Japanese Government, informed of the massacre of a Japanese on Rave Island, of the Marshalls, dispatched Taketaro Goto, who succeeded in settling the matter with the local chieftain. Early commercial relations were initiated by the South Island Company (Nanto Shokai), established at Ponape with the capital of ¥44,000, but its business was soon transferred to the Ichiya Shokai, which failed in 1895. In the year following the appearance of the Nanto Shokai, two other trading firms, the Kaitso Sha and Kosho Sha, came into existence; the former lasted only two years, but the latter carried on business until the Japanese occupation of the islands. The Hloki South Sea Trading Company was founded in 1893 with branches at Ponape, Truk, Saipan and Guam. Since amalgamation with the Murayama Shokai in 1906, it has been operating as the South Sea Trading Company and doing an extensive business.

Population

At the end of December 1940, the total population of the mandated territory was 135,708 comprising 51,106 natives, 84,478 Japanese and 124 foreigners. Of the natives, there are 46,893 Kanaka and 4,213 Chamorro. The Chamorro enjoy high birth rate, but the Kanaka scarcely maintain the status quo. Those within the jurisdiction of the Yap branch office show yearly decrease.

When Japan took over the archipelagos, there were only a few scores of Japanese dwellers. Gradually increasing, there are now 47,805 males and 33,206 females, most of them dwelling within the jurisdiction of the Saipan branch office and being engaged in agricultural pursuits.

When placed under Japanese control, the territory had a hundred Germans, mostly engaged in missionary work and commerce. After they left, there remained fewer than 20 foreigners, chiefly Americans and British. There

were, at the end of December 1940, 124 foreigners who are nearly all engaged in missionary service, coconut cultivation or the copra trade.

A census is taken every five years. The village officials and policemen also keep in constant touch with every change. As for Japanese settlers and foreigners, complete investigation is made in accordance with regulations. The first general census was taken in October 1920, when the first national census was taken in Japan proper, attended with great difficulties and at enormous expense. Subsequent census came in 1925, 1930, 1935 and 1940.

YEARLY INCREASE OF POPULATION

Period	Japanese	Native	Foreign	Total
1930	19,835	49,695	96	69,626
1933	30,670	50,114	100	80,884
1934	35,328	50,174	103	85,605
1935	47,412	51,056	97	98,565
1936	56,496	50,524	117	107,137
1937	62,305	50,849	123	113,277
1938	70,141	50,868	119	121,128
1939	77,257	51,723	124	129,104
1940	84,478	51,106	124	135,708

Tribes, Customs and Manners

Tribes Opinions differ as to the tribes residing in the mandated South Sea Islands. Some say that they immigrated from the Malay Peninsula, while others maintain that they are of the Polynesian stock. Though anthropologically named the Micronesian race, it is evident that they are a hybrid. Separate groups are clearly discernible, each with its own language and customs and manners. Roughly they are divided into the Kanaka and Chamorro. The former belong to the Micronesian race, and the latter are said to be of mixed White and Kanaka extraction, though other explanations are sometimes given.

The Chamorro are supposed to have settled first in Guam, later removing to the neighboring isles, and the fact that they now flourish largely in the Marianas, Yap and Palau seems to endorse the supposition. Though the tribe thrived fairly well under the Spanish régime, it has gradually dwindled, due mainly to massacres, until today it numbers only 4,213. The characteristic features are yellowish brown skin and black hair. The Chamorro, unlike the Kanaka, are industrious and mild in nature. Their mode of living is advanced, and some

even reside in foreign-style houses with modern improvements. Their present culture owes much to religious influences in the time of Spanish control.

Kanaka is the general term for the natives of the Pacific Islands. Most of those dwelling in the mandated islands belong to this group. They have dark brown or yellowish brown skin, black hair, heavy eyebrows and a big mouth. They are not hairy, and are simple and mild in nature. Though generally of medium stature, some are fairly tall. The Kanaka are cheerful in disposition, but extremely lazy. Their cultural standards are very low, and the mode of living lingers in the primitive stage. Of the total of 51,106 natives in the islands, those belonging to the Kanaka number 46,893.

Customs and Manners Because of the warm climate, it was originally the custom of the natives to wear nothing except a piece of cloth around the waist. Contact with advanced people, however, has brought a change, and some now use foreign clothing. In Saipan and the Marshalls, the natives are clad after the fashion of Europeans, but those in Ponape, Truk, Palau and especially Yap are almost stark naked. The natives are not indifferent to personal adornment. Tattooing is an outstanding example. The more complicated the tattoo marks and the larger the space they cover, the more respected is the owner. There is also the strange ornamentation of scars deliberately cut into the flesh, which has more influence in Ponape than in the other islands. The custom of driving a hole through the ear-lobe for an earring or other dangling ornaments has been becoming less common of late years, due principally to the diffusion of education.

The staple foods of the natives are fruits, fish and meat. Nature bountifully supplies coconuts and tubers, which are mainly relied on, and taro, bananas, pineapples, mangoes, lemons and oranges, all of which are used as subsidiary food. Under such circumstances, it is but natural that little attention is given to agriculture. Fishing has made but little advance, but the supply of beef and pork is fairly sufficient. Wine and tobacco are greatly sought after, though the use of the former is almost completely prohibited. The habit of chewing areca still prevails.

The structure and appearance of

dwellings vary in accordance with the cultural standard of each group of isles. In Saipan there is a street that looks like one in Europe, but in Yap one is reminded of how people lived in pre-historic ages. The dwellings in Truk and Jaluit are far inferior to those in Palau and Ponape, having not even floors. A general lack of windows leaves the interiors somber and damp. "All-men-houses" are found everywhere in the archipelagos, which serve as a sort of rendezvous for the male villagers or as inns for travellers. On Yap there are one or two houses to every village where women live when ailing.

Social Conditions

As the natives are not yet far removed from the primitive stage, their knowledge is very limited. They adhere to the traditions handed down from their forefathers and seem incapable of assimilating with any rapidity the cultural attainments of the outside world with which they come in contact. Only a few can count correctly. Yet they have been progressing in education since primary education has been introduced. Whatever their intellectual deficiencies, they are fit for manual work.

There are two main social classes, superior and common, and between them there are several transition levels. Every village has its own chief, at whose mercy formerly were the life and property of the villagers. Among the chiefs there used to be ceaseless fighting. Under the German administration, their powers were greatly diminished, and at present they collect taxes and transfer government orders besides attending to the welfare of the people.

As has already been said, their mode of living is very simple, requiring little clothing and no farming for food. They are content to live in any miserable structure which affords shelter from wind and rain. Save for a handful of Chamorro and a very small number of wealthy people, they live from hand to mouth in perfect contentment and have no thought of providing for posterity. They see no need of taxing their otherwise simple existence by using money. What money they obtain is invariably spent for such luxuries as soap, perfume, tobacco and canned food, for their daily necessities are freely provided by nature. Of late years, however, a desire to own coconut trees and

land has become discernible. They have aversion to anything that requires systematic labor. This is because they are little accustomed to it, there being no need for hard work where food is plentiful without it. In former times they were absorbed in subduing neighboring villages, but in recent years their barbaric temperament has greatly abated in consequence of appropriate measures taken toward this end by the Japanese Government.

Each group uses its own language or dialect, and there are many instances of different languages in a single group of islets. Between the main island of Yap and the islets within its orbit, there is no common language. Since Japan took charge of the educational work, Japanese has been taught, increasingly meeting the daily needs of the natives.

Administration

Following severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, the Japanese navy occupied in October 1914, the German territory of the South Sea Islands and established a military government. In December 1915, when military headquarters were instituted at Truk, the islands were divided into six administrative districts, each governed by a resident garrison commander. In June 1918, subsequent to the issuance of an Imperial Ordinance, a civil administration was created under the commander of the Provisional South Sea Defense Corps, and civil officials took over the functions formerly entrusted to the commanders.

Under the terms of the peace treaty concluded in January 1920, the islands were placed under Japanese mandate. Realizing the need of effecting fundamental renovation in the administration, the Japanese Government, upon withdrawing the troops, established the present Nanyo Cho, or South Sea Government, in April 1922. This was in accordance with an Imperial Ordinance of March 1922, parts of which were later revised in 1924, 1927, 1930 and 1935. The Governor, who presides over the entire administration, is under the control and supervision of the Minister for Greater East Asia. Communications affairs are supervised by the Communications Minister, and currency, banking and customs matters by the Finance Minister. In emergencies, however, the Governor is authorized to act upon his own discretion and if necessary to request the

commander of the naval station or the nearest responsible naval commander to take military action. The Government Office is composed of Governor's Secretariat and 2 Departments of Home Affairs and Development. The Governor's Secretariat is divided into 2 sections of Secretariat and Archives, the Department of Home Affairs into 6 sections of Local Affairs, Investigation, Finance Engineering, Tax and Police; and the Department for Development into 5 sections of Agriculture and Forestry, Commerce and Industry, Fisheries, Transportation and Communications. Under the government there are branch offices at Saipan, Yap, Palau, Truk, Ponape and Jaluit. All such general administrative business as census-taking, alms-giving, salvation, policing, hygiene, tax collection, education, religion, industry, engineering and harbor work are conducted by these local branches.

Besides the afore-mentioned, there are, under the control of the Governor, 34 elementary schools, 26 public schools, a woodwork training institute, a high court of justice with a public procurator's office, 3 local courts of justice, each with a public procurator's office, 1 industrial experimentation station with its two sub-stations, 7 hospitals, 1 mine, 11 post offices, 1 meteorological observatory and its 12 branches, 1 industrial school and 2 girls' high schools.

The branch offices are assisted by so-soncho, kucho, son-cho and joyaku, who are mostly native chiefs. Those in charge of the Kanaka are called so-soncho and son-cho, and those among the Chamorro are named kucho and joyaku. The so-soncho and kucho act under the control and instructions of the branch office to which they belong, and the son-cho and joyaku assist them. The duties entrusted to these officials are (1) thorough diffusion of knowledge of the law and regulations, (2) the making of applications and reports to the branch office, and (3) the conveyance of official instructions and their fulfilment.

Police Administration Under the Police Section of the government there is a branch section at each of the six branch offices of the government. In addition, there are a police officer's detached station at Tinian, another at Rota, assistant police inspector's detached stations at Kusale and Angaur and policemen's offices at 43 less important villages. The distribution of these

stations was determined more by special local conditions than by the density of population, for each branch office of the government has its own peculiar geographical and cultural conditions. On June 30, 1940, the number of police officials was 246.

The regulations for control of the islanders established in 1916 to guard against immigration of persons without property and criminals were amplified and revised in 1917 and 1925. Special consideration is given to firearms and gunpowder, the possession and use of which are strictly prohibited to the insular inhabitants. Beverages of more than 3 per cent alcoholic content are forbidden except for medical use and religious rites. The possession and consumption of dangerous narcotics, save for medical purposes, are prohibited. Other regulations cover game hunting, publications, social gatherings and the formation of associations, collection of donations, fisheries and the employment of geisha and waitresses.

Finance

The expenditure for insular administration had been met by the military special account until an independent ac-

count of the South Sea Government was established in March 1922. Since then the South Sea Government Special Account has been arranged and expenditures of the Government have been met by taxes, other revenues and the sum advanced from General Account. But its own revenue has increased so much that since 1932 the Islands have been receiving no budgetary assistance from Japan proper and have thus virtually become independent financially. The budgetary estimate for 1943-44 is ¥19,517,452.

Clearance charges on shipments, income tax and tobacco tax constitute the premier taxes. A poll tax not exceeding ¥10 was levied on every male native aged 16 or more and from ¥2 to ¥50 on Japanese and foreigners, but it was changed to a local tax to be collected by offices in the islands since 1938. Present taxes are the Income Tax, Corporation Profits Tax, Mining Tax, Tobacco Tax, Clearance Dues and Customs Duties. The revenue from these taxes represent 80 per cent of the total revenue of the South Sea Government. The financial conditions of the government are most encouraging as evidenced by the following table:

ACTUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE NANYO CHO

(In yen)

Fiscal Year	Revenue		Balance of the Previous Year	Total	Expenditure Total
	From Taxes and Enterprises	Aid from Tokyo Gov.			
1922	1,300,548	5,239,960	—	6,540,508	5,393,475
1935	6,571,582	—	2,704,533	9,276,115	5,825,649
1939	11,751,045	—	4,495,327	16,246,372	9,793,548
1940	12,746,911	—	6,452,824	19,199,735	11,114,342
1941	—	—	—	23,142,000	13,901,000
1942	—	—	—	18,934,000	17,116,000
1943	—	—	—	21,068,000	21,043,000

Land and Agriculture

All transactions in real estate owned by natives are subject to approval by the government, a practice initiated by the German administration to safeguard the interests of those whose concepts of property are rudimentary. Total acreage is put at 215,000 hectares, of which about 80,000 hectares are thought fit for coconut plantation and general farming. The land already cultivated is calculated at 54,200 hectares for paddy fields, dry lands, and coconut plantations,

leaving more than 27,500 hectares for future development. Engaged in agriculture are 0.5 per cent of the entire native population, viz., 2,412 natives and 21,210 Japanese at the end of 1940. There being little need of depending for their daily necessities upon farming, the agricultural technique of the natives is still in a primitive stage, but the rapid increase in the number of Japanese, who are setting good examples, will sooner or later bring about some improvement. Live-stock farming is also undeveloped,

though the natives raise cattle, hogs, goats, hens and ducks, the cattle for transportation and farming purposes and the hogs and hens for food.

Sugar-cane cultivation dates as far back as the beginning of the 16th century, but until the arrival of the Japanese there was no sugar refinery and the inhabitants ate the cane raw. The island of Saipan being found fully qualified in both climate and soil, there was established there by the Japanese a sugar industry, which has made a healthy development. From 20 hectares in 1916, cultivation increased to 455 hectares in 1919 and to 6,140 hectares in 1933. In 1940, the crop of sugar-cane amounted to 845,614,700 lbs. There were two companies, with eight factories, in 1919, but in view of the inadvisability of continuing business on so small a scale, the South Sea Development Company, Ltd., capitalized at ¥20,000,000, was established, taking over the Nishimura Colonial Company, Ltd., and purchasing the South Sea Industrial Company, Ltd. Factories of this company are now located on the islands of Saipan and Tinian, the two principal sources of the raw materials. Each has a pressing efficiency of 1,200 English tons, but completion of new factories in Tinian and Rota increased the capacity by 2,950 English tons. The total value of agricultural products in 1938 amounted to ¥5,528,216.

Industry

The lack of communication facilities greatly handicaps commercial and industrial advancement, and inadequate supplies of coal, water and iron impedes manufacturing. The natives have little purchasing power, and the Japanese settlers, numbering 47,000 and possessing superior purchasing power, are scattered all over the isles.

The value of the annual production of the principal industries for 1940 amounted to ¥30,901,731, of which the following are principal products:

Sugar	¥24,548,302
Syrup	1,795,336
Alcohol	1,179,424
Canned foods	782,378
Starch	547,508
Ice	284,914
Cocconut oil	172,906
Others	1,590,963
Total	30,901,731

Forestry

All of the islands may appear to casual travellers to have good forests, but inspection would disclose that most of the trees are of no practical use. The natives have been careless in removing timber and have disregarded the necessity of reforestation. The only trees receiving attention are the cocconut palms growing on the island coasts. But this does not mean that forestry enterprises are hopeless. Various kinds of useful trees are seen thriving among the bushes, and the natural benefits here are the very conditions required for the growth of plants.

The cocconut trees have long been depended on by the islanders for food, and practically every island is shaded by their long trunks and broad fronds of pinnate leaves. According to statistics for 1939, all the cocconut plantations total 31,000 hectares in area, and the copra produced therefrom amounted to 15,000 metric tons, valued at ¥1,732,000.

Fisheries

There are no records available of fisheries in the islands before the Japanese occupation. A few Japanese made a start shortly after 1914, but unfortunately they all failed, due principally to unpreparedness to cope with the peculiar geographical and climatic conditions of the region. Only recently have profitable undertakings been established. The lack of transportation facilities, the unique conditions and the limited island market make it imperative that the industry be reorganized.

Bonito, tunny, mackerel, sardine, horse-mackerel and shark are found in abundance in neighboring waters. In shallow waters near the coasts there are seen everywhere shoals of polychromatic small fish and all sorts of shellfish. The crocodile, hawk's-bill turtle and sponge of good quality are also plentiful.

The manufacturing side of the fishing industry is still in its infancy and is still limited to the drying of horse-mackerel, bonito and mackerel.

Bonito fishing has, however, advanced to a considerable extent. At present 135 motor boats are all engaged in bonito fishery: Catches of fishes in 1940 amounted to ¥4,887,026 in value. In addition, some pearls and sponges are cultivated, chiefly at Palau. The total value of fishes and shell-fishes caught in 1940 amounted to ¥6,178,729, while that

of canned and other manufactures amounted to ¥6,815,968. The grand total, therefore, amounted to ¥12,994,697 in 1940.

Mining

The only mining is for phosphate on the island of Angaur, south of the main island of the Palau group in the Carolines. The island is 15.54 square kilometers in area. The thickness of the phosphate deposit varies from about 3 meters to 7 meters, and the amount available was estimated in 1935 at 1,600,000 tons. For some time after the Japanese occupation of the territory, the mining was carried on by the Navy, but it is now an enterprise of the government. Yearly production is put at 60,000-90,000 tons. In addition to the superintendent, who is an expert, there were in 1935 five assistant experts, 16 clerks, 440 mine workers, 13 laborers and 5 other employees.

The production of phosphate rocks and the value since 1931 follow:

Year	Quantity in M.T.	Value in Yen
1931	60,203	1,125,769
1932	65,610	1,205,172
1933	70,336	1,308,840
1934	72,148	1,778,750
1935	74,841	1,775,460
1936	85,823	2,121,113
1937	134,098	3,533,606

Note: Figures are not made public since 1937.

Encouragement of Enterprises Encouragement and financial assistance are given to a number of undertakings, including truck farming; coffee-growing, which have been receiving subsidies since 1927; the breeding of cows, pigs and oxen; the growing of sugar-cane and the manufacture of sugar, which were subsidized to the extent of ¥11,830 in 1938; laundry, barber, shoe-repair and hotel businesses; the cultivation of pearls; and the preparation of dried bonito. As the raising of cocconut trees is recognized as one of the most promising industries in the islands, regulations were issued in 1922 stipulating that to those who seriously undertake the planting of cocconut palms a subsidy is to be given at a rate not exceeding ¥20 per 2½ acres of newly planted land and not exceeding ¥10 per 2½ acres of old cocconut groves put in order. Furthermore, the regulations were revised in 1931 to provide a subsidy of one-fourth of the cost of con-

structing factories for drying copra.

Since 1924, Saipan and Palau have held competitive fairs of the local agricultural produce and handmade articles, supported by the government. In addition, representative products of the islands are exhibited at various shows and exhibitions in Japan proper through the good offices of the government. The South Sea Government Products Museum was established and opened at the beginning of 1930 for the exhibition of all sorts of insular products and geographical and historic studies.

An official investigation is being made in places sparsely inhabited by the natives to see whether there is land for additional immigrants, and wherever land is found and designated suitable for colonization every care is taken to assure comforts for settlers. A survey made in October 1932, showed the existence of land for 393 families. Another investigation is seeking to distinguish lands owned by the government from those possessed by private citizens. Although no accurate figures are yet available, government-owned cocconut groves are estimated at about 3,200 hectares, with 676,000 trees. From these figures, however, it is difficult to calculate the approximate amount of copra obtainable, for some of the groves are unproductive. A comprehensive survey is in progress.

Experimental Stations The Industrial Experimental Station in the islands, where all kinds of experiments and investigations connected with agriculture and stock-breeding are conducted, utilizes farms totalling 145 acres. The Aquatic Products Experimental Station, initiated in 1931 under the control of the Colonial Section of the government, experiments, among other things, with the preservation of bonito and mackerel and the breeding of sponges, turtles and shellfish. Since the islands, though small in area, extend over vast expanse of sea, it was considered that the natural resources hidden therein deserved a careful investigation. Having found that small experiment boats would not serve for the purpose the Government has built a ship having a displacement of 183 tons with 360 h.p. This vessel is now engaged in investigation of the resources of the sea.

Trade

The staple exports are copra, sugar, dried bonito and alcohol, which account

for 96 per cent of all exports. As to imports, 61 per cent of the total consists of cereals and other provisions and drinks, tobacco, cotton textile and manufactures, clothing and fittings, metal goods, lumber and various wooden articles.

The open ports are Saipan, Palau, Angaur, Truk, Ponape and Jaluit. Almost the entire overseas trade of the archipelago is done with the Japanese mainland save for sundry goods exchanged between Saipan and Guam, and between Jaluit and the Gilbert Islands, and for a nominal amount of sugar from Hawaii and copra and sundry goods from Guam, the Gilbert Islands and Manila.

The total exports in 1938 were ¥46,923,180, of which exports to the Japanese mainland were ¥45,202,546. Among exports to Japan, sugar represented ¥24,852,111. The total imports in the same period were valued at ¥31,658,828, of which ¥29,213,319 were from Japan. With countries other than Japan, exports amounted to ¥1,660,634 and imports ¥1,445,509.

In 1939, the value of exports to foreign countries amounted to ¥3,451,000 and that of imports to ¥1,357,000.

Companies

In 1940, there were 53 companies in the islands with an aggregate paid-up capital of ¥75,077,817. Details follow:

NUMBER AND CAPITAL OF COMPANIES (1940)		
Business	Number	Paid-up Capital (In yen)
Agriculture and Forestry	14	7,385,000
Commerce	11	10,972,817
Transportation	5	1,586,000

NUMBER OF VARIOUS VEHICLES, Dec. 31, 1936

Branch office	Motor car	Motorcycle	Bicycle	Cart	Wagons	Others	Total
Saipan	159	25	9,351	11	3,242	—	12,788
Yap	1	4	131	9	5	—	150
Palau	30	23	2,270	58	13	—	2,394
Truk	7	3	416	22	2	—	450
Ponape	7	7	514	5	2	—	535
Jaluit	1	—	346	115	—	—	462
Total	205	62	13,028	220	3,264	—	16,779

Note: Publication of figures was ceased since 1937.

Fisheries	9	7,435,000
Mining and industry	12	32,376,000
Development	2	15,323,000
Total	53	75,077,817

Representative companies are the Nanyo Kohatsu Company and the South Sea Development Company. (See p. 972, the Japan Year Book, 1939-40.)

Transportation and Communications

There are no roads worthy of the name on the islands, though the Government realizes that they are the first requisite for industrial development. As large appropriations will be needed, their construction will have to wait for some years to come. Nor are there railways for public use. The short one at Angaur extending for 12 miles to the phosphate mine, and that at Saipan and Tinian which extends for 93 miles are exclusively used for the hauling of freight belonging to the South Sea Development Company.

Land transportation is now principally carried through the help of motor cars and other vehicles imported from Japan. The character of the roads, length of each and the number of vehicles are shown in the following tables:

EXTENSION OF ROADS, DEC. 31, 1937

Branch office	Width of Roads (In km.)			Total
	Less than 4 m	Less than 7 m	Over 7 m	
Saipan	39	104	28	171
Yap	—	118	—	118
Palau	66	35	6	107
Truk	64	2	—	67
Ponape	24	13	3	40
Jaluit	43	—	—	43
Total	236	272	38	546

Improvement of transportation facilities is now being concentrated on harbors. Generally speaking, the ports are favorable for mooring of steamers with displacements of 3,000 tons, but the long distance between vessels lying at anchor and the landing places, as well as coral rocks extending far into the sea, handicaps their healthful growth as modern commercial ports. The construction of modern harbors depends upon magnanimous appropriations and years of labor. The first real harbor, started in 1926 and completed in 1932 at a cost of more than ¥1,073,000, was at Saipan. In 1933-1935 an enlargement of the wharf was completed with an expenditure of ¥579,000. The third improvement plan which is to be completed within 6 years beginning with 1938 is now carried on. The estimated expenses will reach ¥1,870,000. A second project was launched in 1927 at Corrol, where, between the vessels at anchor and the landing place, lies a coral-reef. The work came to the completion after the expenditure of ¥106,092 in 1930, as the result of which the route has been reduced to one-third of what it used to be. A new wharf was constructed then with an expenditure of ¥84,000, and in 1934-35 another improvement work was completed. For the construction of the port of Palau ¥2,710,000 was appropriated for a 6-year plan beginning with 1936.

Shipping Routes Upon the creation of the South Sea Government, all government-controlled shipping routes were placed under the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, Ltd. The chief schedule for these lines in 1941 follows:

(1) **West Round Line:** Plying between Japan and the Philippines, the ships touch at Kobe, Osaka, Moji Sakido, Yokohama, Hachijo Islands, Futami, Naha, Saipan, Tinian, Rota, Yap, Palau, Anguar, Menado and Davao, making 37 voyages in a year.

(2) **East Round Line:** Plying between Kobe and Jaluit, the ships of the line call at Osaka, Moji, Sakido, Yokohama, Saipan, Rota, Palau, Truk, Ponape, Kusale and Jaluit, making 20 voyages yearly.

(3) **Saipan Line:** The ports of call are Kobe, Moji, Sakido, Yokohama, Keelung, Naha, Hachijo Islands, Futami, Saipan, Tinian, Rota, and Osaka, making 13 round-trips.

The number of vessels on these lines is 20.

Since 1938, the ships of the South Sea Marine Transportation Company are ordered to make 12 visits a year at Palau on their voyages between Japan and Java. At present, the Company's ship is making monthly visit to Palau on its way from Japan to Sumatra.

Shipping among the islands has been entrusted to the South Sea Trading Company, Ltd., which is subsidized by the Government. The services now available are: the Mariana line, connecting scattered islets within the Mariana Archipelago, available 12 times a year; the Yap, Palau, Truk and Ponape lines, each with 5 and 4 trips a year, and the Marshall line, which makes 20 trips a year. In addition there are Ponape, Truk and Palau lines. Five vessels are used, ranging from 195 to 340 tons.

Since 1938, a ship of the South Sea Development Company has been ordered to run between Palau, Yap, Truk and their islets.

During 1938, vessels that entered and cleared the 10 ports of the territory numbered 1,275 and 1,231 respectively—657 steamships and 574 sailing vessels clearing, and 658 steamships and 617 sailing vessels entering. The number of passengers landing and embarking were 65,083 and 29,697 respectively.

Airway In April 1939, an air route was opened by the Dai-Nippon Airways Company. Its seaplanes have plied twice a month, running from Yokohama to Saipan, 2,610 kilometers and from Saipan to Palau, 1,570 kilometers.

Communications All means of communication were placed under the control of the local government when it was established. The Communication Section thus takes care of (1) post, telegraph, telephone, exchange and deposit services, (2) postal insurances, and (3) sea-routes, vessels and nautical markings. There are 11 post offices, situated at Saipan, Jaluit, Tinian, Rota, Palau, Yap, Ponape, Truk, Kusale, Fais and Anguar. Each handles wireless messages. The cable and wireless lines now operated are as follows:

(1) Between Yap and Bonin Islands: dispatched by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(2) Between Yap and all except the Bonin Islands: dispatched on the sub-

marine cable through Naha, Ryukyu (Loochoo).

(3) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and Ryukyu and Taiwan: sent by submarine cable.

(4) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and the Bonin Islands: sent by the Chichijima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(5) Between the South Sea Islands and all outside points except the Bonin Islands, Taiwan and Ryukyu: dispatched by the Tokyo Wireless, relayed at Palau.

Telephone facilities are still limited, switch-boards being installed at only Palau and Saipan.

Judicial System

The judicial branch of the South Sea Government employs the double trial system, the court for the first trial being one of the Local Courts of Justice and for the second trial the High Court of Justice. To each court is attached a public procurator's office. In remote places, minor irregularities, both civil and criminal, are disposed of by the judgment of the branch office heads.

The South Sea Government's High Court of Justice is located in Palau. The Palau Local Court of Justice has jurisdiction in the Palau and Yap groups; the Saipan Local Court of Justice, in the Saipan group; and the Ponape Local Court of Justice, in the Ponape, Truk and Jaluit groups. In 1941 there were three judges, two procurators and four secretaries in the judicial system.

Most of the legal regulations are the same as those in Japan, but due consideration is given to the customs and conditions peculiar to the natives. Their civil affairs are handled quite independently of those settlers from outside; hereditary practices in land ownership are preserved, none but government officials being permitted to sell, purchase or mortgage their land; legal proceedings are made as simple as possible, and natives sentenced to less than one year of penal servitude may be subjected to labor instead of being sent to a prison.

Education

Besides 34 elementary schools for the Japanese, there are 26 for natives throughout the insular territory. Though education is not compulsory, schools are provided, clothing and food

being supplied in particular cases and pupils from remote places being received into dormitories. At the schools for native children, natives are employed as assistant instructors. The Japanese instructors must have the full qualifications of elementary school teachers in Japan proper.

There are schools for Japanese children in Saipan, Palau, Truk, Jaluit, Yap and Ponape, and where there is no nearby Japanese school, a Japanese class is attached to the native elementary school. The course of instruction covers six years, and the textbooks are the same as in Japan proper. The natives' elementary education takes three years, and after that they are free to study a supplementary course of two years. The lessons are about the same as those taught in the Japanese schools, save for the stress placed on ethics, calculation and the Japanese language. To teach carpentry, a special institute is attached to the Corrol Public School in Palau for natives.

With the object of popularizing education, a scholarship society was formed on the foundation of an Imperial donation of ¥2,000, in February 1924. The society is headed by the Governor, who, with the interest accruing to the original and yearly scholarship grants by the government, does everything possible to encourage deserving students. There is also the South Sea Islands Educational Society, headed by the Governor and with branches at the seats of branch offices of the government. Its sole object is elevation of the educational standard of the Islanders. On April 30, 1939 it had funds amounting to ¥27,988.

The elementary schools for the Japanese, according to statistics taken at the end of April 1941, have 257 instructors and 11,217 pupils including the continuation course. The schools for natives have 68 Japanese teachers and 27 native assistant teachers, 1,541 boys and 1,208 girls attending elementary school course, and 450 boys and 234 girls in the continuation course.

There are some private institutions, mostly kindergartens, for Japanese children. At the end of April 1941, kindergartens in Saipan, Yap, Palau, Truk and Ponape, had in all 24 teachers and 785 children.

As there were not very many Japanese children, no middle school was in

existence in the archipelago prior to 1933. But owing to the industrial development and the increase of Japanese residents, it became necessary to establish one, and in accordance with the prefectural ordinance of March 1933, an industrial school was established in the island of Saipan.

The South Seas Government enacted the Girls' High School Order in 1939, in view of increasing number of graduates of elementary school girls, and at the same time established the Saipan Girls' High School, and afterwards the Palau Girls' High School was established in 1941.

Religion

Among the native inhabitants there is no religion worthy of the name, but they have a sort of religion. Christianity was first introduced and propagated by Spaniards in 1666. A Jesuit missionary worked enthusiastically in Guam until banished in 1766 by Charles III and he is said to have initiated the Islanders into the methods of cultivating corn, tobacco, cocoa and potatoes.

CHURCHES, MISSIONARIES AND BELIEVERS, APRIL 1941

Religion	Catholic	Protestant	Buddhist	Tenrikyo	Total	
Churches	10	7	11	2	30	
Mission halls	37	76	2	—	115	
Preachers	12	10	16	2	40	
Inmates of Monasteries	14	20	—	—	34	
Native Preachers	23	82	—	—	105	
Believers	Japanese	140	10	53,779	130	54,059
	Foreign	13	5	—	—	13
	Native	20,984	21,179	50	1	42,214
	Total	21,023	21,189	53,829	131	96,280

The Charitable Society, founded on an Imperial donation of ¥1,000, was organized in May 1927, in commemoration of the demise of the late Emperor Taisho. It is financed by the interest accruing to the foundation and contributions, and its principal mission is salvation of the poor and afflicted. So far its main accomplishment has been caring for lepers, 68 of whom were accommodated in the fiscal year 1940 in 3 sanatoria.

Medical and Hygienic Services

In general, there are fewer malignant diseases in the islands than in other tropical lands. But the fact that most of them are coral reefs and small in area

in more recent times, an American missionary group gained influence, though it finally abandoned work in Ponape and Truk, as did a Protestant missionary group from Germany in the former island. Catholicism went on evangelizing side by side with Protestantism and is said to have had more funds. Priests of the Otani branch of the Shinshu Sect of Buddhism established themselves in Saipan for religious propaganda in 1919, and in 1926 a Tenrikyo church was opened in Palau.

Soon after the evacuation of the German Protestant missionaries, the Japanese Congregational Church dispatched four missionaries of Ponape and Truk. American missionaries in Kusale and Jaluit are engaged in educational as well as religious work, and Catholic missionaries, who came in 1921 from Spain, are also active. It is generally accepted that the natives' mild temperament is the result of the long and untiring efforts of the missionaries. Generally speaking, Christianity seems to have placed the entire population under its influence, but very few of the church-goers understand its tenets.

makes it difficult to obtain water supply. Rain-water tanks are the usual source, and they often prove an agency for spreading sickness. When the trade wind begins and ends, bringing changes in the climate, influenza occasionally rages. The natives are unsanitary and hesitate to consult a doctor even when taken ill. Despite untiring efforts by the authorities to better hygienic conditions, long-established customs have impeded progress.

The principal endemic diseases peculiar to the islands are amoebic dysentery, frambœsia and dengue. Dysentery breaks out at places all the year round, but the symptoms are generally slight. Frambœsia, rampant among the natives,

afflicts but few Japanese. In recent years, in consequence of injecting salvarsan as a remedy, the number of those contracting it has decreased.

Dengue is at times so prevalent that nearly every inhabitant has it, but few cases prove fatal. Fortunately, the islanders have never been attacked by malaria fever, cholera, pest, yellow fever or sleeping sickness. Typhus, paratyphus, dysentery and a few other infectious diseases, however, are common. One suspected case of small-pox was reported in 1926, but it was agreed that the patient had contracted it while travelling in China and Japan.

Medical Facilities Medical practitioner's offices are maintained by the government, and for the benefit of those living in remote places visiting doctors are dispatched several times a year. The entire territory is divided into three classes, A, B and C, according to the standard of living, and medical charges are fixed differently; class A, for instance, paying from a third to half as much as the resident Japanese. The task of health protection lies heavily upon the shoulders of the government, for the number of private medical prac-

tioners within the territory is still far from sufficient. According to statistics taken at the end of June 1939, officials in the government medical service throughout the insular territory include 25 doctors, 7 pharmacists, 3 secretaries, 9 employees, 9 assistants, 8 midwives and 30 nurses.

Special precautions are exercised against the outbreak of epidemics, and all arriving vessels are subjected to strict quarantine inspection. Compulsory vaccination is being practised, as in Japan proper. Geisha and waitresses undergo examination at least once a month. Lepers are found in several places, though the exact number is not yet available. The government opened a sanatorium in Saipan in 1928 and added others in Jaluit and Palau.

The health inspection is conducted in the schools once a year. The results indicate that though the physical growth of the native children generally surpasses that of the Japanese, cases of malnutrition and disease are much more numerous among the former. Inspection of water and investigation of the causes of death are carried out to aid health and hygienic improvement.

CHAPTER XXXVII

THE GREATER EAST ASIA WAR

(The development of diplomatic negotiations with the United States which finally led to the war is described in Chapter VI, Foreign Relations, while the conditions of the South Seas occupied areas are fully given in the "South Seas Handbook" published with the Year Book.)

Causes of the War

The story of the advance of the United States to the Orient is historically recorded by Dr. Kōsaku Tamura in his article, "Genesis of the Pacific War" in Vol. XII, No. 1-3, of "Contemporary Japan" (Jan.-March, 1943), and it is reprinted in substance, with the permission of the editor of that magazine.

Beginning of American Interest in East Asia On December 23, 1783, the very year in which the independence of the United States of America was officially recognized by the United Kingdom, the Daniel Parker and Company of New York, proprietors of the ship *Empress of China*, wrote a letter to the American Congress informing it that the vessel was due to sail for Canton in the near future, and asking it, at the same time, to patronize this endeavor in order to open commerce with a distant country like China by granting to the commander, Captain John Green, such letters-patents as were needed for the protection of his ship. The *Empress of China* left New York on February 22, 1784, and sailed directly to Canton carrying on board Samuel Shaw as the most important passenger. She rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and in company with two French warships proceeded to China, anchoring at Whampoa on August 28, 1784. And when this pioneer vessel returned from Canton, Secretary of State John Jay informed Samuel Shaw on June 23, 1785, that "Congress feels a particular satisfaction at the successful issue of this first effort of the citizens of America to establish a direct trade with China, which does so much honor to its undertakers and conductors." Soon afterward, Samuel Shaw was appointed the first American Consul at Canton. Thus began the era of Amer-

ican-Chinese commerce, which, however, even after a period of about a century and a half failed to yield appreciable benefits to the United States. Inasmuch as its annual average of Oriental trade between 1931 and 1935 showed that only 14 per cent of its commerce was with Hongkong and China, while forty-three per cent was with Japan.

In February 1830 David Abeel and Elijah C. Bridgman, the first two American missionaries to China, arrived at Canton. They were sent out with the assistance of D. W. C. Olyphant, an American merchant conducting trade in China. The Abeel returned to the United States at the end of the same year. His brief stay in the Far East, however, made him interested in China, with the result that he became a staunch advocate of mission work in Cathay. Bridgman settled down in Canton and became the first American to learn the Chinese language. In May 1832 he started the publication of the famous periodical *The Chinese Repository* and continued it for a long number of years under the patronage of Olyphant who guaranteed the expenses, besides donating a building. In 1833 Bridgman was joined by Samuel Wells Williams, who was to prove one of the great scholars of the missionary body and was later to give his Government years of service on its diplomatic staff. The year 1834 saw the arrival of the first medical missionary to China in the person of Peter Parker, who was trained in medicine as well as in theology. He opened an ophthalmic hospital in Canton the year after his arrival. He and Williams were the members of the Morrison expedition to Japan in 1837. Along with Bridgman and Williams, he acted as one of the interpreters for Caleb Cushing in 1844. The following year he was appointed Chinese secretary and interpreter to the newly created American legation, finally being appointed Commissioner in September 1855, the only American Commissioner or Minister ever appointed to China who could speak, read or write the Chinese language.

From the days of Dr. Robert Morrison

down to 1851 no less than one hundred and fifty Protestant missionaries had arrived in China. The advent of such a great number of American missionaries aroused a sentimental interest in China facilitating the formation of a public opinion conducive to America in the country. Its immediate effect on the American policy was the demand for a further opening up of the "Celestial Empire." Meanwhile, Parker, an American Commissioner, embarked on a scheme of bringing Formosa within the sphere of direct influence of the United States. It would not be irrational to say that quite a number of missionaries were, for the most part, in sympathy with the Taiping Rebellion, and that to them the authority of the Manchu Dynasty seemed much less important than the opening of doors to evangelization. The Americans made much of the fact that in the United States a marked separation existed between Church and State, and yet in China missionaries Bridgman, Parker and Williams negotiated the Treaty of Wanghsia, while Parker entering the diplomatic service rose to the highest rank. In fact, missionaries Bridgman, Parker and Williams transacted the greater part of America's official business with the representatives of the Chinese Government for nearly forty years. Not only the prime-mover of the Taiping Rebellion accepting a garbled version of Christianity from the teachings of the missionaries incited revolts, but in 1860 Issachar I. Roberts, an American missionary and the chief rebel's teacher, proceeded to Nanking and, donning the yellow robe and a crown, became the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the insurgent camp.

Coming of Perry to Japan. On November 24, 1852 Commodore Perry, who had been commissioned by President Fillmore to open the doors of Japan sailed from Norfolk, Virginia, in the steam frigate *Mississippi*. His course lay via Madelra, St. Helena, Capetown, Mauritius, Point de Galle, Singapore, Macao, Hongkong, and then to Shanghai. In Shanghai his squadron of six vessels was assembled. He then visited the Loochoo and Bonin Islands. Thereafter, on July 8, 1853, with four of his warships, he entered the Bay of Yédo and anchored off Uraga. The instructions given to Commodore Perry by Acting Secretary of State C. M. Conrad contained the following very significant paragraph:

The recent events—the navigation of the ocean by steam, the acquisition and rapid settlement by this country of a vast territory in the Pacific, the discovery of gold in that region, the rapid communication established across the Isthmus of Panama which separates the two oceans—have practically brought the countries of the East in closer proximity to our own; although the consequences of these events have scarcely begun to be felt, the intercourse between them has already greatly increased and no limits can be assigned to its future extension.

At the time when the instructions were issued it was expected that Commodore Perry's squadron would consist of five steamers and six or more sailing vessels—by far the largest American fleet that had ever appeared in Eastern waters. This formidable fleet was to be used as a "persuader," a term which was enunciated by President Fillmore at a subsequent date. It was assumed that "arguments or persuasion addressed to this people of Japan, unless they are seconded by some imposing manifestations of power, will be utterly unavailing." It is obvious that such instructions admitted of a very wide latitude in interpretation, and that Commodore Perry was "invested with large discretionary powers." Perhaps in pursuance of the "persuader" project, on February 13, 1854, Commodore Perry's fleet, now enlarged to nine ships, returned to the Bay of Yédo. The Government of Japan had by then decided to meet the returning expedition with conciliation, and as a consequence, the first treaty with the United States of America was signed on March 31, 1854. Although by this treaty Commodore Perry gained very little, he nevertheless felt that he was laying the foundation of a Pacific empire for the United States. He appears to have been the first American in official position to view not merely the commercial, but also the political problems of Asia and the Pacific as one ordered whole. He looked into the future and considered American interests in the Far East from the standpoint of a naval strategist. In one of his dispatches he went so far as to speak of the necessity of extending the "territorial jurisdiction" of the United States beyond the limits of the Western Hemisphere. "I assume," he wrote, "the responsibility of urging the expediency of establishing a foothold in this quarter

of the globe (in the Pacific), as a measure of positive necessity to the sustenance of our maritime rights in the East." He designated three points where he wished to see a beginning made. They were the Bonin, Loochoo and Formosa Islands. He also intimated that the United States ought to extend its "national friendship and protection" to Siam, Cambodia, Cochin China, parts of Borneo and Sumatra, and many of the islands of the Eastern archipelago.

On the outward voyage from the United States, Commodore Perry evolved a plan, which he laid before the Secretary of the Navy in great detail. He suggested the occupation of the Loochoo Islands "for the accommodation of our ships of war and for the safe resort of merchant vessels of whatever nations." This, he thought, "would be a measure not only justified by the strictest rules of moral law, but what is also to be considered by the laws of stern necessity." On his first visit to Japan, he made the Loochoo Islands the rendezvous for his squadron and successfully negotiated for a coal depot at Naha which had the best harbor. Just before his second visit to Japan, he wrote to the Secretary of the Navy (January 25, 1854) reaffirming his intention of placing the Loochoo Islands under the American flag. In addition, his plan embraced the Bonin Islands, which lay in the direct path of navigation between Honolulu and Shanghai. Before arriving in Nippon, he personally visited these islands and significantly purchased for the Navy Department a "suitable spot for the erection of offices, wharves, coal-sheds, etc." at Port Lloyd on Peel Island. He defended this action, as well as his other hostile acts to Japan on the ground that it was necessary "to work on the fears of the rulers of Japan."

The conciliatory spirit in which the Japanese Government met Commodore Perry on his second visit robbed him of most of the reasons for his earlier declared policy. When Japan in 1862 proposed to assert a claim to the Bonin Islands, which ante-dated by centuries the claims of both Britain and the United States, both Powers relinquished all pretensions to the islands. Commodore Perry concluded a "compact" with the King of Loochoo (July 11, 1854) a few months after signing the first American treaty with Japan, and the document was duly ratified by the

Senate a few days after the ratification of the Japanese-American Treaty. This compact treated Loochoo as entirely independent of both Nippon and China. When in 1872 Japan reasserted its claim to the islands, the United States merely stipulated that Japan should become directly responsible to the United States for the maintenance of such rights for Americans as the islands had conceded by treaty to the United States. Earlier, as the American squadron was being dispersed after its second visit to Japan, Commodore Perry ordered one vessel each to proceed to Manila and Formosa. The object in visiting the latter place was to investigate the reported discovery of coal mines. And, indeed, coal of good quality and in abundance was discovered. No active steps were taken at that time, but upon Commodore Perry's return to the United States, he recommended to his Government that "the United States alone should take the initiative in this magnificent island." His ambition in respect of Formosa witnessed a short-lived consummation, for the American flag did fly over its principal port for a year.

The British occupation of Hongkong impelled other foreign nations from that time onward to deal with the Far Eastern question as a political one. Caleb Cushing negotiated the Treaty of Washington in 1844 with one eye to the political establishment of Britain at Hongkong. Commodore Perry in 1853-54 mapped out a still-born Far Eastern political program. Furthermore, there is no doubt that the struggle of the Americans to secure Shanghai as an international rather than a British port at the very time of Commodore Perry's visit to the Far East, was more political than commercial. The relations of Britain, France, Russia and the United States in the negotiations of the treaties of Tientsin in 1858 were very far from being purely commercial. The "cooperative policy" and the entire course of the first ten years of America's diplomatic relations with Japan were actuated by political considerations. The first American efforts to open Korea were of the same character as will be seen from the fact that William H. Seward, perhaps the greatest American Secretary of State, so far as the Far Eastern matters are concerned, since Daniel Webster, proposed a joint armed expedition in partnership with France,

two ways. In the first place, it made the Americans increasingly alert to see that no other Power should take any step which would later become a handicap to American interest; this is the so-called open door policy. But it did more. It raised questions as to how this expected great commerce with the Far East might in future years receive an adequate protection. In the second place, it sent Americans into the Pacific to look for harbors, to Nippon for open ports, and to Formosa for coal mines. America's Far Eastern policy was an important subject of national politics in the decade which preceded the American Civil War, and again it assumed an absorbing interest with the occupation of the Philippine Islands in 1898. The American people were moving westward, and so that part of the world, which when viewed from London and Paris was called the Far East, had become to them not the East at all but the Farthest West—the goal of the great American national movement. A subjoined catalogue of the mere places and dates along the Pacific seaboard would suffice to make vivid the association of American domestic problems and American foreign policy with the Pacific and the Far East even at such an early period extending from the Opium War to 1867:

1843: Lord George Paulet seizes the Hawaiian Islands and the United States refuses to join Britain and France in promise never to take possession of these islands.

1844: The Treaty of Wanghsia between the United States and China.

1846: America occupies Monterey, Mexican capital of California. The American-Mexican war breaks out. The treaty with New Granada (Columbia) granting to the United States the right of communication by any form across the Isthmus of Panama, in return for which the United States guarantees the neutrality of the route and establishes a protectorate over it in the interest of New Granada.

1848: The treaty of peace with Mexico, making Rio Grande the southern boundary of the United States, is signed. The authorization of surveys for a trans-isthmian canal is approved. The beginning of an agitation for steam navigation in the Pacific.

1849: The first American treaty with the Hawaiian Islands, which follows immediately a French intervention at

Honolulu.

1850: A contract between the Panama Railroad Company and the Columbia Government is signed, and a very serious dispute occurs with Britain over the island of Manzanillo. The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty is initiated.

1851: A decision is reached to open the doors of Nippon.

1853: Gadsden purchase becomes an accomplished fact.

1854: The first treaty between Japan and the United States. An attempt is made to annex the Hawaiian Islands.

1867: Alaska is purchased. The first proposal is made to open Korea. William Seward favors under certain contingencies the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands.

American Advance to the Pacific While motives inspiring Alaskan purchase were carefully concealed at the time of negotiations, it is difficult to resist the conclusion that Secretary of State Seward saw in Alaska and the Aleutian Islands a way of "extending a friendly hand to Asia." Indeed, his son, F. W. Seward, stated definitely that the motive back of the purchase of Alaska was the desire for "advanced naval outposts" such as had been lacking in the northern Pacific as well as in the West Indies during the recent Civil War. The United States took possession of the Midway Islands in August 1867. On September 12, 1867, Secretary of State Seward wrote to the American representative at Honolulu that "a lawful and peaceful annexation of the Islands to the United States with the consent of the people of the Sandwich Islands is deemed desirable by this Government." He also gave approval and support to the proposal to connect America with Asia by means of a telegraph line through Alaska across the Aleutian Islands and down the coasts of Asia to the mouth of the Amur River.

On February 17, 1872 Commander Meade of the U.S.S. Narragansett entered into an agreement with Maunga, great chief of the Bay of Pago Pago in the island of Tutuila, whereby the latter granted to the American Government the exclusive privilege of establishing in that harbor a naval station for the use of its vessels. On May 22, 1872, President Grant communicated this agreement to the Senate for its favorable consideration. The Senate, however, took no action on it. Then on

in November, 1866, into Korea.

It is transparent that the Americans clearly foresaw that some day their trans-Pacific commerce would be very great. This expectation reacted on Washington's policy in the Far East in January 16, 1878, a treaty between the United States and Samoa was concluded at Washington, by which the United States was granted "the privilege of entering and using the port of Pago Pago and establishing therein and on the shores thereof a station for coal and other naval supplies." By the Berlin Conference of 1889, the Samoan Islands were placed under the joint protection of Germany, Britain and the United States. But it soon became evident that the tripartite protectorate system in the islands was impracticable. Germany proposed a partition of the islands among the Powers. Britain, having the assurance from Germany of territorial compensation in other directions, acquiesced in the proposition. As the trade of the United States with Samoa was very inconsiderable and as its chief material interest in the islands was the use of the harbor of Pago Pago as a naval station, an agreement was concluded on December 2, 1899, among the three Powers, giving to the United States the island of Tutuila and its outlying islets and to Germany all the other islands.

By the treaty of December 6, 1884, the United States of America was granted by the Hawaiian Government the exclusive use of Pearl Harbor as a naval base with rights to improve and fortify it. On January 17, 1893, when a revolution broke out in Hawaii and the monarchy was overthrown, a provisional administration was established with Judge S. B. Dole, born of American parentage, as its head. President Harrison at once recognized the provisional set-up and signed a treaty on February 14, 1893, providing for the incorporation of the Hawaiian Islands into the territory of the United States. But no action was taken on the treaty by the Senate. On June 16, 1897, a new treaty, similar to one made in 1893, was signed and sent to the Senate for its consideration and action. While the treaty was still pending in the Senate, the United States declared war against Spain on April 19, 1898, and after Admiral Dewey's victory in Manila Bay it was recognized that the occupation of the Hawaiian Islands had become a military necessity. For

the approval of the treaty of annexation, it was decided to follow the precedent established by the annexation of Texas and bring about the required result by means of a joint resolution of the two Houses. The terms of the treaty were thereupon embodied in such a resolution and, after a brief discussion in each chamber, it was passed by more than two-third votes in both Houses. It became a law on July 7, 1898, and the necessary formalities were promptly complied with, thereby transferring the sovereignty of the Republic of Hawaii to the United States on August 12, 1898.

The year 1898 signposted a dramatic departure from the hitherto "cloistered" policy of America. With the acquisition of the Philippine Islands, the United States entered into the arena of world politics, naval rivalry and expansionism. In fact, it became an Asiatic Power. The idea of taking the Philippine Islands was first conceived by Theodore Roosevelt. And really it was he who took the initial action that led to its annexation. Until 1898 few Americans had ever heard of the Philippine Islands. Admiral Dewey's dramatic victory over the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay (May 1, 1898) apparently converted the Americans overnight to the need of occupying these islands. Scarcely had the smoke of the battle cleared than the business clique, so far hostile toward the war, began to take an interest in the markets of the Far East and petitioned the President to retain the Philippines. Memorials poured into the State Department from business groups and chambers of commerce all over the country, stressing the value of the archipelago to the United States, especially as the key to the markets of Eastern Asia. The mission work, too, received a new inspiration. Almost without exception, the publications of mission houses of all denominations in the Far East came out strongly in favor of the Philippine annexation. The author of "God's Hand in Recent American History" wrote that "we have been morally compelled to become an Asiatic Power. Every American missionary in Asia, from whom I have heard in recent months, has thanked God that the American flag has entered the Far East."

President McKinley, noting the overwhelming weight of popular opinion, at last decided to annex the Philippines. Senator Caffery queried the economic value of a Far Eastern outpost. Sena-

for Chilton, Spooner and Hoar warned that the United States might be drawn into Far Eastern political entanglements by the annexation of the Philippines. But their appeals failed to sway the decision of Washington. "The Philippines are not contiguous"—challenged Beveridge. "Our navy will make them contiguous," he declared. And a motion to promise the Filipinos ultimate independence was defeated by the casting vote of the Vice-President. When the final count was taken on February 6, 1899, ratification was secured by the narrow margin of one vote above the required two-third majority. By the treaty of peace signed on December 10, 1898, the Philippine Islands, together with the Island of Guam in the Marianas or Ladrones, became an American territory. This policy of expansionism triumphed, because a politically strong group of expansionists led by Theodore Roosevelt, Captain Mahan, Henry Cabot Lodge and Albert J. Beveridge, had become ambitious to follow the example of Britain in chiselling out a colonial empire. As fate would have it, within eight years' time Theodore Roosevelt, foremost of the annexationists, was wishing he could be rid of the Philippine Islands. "They are," he wrote to his Secretary of War in August, 1907, "all that makes the present situation with Japan dangerous. I think that to have some pretty clear avowal of our intention not to permanently keep them and to give them independence would remove a temptation from Japan's way and would render our task easier." Clearly, the annexation of the Philippine Islands committed the United States to keep an anxious watch over the political developments in the Far East.

On February 27, 1900, Assistant Secretary of State Hill informed Page that "the United States claims jurisdiction over the atoll, known as Wake Island, the possession of which was taken by the U.S.S. "Bennington" on January 17, 1899." Before this happened, the Brooks or Midway Islands, situated about 1,100 miles west of Honolulu and within the limits assigned by the map to the Hawaiian group, were formally occupied by Captain William Reynolds of the U.S.S. "Lackawanna" on August 28, 1867. On April 18, 1900, Acting Secretary of State Hill wrote to the Perry, Mason & Co. to the effect that besides the Philippines, Hawaii, the

Alaskan and Pacific coast islands, Guam, Tutuila and other Samoan Islands east of long. 171°W. of Greenwich and the various Guano Islands, the United States "claims jurisdiction over the Brooks or Midway Islands lying 1,100 miles west of Honolulu and Wake Island." On December 13, 1900, the United States Minister in Tokyo sent a dispatch to the home Government that he had addressed a note to the Japanese Government saying that the Midway Islands belonged to the United States. On January 10, 1901 State Secretary Hill, enclosing a copy of the dispatch of the American Minister in Tokyo, notified the Secretary of the Navy that the settlement of six Japanese only on the Midway Islands "cannot be regarded by this Government as affording any basis for a claim to the islands by the Japanese Government." Thus the American advance into the Pacific was pursued systematically and swiftly, and an island bridge was created across the Pacific Ocean, spanning the United States with the Far East.

With the acquisition of the Philippine Islands, the United States, emulating Britain, turned Manila into a bona fide Hongkong, with a view to challenging its competitors in China by a display of naval power. Consequently, public opinion in the United States began to take for the first time an interest in naval problems. Admiral Alfred T. Mahan in his books preached the necessity of a strong American navy, so that America might not be at a disadvantage in international politics, which mainly implied Chinese politics. "He who understands China," said John Hay in 1890, "holds the key to international politics for the next five hundred years." From the American standpoint, it is obvious that the annexation of the Philippines and Hawaii was merely a means to penetrate into China. Every strategical position that America won in the Pacific served only one end: the protection of China's integrity until America became strong enough to control it single-handedly. America, it is true, did not share in a division of spheres of influence in China, because it considered the whole of China as its own special zone of influence and was absolutely convinced that, if there was "fair play," the entire Chinese market would be open to American industry. This interpretation of the American doctrine of open door in China was announced in the Hay notes of September 6, 1899, and in State Secretary John

Hay's circular of July 3, 1900, concerning the integrity of China. Like the Monroe Doctrine, the Hay doctrine is a manifesto of "counter-colonization" directed against the colonial ambitions of the great Powers of Europe and, like the former, the latter conceals an offensive spirit under a defensive façade. On November 19, 1900, John Hay executed the surprising volte face in telegraphing the subjoined instructions to Conger, American Minister in Peking:

Strictly confidential. Secretary of the Navy earnestly asks, in view of the importance of a naval station on the Chinese coast in the event of future war, that you take first favorable opportunity to obtain for the United States free and exclusive use of Samsa Bay in the Province of Fukien as a naval port with the additional pledge that a circular zone twenty nautical miles in radius with its center at the east point of Crag Island shall not in future be alienated to, controlled or used by any other Power, nor fortifications be erected therein by the Chinese Government.

In this manner, the United States proposed to obtain a naval base on the China coast similar to those secured by the European Powers in 1898. Japan's interests in Fukien in that regard were tardily acknowledged by America, as evidenced from the fact that on December 7, 1900, it sent the following telegram to Buck, American Minister in Tokyo: "The Navy greatly desires a coaling station at Samsa Inlet north of Foochow. Ascertain informally and discreetly whether the Japanese Government would see any objection to our negotiating for this with China." Japan's reply of refusal, handed to John Hay on December 11, 1900, concludes with the following words:

The Japanese Government harbors no territorial designs upon China; its policy is directed to the maintenance of her territorial integrity; and it has noted with entire satisfaction the declaration made on several occasions by the Secretary of State that the United States is also anxious to preserve the territorial integrity of that Empire. That desired end may be best attained by those Powers which entertain similar views refraining from accepting any advantages which might give other Powers a pretext for territorial demands. For these reasons, the Japanese Government confidently hopes

that the United States Government will definitely abandon its above-mentioned project.

Twice more, in December 1901, and in May 1902, Secretary of the Navy urged this project on John Hay, but it was not realized owing to Japan's objections. During the first World War, while the other great Powers were absorbed in the turmoil, the Bethlehem Steel Company tried to obtain a contract from the Chinese Government to improve the harbor of Samsa Bay as an American naval station. Again the Government of Japan protested against it and Secretary of State Bryan on March 23, 1915, pledged to China, Japanese Ambassador in Washington, that "the United States Government has no desire to secure a coaling station on the border of Fukien, especially not with a knowledge of Japan's feeling on the subject—a feeling not so unnatural when one remembers that Fukien is opposite to Formosa."

When the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5) began, President Theodore Roosevelt used his good offices in favor of Japan. He decided on this sympathetic policy toward her in order to keep Czarist Russia out of Manchuria, the much-coveted zone of America's commercial penetration. While Czarist Russia fought the war on French loans, Japan fought on British and American loans. But as Japan began to defeat the Romanoff forces, the President became apprehensive of a complete Russian collapse, and in consequence, his stratagem underwent two progressive changes: from the mere elimination of Russia from Manchuria, he turned to the re-establishment of a balance of power between Russia and Japan, and from that of cooperation with Japan, he turned to the prevention of further territorial expansion of Japan. His means toward both these ends was to persuade Britain, France and Germany to join the United States not only in bringing the war to a close, but also, as it finally transpired, in effecting a peace settlement agreeable to Russia.

"Gentlemen's Agreement" The first reaction in the United States to Japanese military successes in the Russo-Japanese War was the discriminatory treatment of Japanese school children in San Francisco. On October 11, 1906, the Board of Education in San Francisco passed a resolution requiring all Japanese children to be segregated in an Oriental

public school. A variety of lame charges were made against the Japanese children to justify the need of such a highly discriminatory measure. All accusations were found, on close investigation, to have been grossly and no doubt deliberately exaggerated. There were only ninety-three Japanese pupils in all of San Francisco's public schools when the segregation order was issued. And twenty-five of them were American citizens, twenty-eight girls and only thirty-three were over fifteen, the two oldest being twenty years of age. The segregation order along with the anti-Japanese riots, boycotts and Congressional resolutions marked the progress of an exclusionist movement. It must especially be remembered that the segregation order was issued just after the unparalleled Japanese sympathy was outpoured in connection with the great earthquake and fire which occurred in San Francisco in April 1906. While the Japanese Red Cross contributed to the victims of the disaster most generously, the visiting Japanese scientists were stoned in the streets of San Francisco, Japanese restaurants were boycotted, and the Exclusion League, boasting a membership of 78,500, remorselessly pursued its goal. The school children question was temporarily resolved by the famous "Gentlemen's Agreement" of 1907. Even then the past unfair act injected a lingering poison into the relations between Japan and the United States.

The Japanese-American relations under the baneful glare of the immigration controversy went from bad to worse. War talks became so constant and alarming in the summer of 1907 that President Theodore Roosevelt actually sent directions in code to General Wood, commander of the American troops in the Philippines, for defending the islands from a momentarily expected Japanese attack (July 6, 1907). William H. Taft was dispatched on a peace mission from Manila to Tokyo, which resulted in the receipt of a reassuring cable (October 18, 1907) stating that "the Japanese Government is most anxious to avoid war." Still the war talks failed to subside and the President, in order to meet the crisis with a "big stick" policy, sent the American fleet consisting of sixteen battleships on a world cruise. The cruise, which lasted from December 16, 1907, to February 22, 1909, was a gesture. The President said: "I have become uncomfortably conscious of

a very, very slight undertone of a veiled truculence." But the Government of Japan wisely extended an invitation, which President Roosevelt could not decline, to have the fleet visit its shores. The fleet arrived on October 18, 1908, at Yokohama and for three days splendid hospitality was lavished on officers and sailors. The world cruise, besides advertising the fact that the United States was the second naval power in the world, heralded in a dramatic style the entrance of naval ratios into the complex Pacific politics and likewise marked the beginning of the end of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. In February, 1908, McKenzie King, Canadian Commissioner of Labor and Immigration, came to Washington and thanked President Roosevelt "very earnestly for having sent out the fleet to the Pacific." Also Australians rejoiced at the advent of the United States as a great Pacific naval power and as a counter-balance to the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. Ten years later another attempt to impress Japan with the naval might of the United States was made in 1917. Circumstances were that the United States entered the World War and congratulatory missions from the Allied nations were dispatched to Washington. Secretary of State Lansing wrote as follows:

There was an addition to the formula of entertainment in the case of the Japanese Mission headed by Viscount Ishii which is worthy of record, and that is a visit which they made to the Atlantic fleet. The fleet had been assembled on the northern shore of Long Island where it was guarded by sea chains, nets and destroyers while awaiting order to put out to sea. It was proposed to take the Japanese Commissioners to see this grand fleet, and I am disposed to think that the motive was not solely to give entertainment to our guests, for there was in the minds of some of our officials the thought that it might also give them some idea of the naval power of the United States.

What Theodore Roosevelt Thought It was on December 22, 1910, at President Taft's request, Theodore Roosevelt submitted to him his mature and reasoned judgment on the Far Eastern policy of the United States. The former Chief Executive had travelled a long road since he, Lodge and Mahan had planned the annexation of the Philippines. No one could speak from experience more

authentically than he. Here is what he observed:

Our vital interest is to keep the Japanese out of our country and at the same time preserve the goodwill of Japan. The vital interest of the Japanese, on the other hand, is in Manchuria and Korea. It is, therefore, particularly to our interest not to take any steps as regards Manchuria which will give the Japanese cause to feel, with or without reason, that we are hostile to them, or a menace—in however slight a degree—to their interests. Alliance with China, in view of China's absolute military helplessness, means of course not an additional strength to us, but an additional obligation which we assume. . . . As regards Manchuria, if the Japanese choose to follow a course of conduct to which we are adverse, we cannot stop it unless we are prepared to go to war, and a successful war about Manchuria would require a fleet as good as that of England, plus an army as good as that of Germany. The open door policy in China was an excellent thing, and I hope it will be a good thing in the future, so far as it can be maintained by general diplomatic agreements; but, as has been proved by the whole history of Manchuria, alike under Russia and under Japan, the open door policy, as a matter of fact, completely disappears as soon as a powerful nation determines to disregard it, and is willing to run the risk of war rather than forego its intention. How vital Manchuria is to Japan, and how impossible that she should submit to touch outside interference therein, may be gathered from the fact—which I learned from Lord Kitchener in England last year—that she is laying down triple lines of track from her coastal bases to Mukden, as an answer to the double tracking of the Siberian railway by the Russians.

On March 20, 1920, the first of the modern geographical divisions of the State Department was undertaken—the Division of Far Eastern Affairs. It is to this division that one must first look for the explanation of the about-face in the Far Eastern policy of President Taft. The first chief of the Far Eastern Division was William Phillips. He was succeeded by Willard Straight who served as acting chief of the division from November 1908, to June 1909. Straight was a less successful American "Cecl

Rhodes." He dreamed of an American empire in the territory of China. He was appointed the first American Consul-General in Mukden in June 1906, and returned from that place to become the acting chief of the Far Eastern Division at the age of twenty-eight. He made both Theodore Roosevelt and E. H. Harriman, the railroad magnate, his admirers. From 1906 to 1908 Straight made the Mukden Consulate the headquarters of America's "financial invasion" of Manchuria. With Harriman, he schemed of building the Manchurian link of a round-the-world American railway system. He encouraged the establishment of a Chinese-American publicity bureau which distributed its literature with such effect that the Japanese Ambassador protested to Secretary of State Root, and the State Department took steps to liquidate the bureau. Straight's campaign against Japan in Manchuria ultimately led to his withdrawal from Mukden.

Harriman's real object was the purchase of the South Manchuria Railway, but he found that Japan was unwilling to part with it. He, therefore, made up his mind to force Japan to sell out by purchasing from Russia the Chinese Eastern Railway and by obtaining from China the right to build a railway parallel to the South Manchuria Railway straight across Manchuria from Chinchow in the south to Algon on the Siberian border. In case the threat of building the new railroad was not sufficient to persuade the Japanese to sell out, he planned its actual construction and operation. Harriman's death (September 10, 1909), however, deprived the scheme of its principal supporter. For a moment, Straight was left virtually its sole protagonist. On October 2, 1909, he negotiated a preliminary agreement for the financing and construction of the Chinchow-Algon line.

On November 6, 1909, expecting first to obtain British endorsement with which he would then confront Japan and Russia, Knox made two striking proposals to Edward Grey. The first was that Britain should join the United States in effecting a complete neutralization of all the railways in Manchuria, and the second that, in case neutralization proved impracticable, Britain and the United States should jointly support the Chinchow-Algon project. But Grey declined to approve the plan of State Secretary Knox. Both Japan and Rus-

and summarily rejected the neutralization scheme in almost identical notes (January 21, 1910). Thus failed the diplomacy of Knox in regard to Manchuria.

Most ironical of all, Straight and the American financial group—supposedly the principal beneficiaries of dollar diplomacy—accused the State Department of ruining their plans by affronting the Russians, and threatened to withdraw from the field entirely unless the department ceased to make them instruments of such an aggressive Far Eastern policy. For four years Knox and Taft tried to force American capital by diplomatic pressure into a region of the world where it would not go of its own accord. When things began to go against him in the Far East, Knox declared that his policy had a higher purpose than the mere promotion of American business, or even the defending of China's territorial integrity. "Unfortunately, after I left office," wrote the former President Theodore Roosevelt in 1913, "a most mistaken and ill-advised policy was pursued toward Japan, combining irritation and inefficiency."

American Policy against Japan The first World War (1914-18) destroyed the balance of power in the Far East. During the war, the United States launched the most ambitious policy in the Far East. The American diplomatic offensive against this country at that time took a significant four-fold course: first, efforts regarding the binding of Japan's capital investments in China to the cooperative ordinances of the new Four-Power Consortium; second, participation in the Allied military intervention in Siberia in order to prevent Japan's expansion northward; third, insistence on the restoration of Shantung to China; and fourth, codification in treaty form the principles of the Far Eastern policy as enunciated by Washington.

President Woodrow Wilson's decision in November 1917, to permit the organization of a new Four-Power Consortium served as a "curtain-raiser" to an immensely complicated wrangle that lasted until October 1920. Neither President Wilson nor Secretary Lansing was finally reconciled to the impracticability of independent American loans to China until June 1918. And when they, realizing the impracticability, summoned the bankers to Washington, they found the latter in a recalcitrant mood. The bankers notified their intention to accept Lansing's proposition only on two dis-

unct conditions, that is, that they should be assured of pooling their interests with the French, British and Japanese financial groups in loans of a broadly international character, and that the United States Government should announce that such loans were being granted at its suggestion, a condition essential to their successful flotation on the American market. The American Government accepted these two conditions.

Meanwhile, prolonged Japanese-American negotiations ensued, in which Japan attempted to obtain the exclusion of Manchuria and Mongolia from the application of the consortium. To Japan, the pooling of options and internationalization of loans in these regions appeared as a revised edition of the earlier proposal of Secretary Knox regarding the neutralization of railways in Manchuria. It became obvious that the United States was once more attempting by economic means to question Japan's economic rights in Manchuria—rights that rested on old and elaborate treaty structures duly recognized by France, Britain, Russia and China. Japan in contending the policy of America, pointed out that "while the other Powers can afford to look upon the question of the new consortium solely or mainly from the standpoint of business interests, Japan being contiguous to China, has to take into consideration the requirements of its national defense and economic existence in connection with any enterprise to be undertaken near her border." It added that "this special and particular position of Japan the other Powers have hitherto shown willingness to appreciate." A compromise was finally reached, in pursuance of which the United States assured Japan of its "good faith" that it and the other two consortium Powers (Britain and France) would "refuse their countenance to any operation inimical to the vital interests of Japan."

As early as December 1, 1917, M. Clemenceau was trying to convince Colonel House of America of the desirability of sending a Japanese expeditionary force into Siberia. On December 14, 1917, the British Ambassador in Tokyo, under specific instructions from London, broached the subject to the Japanese Foreign Office. Thus the initiative in the Siberian situation was taken by Britain. On January 28, 1918, Balfour sounded the American State Department on the plan to invite Japan as one of

the mandatories of the Allies to undertake the occupation of the Siberian Railway. The first impulse of both Colonel House and President Wilson was to oppose Japanese intervention in any form. President Wilson refused to be moved by the combined importunities of France and Britain. But circumstances began fast to undermine his resolve. As the military situation in France grew more alarming in the spring of 1918, a greater measure of force attached itself to the French argument that the eastern front must be reconstituted in some form or other, with a view to relieving the German pressure on the western front. From all sides came disquieting reports of escaped German prisoners joining the Bolsheviks in the suppression of those Russians who attempted to renew allegiance to the Allied cause. A force of some 50,000 Czechoslovaks, themselves liberated prisoners of war and deserters from the Austrian Army, had set out on a trans-continental journey to Vladivostok, whence they intended to return by sea to join the Allies on the western front. By June 1918, the progress of the Czechs was alleged to have been seriously impeded by the Germans and the Bolsheviks. Relief of the Czechs was then added to the argument for intervention, and President Wilson was compelled to agree to the proposal of a Siberian expedition on July 17, 1918.

The intervention of the United States in the Nikolalevsk massacre case has a particular significance. Between March and May 1920, more than 700 Japanese, including women and children, as well as the duly recognized Japanese consul, his family and his official staff were cruelly tortured and massacred by Russian Bolsheviks. No nation worthy of respect would have possibly remained forbearing under such a strain of provocation. Japan found no alternative but to occupy, as a measure of reprisal, certain points in the Russian Province of Sakhalin in which the outrage was committed, pending the establishment in Russia of a responsible authority with whom it could communicate in order to obtain due satisfaction. But the United States Government, which was undoubtedly an outsider in this particular case, on May 31, 1921, sent a note of non-recognition to the Japanese Government saying that "the Government of the United States can neither now nor hereafter recognize as valid any claims

for titles arising out of the present occupation and control, and that it cannot acquiesce in any action taken by the Government of Japan which might impair existing treaty rights or the political or territorial integrity of Russia." Thus Wilson applied to Russia the same principle that the United States had long applied to China.

On the outbreak of the first World War, Japan, as the ally of Britain, demanded of Germany that the Kiaochow leased territory should be handed over to Nippon with a view to its eventual restoration to China. Upon this demand being disregarded by Germany, Japan landed forces in the Province of Shantung and in November 1914, took possession of the whole leased territory of Kiaochow and of the German-owned Shantung Railway. On May 25, 1915, a treaty was signed between Japan and China by which the Chinese Government agreed "to give full assent to all matters upon which the Japanese Government may hereafter agree with the German Government relating to the disposition of all rights, interests and concessions which Germany, by virtue of treaties or otherwise, possesses in relation to the Province of Shantung." Strangely enough, the United States Government, on May 11, 1915, in anticipation of the impending conclusion of such a Sino-Japanese treaty, dispatched to the Japanese Government a note of non-recognition. This was the first of a series of America's non-recognition notes to Japan. The second non-recognition note was sent by Secretary Hughes in May 1921, in connection with the Nikolalevsk massacre. The third was dispatched by Colonel Stimson on January 7, 1932, in connection with the Manchurian Incident. Secretary Hull for the fourth time gave vent to non-recognition policy on March 30, 1940, opposing the establishment of a new Nanking administration under Wang Ching-wei.

As a natural sequel to the Sino-Japanese Treaty of 1915, notes were exchanged between the Governments of the two countries on September 24, 1918, agreeing that the Shantung Railway should be operated jointly by Japan and China. At the Peace Conference at Paris, China insisted upon the restitution of all rights and privileges which Germany had possessed in Shantung. The decision of the conference was, however, unfavorable to the Chinese claim, in spite of the

vigorous efforts of President Wilson and Secretary Lansing. Furthermore, the Chinese Delegation, encouraged by the American Delegation, not only refused to sign the Versailles Treaty, but also declined to entertain any proposals made by the Japanese Government for the adjustment of the Shantung question. Japan was willing to restore Shantung, but only in accordance with the terms of the 1915 and 1918 treaties and on the basis of independent negotiations with China. The latter opposed any compromise and demanded unqualified restitution.

For the purpose of settling the Shantung imbroglio, Ambassador Shidehara on July 21, 1921, approached Secretary of State Hughes in intimating that China had refused to ratify the Versailles Treaty and denied that Japan had succeeded to the interests of Germany in Shantung; that this was an incorrect position from a legal point of view; that while China and the United States had not ratified the Versailles Treaty, still the Versailles Treaty had been ratified by Germany, Japan and other Powers; therefore, with respect to Germany, its interests had been renounced in favor of Japan, etc.

No less than thirty-six meetings were held before a settlement could be reached. Under American persuasions, the Chinese Government at last gave way and on February 4, 1922, signed a treaty with the Japanese Government, securing full sovereignty over Shantung. The Shantung question was technically a question between Japan and China, but, in reality, it was a question between Japan and the United States. As a matter of fact, this question constituted one of the causes which prompted the United States Senate to refuse the ratification of the Versailles Treaty.

On May 7, 1919, the Council of Four, with President Wilson participating, had mandated to Japan the German islands in the Pacific north of the equator. Among these islands, lying athwart the path from Hawaii to the Philippines via Wake and Guam, was the island of Yap. Until his notice was drawn to it by his naval and communications experts at Paris, President Wilson had not paid any attention to it. The representations of his experts led him to consider its strategic and commercial value to the United States. On three occasions prior to the decision of May 7, President Wilson and Secretary Lansing expressed

the opinion that the control of Yap should be international. Their expressions, however, had taken the form of indefinite, oral reservations, which none of the other parties to the decision awarding the German islands to Japan accepted as conditions precedent to the award. At any rate, President Wilson concurred in the award and signed the Versailles Treaty.

No more was heard of the matter until the spring of 1920, when the State Department started to organize the conference on international electrical communications. The preparation of the agenda, as well as the opening session of the conference reawakened American interest in Yap and enabled the State Department to revive the claim that President Wilson had raised at Paris. This it did on November 9, 1920, a year and a half after the Council of Four had mandated the German islands to Japan. The British Government promptly rejected the American contention, pointing out that the minutes of the Council of Four contained no record that Yap had been excluded from the Japanese mandate, and that the Council of the League of Nations had formally approved that mandate. Similar replies were received from France and Italy. Colby and Hughes exhausted their supply of legal talents in a protracted but vain effort to rehabilitate President Wilson's "reservation," but Japan was not swayed.

To Arrest Japan The Washington Conference of 1921-22 was purposely mooted as an attempt to arraign Japan before an Anglo-American tribunal. On November 11, 1921, the day on which the Washington Conference was officially opened, Balfour discussed the Anglo-Japanese Alliance privately with Secretary Hughes, reminding the latter of several good reasons for retaining it, such as Japan's amour propre, the control it gave Britain over Japan's actions and the security it afforded to the British Dominions and Far Eastern possessions. He showed Hughes the drafts of two "arrangements" which he proposed to substitute for the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. One of them formed the nucleus of the Nine-Power Treaty relating to China and the other amounted to a re-written version of the old Anglo-Japanese Alliance with a provision for the inclusion of the United States. Hughes, however, considered any such "arrangements" out of the question. To supersede the Anglo-

Japanese Alliance, he wanted a definitive statement resembling the Root-Takahira Agreement, which he termed a "coin to be reissued." He rejected the British and Japanese drafts, substituted his own formula and in a series of meetings with Baron Shidehara and Balfour induced them to accept it. On December 2, 1921, he asked, and received the following day Japan's consent, to include France in the proposed Pacific agreement. Thus the Four-Power Treaty, applicable to "insular possessions and insular dominions in the region of the Pacific Ocean" of the signatories was signed on December 13, 1921, superseding the Anglo-Japanese Alliance on ratification. Concerning the new agreement, a Japanese diplomat aptly remarked to his British colleague that Britain "has given the Anglo-Japanese Alliance a splendid funeral." That the United States regarded the Anglo-Japanese Alliance as an obstacle in its path is clear from the following passage in the report of the American Delegation to the President:

It may be stated without reservation that one of the most important factors in the Far Eastern situation was the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. This alliance has been viewed by the people of the United States with deep concern. Originally designed as a measure of protection in view of the policies of Russia and Germany in Far Eastern affairs, the continuance of the alliance after all peril from those sources had ceased could not fail to be regarded as seriously prejudicial to our interests. Without reviewing the reasons for this disquietude, it was greatly increased by the state of international tension which had arisen in the Pacific area. . . . It was, therefore, a matter of the greatest gratification that the American Delegation found that they were able to obtain an agreement by which the Anglo-Japanese Alliance should be immediately terminated.

The reasons for the disquietude omitted in the report were supplemented beforehand by the statement of Secretary Hughes on June 23, 1921, to the British Ambassador that "if Great Britain and Japan had any arrangement by which Great Britain was to support the special interests of Japan, the latter might be likely, at the instance of the militaristic party, to be led to take positions which would call forth protests from this Government,

and that in making such representations this Government might find itself virtually alone; that the making of such representations might be called for by American opinion and yet might be met with considerable opposition in Japan, leading to a state of irritation among the people in both countries, and that such a condition of affairs would be fraught with mischief." Senator Lodge even went so far as to declare in the Senate that "the chief and most important point in the Four-Power Treaty is the termination of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. That was the main object of the treaty."

The United States had emerged from the first World War as the foremost economic power in the world. The war had proved a powerful stimulus to the construction of an American navy "second to none." President Wilson's demand for "incomparably the most adequate navy in the world" found ready response in the passage of the famous Naval Appropriation Act of 1916. If the construction schedules fixed by this Act had been completed, the American Navy would at least have equaled, and probably outstripped, the British Navy by 1924. It is a straight fact that American strategists had advocated the digging of the Panama Canal as a substitute for the maintenance of two large fleets separated by the isthmus. The quick access from coast to coast, they had argued, would enable one fleet to do the work of two. No sooner was the canal completed and opened to navigation in 1914 than this argument gave place to one in favor of a larger navy to protect the canal.

Because Britain suffered considerably in the first World War, its recuperation was slow. On the other hand, its vast interests, augmented by the annexation of German colonial possessions, lay exposed not only to the dangers of a fresh upheaval in Europe, but also to the possible designs of Japan and America, the two great naval Powers that had become invigorated rather than exhausted by the war. The American Navy, taking advantage of the situation, threatened to eclipse the Navy of Britain which, though groaning under the economic ravages of the war, could ill afford to hold up its end in a naval race with the United States. Nevertheless, it manifested in an astute manner its reluctance to relinquish the naval supremacy to America.

Lord Lee of Fareham, newly induced First Lord of the Admiralty, proposed on April 22, 1921, through Ochs of the New York Times, to the American Government that "the British Government are prepared to abandon their traditional policy and enter into an agreement with the United States for equality. Under such an arrangement as proposed by me the United States could concentrate its Navy in the Pacific Ocean and the British Navy could be relied on for protection in the Atlantic Ocean." Lord Lee's proposal attempted to remove the American fleet from coming into contact with the British Navy—a scheme which aimed at lessening the chances of rivalry between the two, leaving Britain, at the same time, actually supreme in the Atlantic. The other objective of the proposal was to make the American Navy act as a counterbalance to Japan in the Pacific, while Britain continued to enjoy the benefit of Japan's friendship.

Naval Program The geographical situation of Japan necessarily rendered the disposition of naval forces in the western Pacific of more vital concern to it than either to Britain or the United States. Whatever construction might be placed upon it, the mission of British and American warships in the Far East could never be made to appear wholly defensive to the Japanese eyes. Japan, therefore, refused to adhere to the Hughes' naval program of 10:6 ratio until it could obtain some more reliable assurance of its security in its own waters than that afforded by the Four-Power Treaty. Early in December 1921, having first secured Balfour's approval, Admiral Kato suggested that Japan might consent to the 10:6 ratio if the United States and Britain would agree to maintain the status quo with respect to fortifications in their Pacific possessions. He also stipulated that Japan be allowed to retain the highly prized and all-but-completed battleship *Mutsu*, which Hughes had earmarked for the scrap-heap, and substitute in its place the *Settsu*, an older vessel. On December 12, 1921, Admiral Kato made the status quo proposition definite. Hughes accepted it—provided it should not apply to Hawaii—but he strenuously opposed the retention of the *Mutsu*. Fortified with the statistics supplied by his naval experts, he contended that this would force Britain and the United States to retain, and even to build, vessels in com-

ensation, and so defeat the purpose of the naval treaty. In the end he was forced to concede the point or lose the treaty. The *Mutsu* was kept at last, and the extended discussion on the size and shape of the zone to be affected finally resulted in a carefully defined non-fortification agreement. It was announced on December 15, 1921, and incorporated in the Five-Power Naval Treaty signed on February 5, 1922. This treaty was to remain in force until December 31, 1936. The Japanese Government gave notice of its intention to abrogate it on December 29, 1934. The note thereon, in part, said:

It is impossible for the Japanese Government to acquiesce in the continuation for a further term of the Washington Treaty of Naval Limitation, which not only permits the retention of the kind of vessels which the Japanese Government intended to abolish as the most offensive ships, but also admits disparity in naval strength through the adoption of a ratio system. Moreover, the allocation of an inferior ratio, so detrimental to our national prestige, is bound to remain a source of permanent and profound discontent to our people.

R. Wakatsuki of Japan at April 22, 1930, at the London Naval Disarmament Conference, declared: "Needless to say, it is important that, in an agreement on disarmament, the matter of national safety should be fully taken into consideration. As I had several opportunities to state in and out of the conference, it has always been the policy of the Japanese Government to maintain a minimum naval strength sufficient for defensive purposes and for fulfilling Japan's obligations in the maintenance of general peace in Eastern Asia—strength that can in no sense arouse apprehension in the minds of other nations."

The Nine-Power Treaty John Hay and Theodore Roosevelt had, after much reflection, come eventually to the conclusion that the American people would neither fight for the open door and the territorial integrity of China nor support a Far Eastern policy based on the use of force. Secretary Hughes had evidently reached the same conclusion, but that did not prevent him from making the most vigorous effort to defend China's integrity and the open door policy. Just as the open door notes of John Hay grew out of the Hippisley

memoranda, the Nine-Power Treaty was the outcome of the Balfour draft of November 11, 1921. Hughes made the Nine-Power Treaty the most categorical and aggressive affirmation of the Far Eastern policy of the United States yet on record. It comprised the most stringent abstinence pledge the United States had yet sought from its competitors in China.

In the opinion of the American Delegation, the Nine-Power Treaty "reaffirmed the postulates of American policy which were no longer to be left to the exchanges of diplomatic notes, but were to receive the sanction of the most solemn undertaking of the Powers." But the Nine-Power Treaty did not legally bind the United States to "defend" the open door and the territorial integrity of China from any other nation; it merely approved that America itself would "respect" them. It was a self-denying ordinance rather than a collective security pact. The only sanction behind it was the good faith of the signatories. Whatever the moral commitments implicit in its periodic efforts in behalf of China's integrity and the open door, the United States had never legally bound itself to defend those objectives against other Powers. Still, the self-denying ordinance contained in the Nine-Power Treaty was assuredly the most stringent yet applied to its competitors in China.

The Japanese Government, in its note under date of November 18, 1933, to the American Government, declared that "in the face of the new situation, fast developing in East Asia, any attempt to apply to the conditions of today and tomorrow inapplicable ideas and principles of the past neither would contribute toward the establishment of a real peace in East Asia nor solve the immediate issues." The inapplicable ideas and principles of the past evidently referred to the Nine-Power Treaty.

Exclusion of the Japanese The "Gentlemen's Agreement" of 1908 did not put a stop to American discrimination against the Japanese, and also agitations for their total exclusion. While constantly pressing Congress for a national exclusion law, the people of California did what they could to discourage Japanese immigration into their own state. In 1913, the legislature enacted a law prohibiting the Japanese from owning land and limiting their tenure of it to leases of three years'

duration. Exercising the initiative in 1920, the people of California voted to remove even the right to lease land. President Wilson sent Secretary of State Bryan to California in an attempt to head off the laws of 1913, but to no avail. It passed the state senate by 25 to 2 and the assembly by 73 to 3, leaving the governor no choice but to sign it. "The fundamental basis of all legislations upon this subject," declared the attorney-general of the state, "has been, and is, racial undesirability."

The exclusionist movement began to assume rapidly national proportions. In 1922, the United States Supreme Court finally ruled that the Japanese were ineligible for citizenship by naturalization. Early in December 1923, a bill was introduced in the House and the Senate, prohibiting the admission to the United States of aliens ineligible for citizenship—a legal phraseology designed to exclude the Japanese without naming them. Secretary of State Hughes wrote on February 7, 1924, to Chairman Albert Johnson of the House Committee on Immigration to the following effect:

The Japanese are a sensitive people, and unquestionably would regard such a legislative enactment as fixing a stigma upon them. I regret to be compelled to say that I believe such a legislative action would largely undo the work of the Washington Conference which so greatly improved our relations with Japan. The manifestation of American interest and generosity in providing relief to the sufferers of the recent earthquake disaster in Japan would not avail to diminish the resentment which would follow the enactment of such a measure, as this enactment would be regarded as an insult not to be palliated by any act of charity.

Upon the representation of the Japanese Ambassador, Hughes recommended that the bill be so amended as to recognize the Gentlemen's Agreement and the quota system to Japanese immigration. On March 11, 1924, Hughes again stated his position to the Chairman of the Senate Committee on Immigration. But on April 14, Senator Lodge seized on the concluding sentences of Hanihara's letter, particularly the words "grave consequences," to declare that they constituted a "veiled threat" to the United States and advised the rejection of the above-referred amendment. On May 15, both the House and the Senate

passed the bill—to become effective on July 1, 1924. President Coolidge signed it on May 26, 1924. Thus the exclusion law, which the Japanese Government had tried to avoid for thirty years, became a concrete reality, and the Government of Japan on May 31, 1924, placed on record its solemn protest in the subjoined terms:

International discriminations in any form and on any subject, even if based upon purely economic reasons, are opposed to the principles of justice and fairness upon which the friendly intercourse between nations must, in its final analysis, depend. To these very principles the doctrine of equal opportunity, now widely recognized, with the unflinching support of the United States, owes its being. Still more unwelcome are discriminations based on race. The strong condemnation of such practice evidently inspired the American Government in 1912 in denouncing the commercial treaty between the United States and Russia, pursuant to the resolution of the House of Representatives of December 13, 1911, as a protest against the unfair and unequal treatment of aliens of a particular race in Russia.

Yet discrimination of a similar character is expressed by the new statute of the United States. The Immigration Act of 1924, considered in the light of the Supreme Court's interpretation of the naturalization laws, clearly establishes the rule that the admissibility of aliens to the United States rests not upon individual merits or qualifications but upon the division of race to which applicants belong. In particular, it appears that such racial distinction in the Act is directed essentially against Japanese, since persons of other Asiatic races are excluded under separate enactments of prior dates, as is pointed out in the published letter of the Secretary of State of February 8, 1924, to the Chairman of the Committee on Immigration and Naturalization of the House of Representatives.

At the time when the commercial treaty between Japan and the United States was signed on February 21, 1911, the Japanese Government declared that they were fully prepared to maintain with equal effectiveness the limitation and control which they had for the past three years exercised in regulation of the emigration of laborers

to the United States With regard to the so-called Gentlemen's Agreement, it will be recalled that it was designed, on the one hand, to meet the actual requirements of the situation as perceived by the American Government concerning Japanese immigration, and on the other, to provide against the possible demand in the United States for a statutory exclusion which would offend the just susceptibilities of the Japanese people. The arrangement came into force in 1908. Its efficiency has been proved in fact If even so limited a number should in any way be found embarrassing to the United States, the Japanese Government have already manifested their readiness to revise the existing arrangement with a view to further limitation of emigration.

Unfortunately, however, the sweeping provisions of the new Act, clearly indicative of discrimination against Japanese, have made it impossible for Japan to continue the undertakings assumed under the Gentlemen's Agreement. An understanding of friendly cooperation reached after long and comprehensive discussions between the Japanese and American Governments has thus been abruptly overthrown by legislative action on the part of the United States. The patient, loyal and scrupulous observance by Japan for more than sixteen years of these self-denying regulations, in the interest of good relations between the two countries, now seems to have been wasted.

Manchurian Incident and American Move On September 18, 1931, the Manchurian Incident broke out and, at that time, both Japan and China were members of the League of Nations. As China appealed to the League, the Manchurian question came under the sole competence of the Geneva International machinery. The United States of America was outside the League and had no voice in the League Council; yet Secretary of State Stimson, becoming impatient with the "conservatism" of the League, took initiatives in issuing direct remonstrances against Tokyo and in submitting proposals to Geneva. On October 10, 1931, Colonel Stimson obtained President Hoover's approval of a plan to have the United States participate in all sessions of the League Council. He then arranged to have the invitation extended by the Council so as to avoid giving Japan the impression

that the United States was "the instigator of the entire matter—of having wormed herself into the League Council—in order to stir up hostilities against Japan." On November 19, 1931, after a conference with Hoover, Stimson sent words to Briand that in case the League wished to impose the economic sanctions provided for in Article 16 of the Covenant, the United States was "anxious not to discourage them or to put any obstacles or dangers in their path." In this way, the United States, a non-member of the League, suggested the application of sanctions against Japan before the League had considered the desirability of such a step.

Disappointed at the failure of the League to take more positive actions against Japan, Stimson shifted his attention to the resources offered by American diplomacy. From these he selected, as the most powerful weapon of the type he desired, the non-recognition doctrine of Bryan that had been used in connection with the so-called "twenty-one demands" episode in 1915. On January 4, 1932, Stimson obtained President Hoover's consent to a bold, independent move. The following day, he revealed his design first to the British, then to the French, Ambassadors, and invited their Governments to take similar steps. The British response was one of a studied casualness. The communique of the British Foreign Office of January 3, 1932, deprecated the necessity of addressing "any formal note to the Japanese Government on the lines of the American Government's note." The communique was accompanied by an editorial in the Times which characterized China's administrative integrity as an "ideal" rather than as an "existing fact," and endorsed the wisdom of the Foreign Office in refusing to associate itself with the American proposition. But Stimson without waiting for replies from London or Paris dispatched the non-recognition note to Japan on January 7, 1932.

Fighting broke out in Shanghai soon after the middle of January 1932 and the hostilities shifted from Manchuria to China proper. Stimson redoubled his efforts to secure British cooperation and to assist the League in bringing a judgment against Japan. On January 24, 1932, he and Hoover decided to send naval vessels to Shanghai. At about the same time the entire American fleet was manœuvring in the Pacific be-

tween California and the Hawaiian Islands. It was decided that the entire American fleet would remain in Hawaii and, as a matter of fact, it was not dispersed or sent back to the Atlantic on the conclusion of the manœuvres. The U.S. Secretary of State learned on January 31, 1932, that Britain was sending two cruisers and reinforcements of marines to Shanghai. Thereupon, the United States Thirty-first Infantry was ordered from Manila to Shanghai and the entire American Asiatic squadron was concentrated in Shanghai harbor.

A Japanese request for the good offices of the neutral Powers in restoring peace at Shanghai (January 31, 1932) inspired Stimson to exercise the initiative still more vigorously. He and Hoover quickly drew up peace terms, telephoned British Prime Minister MacDonald and Foreign Secretary John Simon for their approval, and with the concurrence of France and Italy presented them to the belligerents (February 2, 1932). The terms, among others, called for "negotiations to settle all outstanding controversies between Japan and China with the aid of neutral observers or participants." Stimson thus tried to do what neither Wilson nor Hughes had been able to accomplish: to induce Japan to abandon the principle—that it had been so resolutely defending since 1915—of settling its issues with China independently, without outside intervention.

In the face of Japan's refusal, Stimson invited Britain (February 9, 1932) to join the United States in a formal invocation of the Nine-Power Treaty. Stimson repeatedly called John Simon on the trans-Atlantic telephone during the next few days, pressing the invitation on him as urgently as he could. But to no avail. John Simon would not join Stimson in the manœuvre, especially when the latter represented a nation that was not a member of the League, to prepare the way for the imposition of sanctions before these had been recommended or even considered at Geneva. Again Stimson was thrown upon his own resources and he acted more boldly than Britain or the League. On February 22, 1932, he and his advisers composed a long public letter to Senator Borah, Chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee. In it, he contended that the Nine-Power Treaty was but one of several "interrelated and interdependent" treaties negotiated at the

Washington Conference: that the "willingness of the American Government to surrender its then commanding lead in battleship construction and to leave its positions at Guam and in the Philippines without further fortifications, was predicated upon, among other things, the self-denying covenants contained in the Nine-Power Treaty."

On October 2, 1932, the report of the Lytton Commission on the Manchurian question was published. After a long and dramatic debate, the League adopted the Lytton Report (February 24, 1933) and the Japanese delegation walked out of the Assembly, Japan later notifying its withdrawal from the League. On January 9, 1933, Stimson held an all-day conference on foreign policy with President-elect Franklin D. Roosevelt, as a result of which the League of Nations was assured that "a change in American policy toward the Far Eastern controversy on the part of the new administration need not be apprehended." On March 4, the same year, Stimson left office and on March 27, Japan gave notice of its decision to resign from the League. So ended the long cycle of post-bellum American attempts to prevent the rightful advance of Japan into areas contiguous to it.

President Franklin D. Roosevelt and Secretary of State Cordell Hull had no sooner taken office on March 4, 1933, than they confirmed the assurances exchanged by Stimson and Roosevelt on January 9, 1933. On the same day the League of Nations adopted the Lytton Report, created an Advisory Committee to observe the Far Eastern situation and invited American cooperation in its work. Secretary Hull accepted its invitation on March 13, 1933, and in this manner the Roosevelt administration acted with alacrity to adhere to the Stimson-Hoover policy of active collaboration with the League on the Far Eastern question. On April 17, 1934, Elji Amai, then spokesman of the Foreign Office, made the following statement:

Owing to the special position of Nippon in her relations with China, her views and attitude respecting matters that concern China may not agree in every point with those of foreign nations, but it must be realized that Japan is called upon to exert the utmost effort in carrying out her mission and in fulfilling her special responsibilities in East Asia. . . . We

oppose, therefore, any attempt on the part of China to avail herself of the influence of any other country in order to resist Japan; we also oppose any action taken by China, calculated to play one Power against another. Any joint operations undertaken by foreign Powers even in the name of technical or financial assistance at this particular moment after the Manchurian and Shanghai incidents are bound to acquire political significance. . . . Japan, therefore, must object to such undertakings as a matter of principle, although she will not find it necessary to interfere with any foreign country negotiating individually with China on questions of finance or trade as long as such negotiations benefit China and are not detrimental to the maintenance of peace in East Asia. However, supplying China with warplanes, building aerodromes in China and detaching military instructors or military advisers to China, or contracting a loan to provide funds for political use, would obviously tend to alienate the friendly relations between Japan and China and other countries and disturb peace and order in East Asia. Japan will oppose such projects.

The Amai statement was prompted not only by the so-called technical assistance rendered to China by the League of Nations, but also by the economic and military aids given to Chiang Kai-shek by the United States Government and its citizens. In May, 1933, the Reconstruction Finance Corporation granted a three-year wheat and cotton credit of \$50,000,000 to the Chinese Government. Toward the end of 1933, the Curtiss-Wright Corporation announced plans for the construction of a five-million-dollar airplane assembly plant in China, specifically for the purpose of assembling military planes. The plant was set up in Hangchow early in 1934. Between 1932 and 1933 the Aeronautics Trade Division of the Department of Commerce cooperated with American aircraft firms in the selection of a number of American aviation officers who would assist in the establishment of training schools for Chinese pilots in Hangchow and Canton. On November 16, 1933, the United States resumed diplomatic relations with Soviet Russia after a lapse of sixteen years. Washington made this fresh move obsessed by the desire of redressing the balance of power in the Far East against Japan.

China Affair On July 7, 1937, the China Affair broke out and on August 23, 1937, Secretary of State Hull in a pronouncement stated that the United States Government had given orders for a regiment of marines to prepare to proceed to Shanghai. He added: "The issues and problems which are of concern to this Government in the present situation in the Pacific area go far beyond merely the immediate question of protection of the nationals and interests of the United States."

On October 15, 1937, the Belgian Government, in response to the request made by the United Kingdom with the approval of the United States, announced that it had agreed to convene in Brussels a conference in accordance with the terms of the Nine-Power Treaty and had extended invitations to all the parties to that treaty, including Japan. The Government of Japan in its note of October 27, 1937, declined the invitation to participate in the conference on the ground that Japan's action in China, being one of self-defense motivated by China's violent anti-Japanese policy and practice, especially by its provocative acts appealing to force of arms, lay outside the purview of the Nine-Power Treaty. The note went on to say that the League of Nations on October 6, 1937 expressed its views casting reflection on the honor of Japan and adopted a resolution which was incontestably unfriendly toward Nippon; and that the United States Government, a non-member of the League, declared contestably unfriendly toward Japan; its approval of the resolution. Under these circumstances, the Government of Japan was constrained to believe that a frank and full discussion to bring about a just, equitable and realistic solution of the conflict between Japan and China could not be expected at the proposed conference. Moreover, the Sino-Japanese conflict, arising from the special situation of the Far East, "has a vital bearing upon the very existence of the two countries." Hence, a conference of so many Powers with varying interests in the Far East, or with none at all, would only serve to complicate the situation and put further obstacles in the path of a just and proper solution. A just and proper solution could be reached only through direct negotiations between the countries primarily concerned.

The day following Japan's refusal,

the Soviet Government accepted the invitation, Germany declined it on the ground that it was not a party to the treaty. The Brussels Conference was convened on November 3, 1937, and Count Aldrovandi Marescotti, Italian delegate, in his speech bluntly asserted that unless the realities of the situation were taken into account, nothing would result from the conference but platonic resolutions and fresh proof of the sterility of such intervention. He insisted that the only thing the conference could do was to make an attempt to bring the two parties into direct contact with each other. On November 6, 1937, the conference dispatched the second invitation to Japan. On the same day the Italian Government joined the Anti-Comintern Pact of November 25, 1936, concluded between Japan and Germany. The Government of Japan again declined to participate in the conference, stating that "her action in China, as it is one of self-defense, is outside the scope of the Nine-Power Treaty; and that it is impossible for Japan to accept the invitation to a conference in accordance with the stipulations of that treaty after she has been accused of violating its terms." The Brussels Conference, without the participation of the principal party concerned, that, Japan adopted an abortive resolution and adjourned sine die on November 24, 1937. On November 28, 1937, Prince Fumimaro Konoe, then Premier, in an interview with the press, set forth Japan's policy toward China, outlining five basic points.

The first point of Konoe's made it clear Japan did not object to third Powers which offered their good offices to assist in bringing about direct negotiations with China, but could not accept third party participation in the negotiations. The second point stated that Japan had not yet formulated its terms of peace, but since its aim was primarily the achievement of a fundamental readjustment of Sino-Japanese relations, it would be ready to negotiate with the Nanking Government if the latter would change its present policy to one of cooperation with Japan. If the Nanking Government refused to so alter its present anti-Japanese attitude, the war would go on until that Government was overthrown. The third declared that should the war be continued for any length of time, it might lead to the establishment of local régimes with which Japan could cooperate. If one of these

the Belgian Government extended invitations to the Governments of Germany and the Soviet Union, both of which were neither signatories of nor adherents to the Nine-Power Treaty. While régimes should control a sizable portion of China, Japan might recognize it as the National Government of China and deal with it exclusively. The fourth set fourth that Japan for the present had no intention of declaring war against China. If, however, military supplies continued to pour into China, the decision might be altered. The fifth and last point announced that Japan might, at a suitable time in the future, propose a revision or abrogation of the Nine-Power Treaty.

On December 12, 1937, the day on which Nanking was occupied by Japanese naval airplanes, in their pursuit of retreating Chinese forces, discovered and bombed at a point about twenty miles above Nanking on the Yangtze River more than ten steamers which seemed to them Chinese military transport ships. Later, it was found that among the bombed vessels was the United States gunboat Panay, which was sunk. On the day following the Panay incident, President Roosevelt sent a memorandum to Secretary Hull with instructions to inform the Japanese Ambassador that the President "is deeply shocked and concerned by the news of indiscriminate bombing of American and other non-Chinese vessels on the Yangtze, and that he requests that the Emperor be so advised." In the typewritten text of this memorandum, the word "requests" was penned by the President in his own handwriting over the typed word "suggests." A photostatic copy of the revised memorandum was handed to the press. The Japanese Government, on being informed of the President's feeling, expressed profound regrets and sincere apologies for the incident. Japan also made indemnification for the losses suffered and punished appropriately those responsible for the sinking of the gunboat. Secretary Hull accepted the entire action of Japan as "responsive" to the American request; yet he relied on the findings of the American Naval Court of Inquiry as to "the origin, causes and circumstances of the incident."

After the fall of Nanking, the Chinese Government determined itself to continue a protracted resistance against Japan. The Japanese Government,

therefore, decided on January 16, 1938, not to deal any more with the Nanking Government and to look forward to the establishment of a new Chinese régime with which it could fully cooperate for the adjustment of Sino-Japan relations.

The American resentment against this decision of Japan manifested itself in various forms. On April 23, 1938, the annual convention of the New York Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church censured the policy of the United States in continuing "to buy Japanese goods" and "to sell Japan the materials with which she has been waging war on China." On June 1, 1938, a plea for cessation of American economic aid to Japan was made at the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church. On June 11, 1938, Secretary Hull indicated that the State Department was informally discouraging the sale of American bombing planes to Japan. A poll of Congressmen conducted by the Christian Science Monitor indicated general support for Hull's effort to discourage shipment of American aircraft to Japan, as well as the rise of a sentiment for applying an embargo to a wider range of exports to this country. In October, 1938, Canton and Hankow fell into the hands of the Japanese Army and the Chiang Kai-shek Government became a mere local régime. On November 23, 1938, the Government of Japan declared:

What Japan seeks is the establishment of a new order which will insure the permanent stability of East Asia. This new order has for its foundation a tripartite relationship of mutual aid and coordination between Japan, Manchoukuo and China in political, economic, cultural and other fields. Its object is to secure international justice, to perfect the joint defense against Communism, and to create a new culture and realize a close economic cohesion throughout East Asia.

In its note of November 18, 1938, to the American Government, the Government of Japan announced:

Japan at present is devoting her energy to the establishment of a new order based on genuine international justice throughout East Asia, the attainment of which end is not only an indispensable condition of the very existence of Japan, but also constitutes the very foundation of the enduring peace and stability of East Asia.

It is the firm conviction of the Japanese Government that in the face of the new situation, fast developing in East Asia, any attempt to apply to the conditions of today and tomorrow inapplicable ideas and principles of the past would neither contribute toward the establishment of a real peace in East Asia nor solve the immediate issues. However, as long as these points are understood, Japan has not the slightest inclination to oppose the participation of the United States and other Powers in the great work of reconstructing East Asia along all lines of industry and trade.

Japanese announcement of the policy of establishing a new order in East Asia evoked a crop of criticisms from diverse American quarters, and American proclivity of aiding Chiang Kai-shek reached a new height. The United States Export-Import Bank on December 15, 1938, placed a credit of \$25,000,000 at Chungking's disposal; in addition, the United States Treasury extended the Chinese-American monetary agreement of July 9, 1937 thereby enabling Chungking to dispose of its silver and obtain dollar exchange against its gold reserves accumulated in New York. The Conference on the Cause and Cure of War, meeting at Washington in January 1939, went on record for the first time in favor of an embargo on war materials to Japan. In May 1939 the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church adopted a resolution condemning America's continued "partnership in aggression" and urging immediate legislation by Congress to prevent the sale of munitions and war material to Japan. Several bills placing limitations on Japan's trade with the United States were offered by members of the House of Representatives and the Senate. A resolution was sponsored by Senator Pittman empowering the President to impose an embargo on war supplies to Japan. The Senate Foreign Relations Committee requested Secretary Hull to indicate whether the proposed action would "violate any treaty." Although Hull on July 21, 1939, gave a non-committal answer, the same answer actually preceded the State Department's decision on the abrogation of the Commercial Treaty with Japan by only five days.

On July 24, 1939, as a result of an agreement between the then Foreign Minister Hachiro Arita and British Am-

bassador Robert Craigie, the text of a basic accord under which negotiations would be conducted for a formal settlement of the Tientsin dispute was announced in Tokyo and London. The significant Arita-Craigie formula ran as follows:

His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom fully recognize the actual situation in China where hostilities on a large scale are in progress, and note that, as long as that state of affairs continues to exist, the Japanese forces in China have special requirements for the purpose of safeguarding their own security and maintaining public order in regions under their control, and that they have to suppress or remove any such causes or acts as will obstruct them or benefit their enemy.

His Majesty's Government have no intention of countenancing any acts or measures prejudicial to the attainment of the above-mentioned objects by the Japanese forces, and they will take this opportunity to confirm their policy in this respect by making it plain to the British authorities and British nationals in China that they should refrain from such acts and measures.

On July 26, 1939, only two days after the announcement of the Arita-Craigie formula, Secretary Hull served a notice of abrogation of the Japanese-American Commercial Treaty. The Washington Government took this uncalled-for step mainly to give effect to its policy of "quarantining" Japan economically.

The Second World War On September 1, 1939 the European war broke out. Curiously enough, the first and immediate step the United States Government took was to transfer the major portion of its Navy to the Pacific coast centering on Pearl Harbor—a step which was obviously planned to intimidate Japan. Early in 1933 a sum of \$238,000,000 from the P.W.A. funds was allotted to naval construction. In March 1934 the Navy Department, in view of the Vinson-Trammell Act, secured authorization from Congress to proceed with a naval building program designed to reach the before the end of 1942. President Roosevelt accelerated his construction schedules with the greatest peace-time naval appropriations (for 1936-1937 and 1937-1938) in American history. Moreover, the London Agreement of 1936 not only lessened the pre-occupation of the United States with the British and French com-

petition, but also enabled it to replenish its naval strength more freely against Japan. On April 1, 1936, the United States, Britain and France adopted an increased maximum gun calibre of sixteen inches. On June 30, 1938, these three Powers signed an agreement raising their capital ship tonnage limit to 45,000 tons. The United States in this way played an active part in bringing about a revision in the capital ship construction, because it was bent upon bottling up Japan in the Pacific.

On January 11, 1940, Henry L. Stimson in a long letter in the New York Times recommended legislation to prohibit the export to Japan of arms, munitions and raw material needed for the manufacture of accessories, to some of which a moral embargo had already been applied since June of 1938. Two embargo proposals prepared by Senators Pittman and Schwelmbach were placed before the Senate Foreign Relations Committee.

New Central Government of China
On March 12, 1940 Wang Ching-wei declared his intention to establish a new Central Government of China. Prior to this, on March 7, 1940, the United States Government gave a loan of \$20,000,000 to Chiang Kai-shek. Thereafter, on March 30, 1940, Secretary Hull issued his statement of non-recognition of the newly organized Nanking Government under the presidency of Wang Ching-wei.

On September 22, 1940 an agreement was concluded between the Governments of Japan and France, by which the former was to respect the rights and interests of the latter in East Asia and, in particular, the territorial integrity of Indo-China and the sovereign rights of France over all parts of Indo-China. On the part of France it was required to grant Japan special facilities in Indo-China in order to enable the Japanese Army and Navy to pursue their operations. Retaliating this accord, which in no way affected the rights and interests of America, President Roosevelt on September 26, 1940, declared an embargo on the export of iron and steel scrap as from October 16, except to countries of the Western Hemisphere and to Britain. Of the exports of steel scrap in the first seven months of 1940, Nippon took about one third, that is, over half a million tons. Simultaneous with the enforcement of the embargo, the Federal Loan Administration Office announced that a

further credit of \$25,000,000 was to be granted to Chungking from the American Export-Import Bank to assist it in meeting exchange needs, and that the loan would be liquidated by the sale of tungsten, the United States Government having undertaken to buy as much as thirty million dollars' worth of tungsten for defense needs. The new loan to China and the fresh embargo order were, in the opinion of the leaders of the Capitol Hill, measures "short of war, but more effective than mere words."

The Tripartite Pact On September 27, 1940 a ten-year pact among Japan, Germany and Italy was signed in Berlin and by the terms of Article III of which the three Powers undertook to "assist one another with all political, economic and military means, if one of the High Contracting Parties should be attacked by a Power not at present involved in the European war or in the Sino-Japanese conflict." From this stipulation, one can clearly see that the three Powers did not wish to have any third Power intervene either in the European war or in the China Affair. The then Foreign Minister Yosuke Matsuoka referring to the Tripartite Axis Pact said that "Japan does not challenge any country." The Foreign Office spokesman affirmed: "It is a pact to end wars, not to start them." Regarding the allegation of the United States that the Tripartite Pact was solely directed against it, Yosuke Matsuoka in his statement of October 10, 1940, made clear its implication, so far as Japan was concerned, in the following words:

Japan wishes earnestly to bring about an all-around peace in China at the earliest possible date. No other people have been more eager than the Japanese to see peace restored between Japan and China. As a matter of fact Japan has been and is actually bending every effort to that end. The conclusion of this pact with Germany and Italy is in a way another attempt to achieve the same end. . . . I might add that the Tripartite Pact has not been entered into with the intention of directing it "against" the United States, but it is, I should say, directed, if at all, "for" the United States. To state frankly, the parties to the pact wish earnestly that such a powerful nation as the United States in particular and all other nations at present remaining neutral will not be involved in the European war, or come by any chance

into conflict with Japan because of the China Affair or otherwise. Such an eventuality, with all the possibility of bringing an awful catastrophe upon humanity, is enough to make one shudder if one stops to imagine the consequences. In short, the pact is a pact of peace.

President Roosevelt, however, in his fireside chat on December 29, 1940, assailed the Tripartite Pact in scathing terms. He persisted that "the three totalitarian Powers have, by the pact of September 27, 1940, joined together in the threat that if the United States interfered with or blocked their expansion program, a program aimed at world control, they will unite in military action against the United States."

On November 30, 1940, Wang Ching-wei and General Nobuyuki Abe, Japanese special envoy to Nanking, signed a treaty of basic relations between China and Japan; and the latter undertook to withdraw all its troops from China, except those in North China and Inner Mongolia, within two years from the date when general peace was restored and a state of war ceased to exist. President Roosevelt, in order to advertise that this Sino-Japanese Basic Treaty could not prove a deterrent to the intervention of the United States in the affairs of East Asia, granted a new loan of \$100,000,000 to Chiang Kai-shek. Half the money was advanced by the Export-Import Bank to be used for general purposes on condition that repayment would be progressively made by Chungking through deliveries of wolfram, antimony and tin. The remaining half was made available for currency adjustment and was furnished by the Treasury Stabilization Fund of the United States Government.

"Two-Ocean Navy" As a matter of fact the British Navy, at the time the American Secretary of the Navy Frank Knox testified before a House committee in January 1941, was not "in grave danger," as the German or Italian Navy was not strong enough to challenge the British Navy in the Atlantic or Mediterranean. Considered in this light there was no need for the United States to rush the building of a "two-ocean" navy. The truth is that under this pretext America desired to gain a swift overwhelming superiority over the Japanese Navy in the Pacific. In the Annual Report (July 1940 to June 1941) issued on December 8, 1941, Secretary Knox related:

During the fiscal year, Congress authorized new combatant ship construction totalling 1,434,300 tons and shortened the course of auxiliaries and miscellaneous construction to 725,000 tons. The fiscal year 1941 witnessed the virtual transition of the nation from a peace time to a wartime footing, with tremendous industrial expansion for production of war material.

The progress made with the building of the "two-ocean" Navy, as well as the aims underlying it were revealed by Secretary Knox in an address made before the Convention of the American Legion on September 15, 1941. His speech, in part, follows:

As Secretary of the Navy, it naturally is on my heart to talk to you men of the Legion of that great service and of the progress we have made toward the building of a two-ocean Navy. For achievement of this purpose, awards have been made for the construction of 332 new combatant ships. The building of these vessels, which will cost about \$6,000,000,000, added to what we already possess, will give us a combined sea strength of thirty-two battleships, eighteen aircraft-carriers, ninety-one cruisers, 364 destroyers and 186 submarines, a total fleet of 691 vessels of war. Incomparably, this will be the greatest sea power, with air power auxiliary, ever created by any nation in the history of the world. At the outset of the program it was estimated that it could not be given effect to before 1946. I shall not attempt to tell you how much short of that time the objective will be realized, but I do dare to say to you that the whole fleet will be completed far ahead of the schedule, and that every ship coming into commission is going into service months ahead of the scheduled time. Before the end of 1941 we will have added to the fleet, commissioned and ready for service, two battleships, one aircraft-carrier, eighteen destroyers and ten submarines.

Let me emphasize to you two things: No war of significant proportions can now be fought anywhere in the world save by those nations which have access to the seas. Raw materials out of which the complicated instruments of war are now wrought come from the four corners of the earth. No continent has a monopoly of them and, therefore, those nations which possess sea power are the nations into whose

hands will be entrusted the peace of the world in the future. . . . The only peace in which the world can put any confidence, for at least one hundred years to come, is the kind of peace that can be enforced by the peace-loving nations of the world. It will not be sufficient just to love peace if these nations are to support the cause of peace effectively. It is imperatively necessary to have not only the will to have peace but the power to enforce it. In such a world as that of today, sea power for America is more vital, more essential, than ever in its history. We are on the way to achieve that power. We shall soon have the fleet that will make us the greatest maritime power the world has ever known, and we have the materials, the skills and the capacity to maintain that leadership indefinitely.

We must also remember that it is only the strong who can promote and preserve a righteous peace. When war threatens and human liberties are at stake, when attempts at world-wide dominion are to the fore, we must be sure that the world understands that we do not withhold our hand through weakness or timidity. Idle and futile is the voice of the weak nation, or the craven nation, when it clamours for peace. At this point I should like to quote from a former President, Theodore Roosevelt, who, like Franklin D. Roosevelt, was a courageous, virile champion of just and righteous peace, and a foe of those who put peace before righteousness. Theodore Roosevelt once said: "Peace is a great good, and doubly harmful, therefore, is the attitude of those who advocate it in terms that would make it synonymous with selfish and cowardly shrinking from warring against the existence of evil. The wisest and most far-seeing champions of peace will ever remember that, in the first place, to be good it must be righteous, for an unrighteous and cowardly peace may be worse than any war; and in the second place, that it can often be obtained only at the cost of war." A powerful national defense, especially on the high seas, is a prerequisite of the peace-promoting, justice-loving America. During the last half a dozen years it has been clear to almost any man that a powerful fleet and a powerful air force, neither of which can be extemporized, are vital essentials to our national security

in a time of great world turbulence.

Negotiations between Japan and the United States. Ambassador Admiral Nomura, assumed his duties on February 11, 1941, and promptly took up negotiations with President Roosevelt and Secretary Hull for the adjustment of relations between Japan and the United States. In the middle of April 1941 the United States Government submitted to Admiral Nomura an informal proposal intended to serve as a basis for a general agreement concerning all questions relating to the Pacific issue. The United States Government, in the proposal, asked the Government of Japan to give an understanding not to menace the United States when the latter should be obliged to participate in the European war for self-defense and, at the same time, proposed that it would undertake to use its good offices for the initiation of peace negotiations between Japan and the Chungking regime on such terms as would be acceptable to the United States.

In a counter-proposal sent in the middle of May, 1941, the Japanese Government explicitly stated that Japan's obligation to render military assistance to Germany or Italy or both of them when they were attacked by any third country including the United States would arise as stipulated under the Tripartite Pact, while regarding the China Affair, stated that the United States Government, accepting the five Konoe points, the Sino-Japanese Basic Treaty and the Joint Declaration of Japan, Manchoukuo and China, would urge upon the Chungking regime to enter into negotiations with the Japanese Government for the restoration of peace, and that in case Chiang Kai-shek refused to accept the American advice, the United States was to cease from aiding the Chungking regime. In the latter part of June 1941 the United States Government submitted a new proposal which, compared with its April proposal, set forth the American claims in a more concrete manner.

On July 12, 1941 a complete agreement of views was reached between the Japanese and French Governments concerning the joint defense of Indo-China. Under-Secretary Sumner Welles on July 23 told the Japanese Ambassador that "by the course it has followed and is following in regard to Indo-China, the Japanese Government is giving a clear indication that it is determined to pursue an objective of expansion by force

or threat of force." Welles further argued that the "steps taken by the Japanese Government tended to jeopardize the procurement by the United States of essential materials, such as tin and rubber, which are necessary for the normal economy of the United States and the consummation of its defense program." He concluded: "Steps taken by the Japanese Government also endanger the safety of other areas of the Pacific, including the Philippine Islands." The following day (July 24, 1941) President Roosevelt, in an informal talk with the members of the Volunteer Participation Committee, presaged the total economic blockade of Japan in the following rather humorous vein, intentionally in the past tense.

There happened to be a place in the southern Pacific where we had to get a lot of things—rubber, tin, and so forth and so on, down in the Dutch Indies, the Straits Settlements and Indo-China. And we had to help get the Australian surplus of meat, wheat and corn for England. . . . It was very essential from our own selfish point of view of defense to prevent a war from starting in the southern Pacific. So our foreign policy was—trying to stop a war from breaking out down there.

Now here is a nation called Japan. Whether they had at that time aggressive purposes to enlarge their empire southward, they didn't have any oil of their own up in the north. Now, if we cut the oil off, they probably would have gone down to the Dutch East Indies a year ago, and you would have had war.

Two days later on July 26, 1941, Roosevelt issued an order "freezing" all Japanese assets in the United States, thus stopping all trade relations with Japan, including the sale of oil. The War Department announced on the same day that all troops under the Hawaiian Command has been ordered to be placed "on a training and precautionary alert status" at once. It was also announced that the President had created a new Army Forces in the Far East. Concurrently with the freezing of Japanese assets in America, the United Kingdom, the British Empire and the Dutch administration in Batavia took similar actions against Japan in their respective zones. Japan, as a matter of routine, issued assets freezing orders against the United States, the United Kingdom, the British Empire and the Netherlands

East Indies. It needs no amplification to assert that this excessive Anglo-American move imperilled the existence of Japan as a nation.

Even in face of this violent provocation, Premier Konoe, still hoped for a peaceful settlement, and in August sent a personal message to President Roosevelt, proposing a meeting between the responsible heads of the two Governments. The United States Government maintained that, for the holding of such a meeting, a prior agreement on basic principles, especially on the questions of the Tripartite Pact, the stationing of troops in China and the non-discriminatory treatment in international commerce was necessary. In the middle of October 1941 the Konoe Cabinet resigned.

After the resignation of the Konoe Cabinet, the Emperor ordered General Hideki Tojo, who was War Minister in the Konoe Cabinet, to form a Cabinet. Thus the Tojo Cabinet came to be formed, and it took up the thread of negotiations with the American Government in order to retrieve the situation in the Pacific. In its solicitude for the peace of the Pacific, the Tojo Cabinet transmitted the following proposal to the Washington Government:

(1) The United States Government undertakes not to enlarge unduly the meaning of "self-defense."

(2) A certain number of Japanese troops will be stationed for the necessary duration in specified areas in China and the rest of the troops will be withdrawn upon the conclusion of peace. The Japanese troops in Indo-China will be withdrawn immediately either upon the settlement of the China Affair or upon the establishment of peace in East Asia on an equitable basis.

(3) The Japanese Government recognizes that the non-discrimination principle in international commerce to be applied to all the Pacific areas, including China, on the understanding that the said principle is to be applied uniformly to the rest of the world.

The United States Government, however, contended that there would be no need for Japan to maintain the Tripartite Pact after the conclusion of a Japanese-American agreement. While the United States Government insisted on the unconditional application of the non-discrimination principle to China, it proposed that the economic development

of China should be jointly undertaken by the Powers. To these arguments the Japanese Government replied that Japan hoped for the application of the non-discrimination principle throughout the world, that Japan would recognize its application to China in accordance with the realization of this principle throughout the world, and that the American proposal for the joint international economic development of China would open the way for the joint international control of China. In order to avert a rupture of diplomatic relations, the Japanese Government presented on November, 20, 1941, the following new proposal:

(1) The Governments of Japan and the United States undertake not to make any armed advancement into any of the regions of southeastern Asia and the southern Pacific, excepting French Indo-China.

(2) The Governments of Japan and the United States shall cooperate with a view to securing the acquisition of those goods and commodities which the two countries need in the Netherlands East Indies.

(3) The Governments of Japan and the United States mutually undertake to restore their commercial relations to those prevailing prior to the freezing of the assets.

The Government of the United States shall supply Japan a required quantity of oil.

(4) The Government of the United States undertakes not to indulge in measures and actions prejudicial to the endeavours for the restoration of general peace between Japan and China.

(5) The Japanese Government undertakes to withdraw troops now stationed in French Indo-China upon either the restoration of peace between Japan and China or the establishment of an equitable peace in the Pacific area.

The Government of Japan declares that it is prepared to remove the Japanese troops now stationed in the southern part of French Indo-China to the northern part of the said territory upon the conclusion of the present agreement.

Secretary Hull in respect of the new proposal remarked that the United States could not cease aiding Chiang Kai-shek unless Japan clarified its relations with the Tripartite Pact.

American Ultimatum. On November

26, 1941, the United States Government, after consulting the representatives of Britain, Australia, the Netherlands and the Chungking régime, presented a proposal as a basis for future negotiations (for the text of the proposal see Charter VI, Foreign Relations, last volume.)

Japan's Reply. The following passages from the Roberts report well illustrate the complete war-preparedness of the United States' effectives in Hawaii before the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor was launched:

The Chief of Staff of the Army informed on November 27, 1941, the Commanding General of the Hawaiian Department that negotiations with Nippon seemed to be ended with little likelihood of their resumption; that Japanese action was unpredictable; that hostilities on the part of Japan were momentarily possible; that in the event hostilities could not be avoided the United States desired that this nation should not commit the first overt act.

On the same day (November 27, 1941) the Chief of Military Intelligence sent a message to the Intelligence Officer on the staff of the Commanding General, Hawaiian Department, directing him to inform the Commanding General and his Chief of Staff that negotiations with Japan had practically ceased; that hostilities might ensue.

On the same day (November 27, 1941) the Chief of Naval Operations sent a message to the Commander-in-Chief of the Pacific Fleet, which stated in substance that the dispatch was to be considered a war warning; that the negotiations with Japan in an effort to stabilize conditions in the Pacific had ended; that Japan was expected to make an aggressive move within the next days; that an amphibious expedition against either the Philippines, Thai or Kra Peninsula, possibly Borneo, was indicated by the number and equipment of Japanese troops and the organization of their Navy task forces.

After receipt of the message of November 27, 1941, the Commander-in-Chief of the Pacific Fleet made certain dispositions of units of the fleet for the purpose of strengthening his outposts to the south and west of the Hawaiian Islands, and also issued an order that any Nipponese submarine found in the operating areas around the island of Oahu should be attacked.

This order went beyond the authority given him by the Navy Department.

On November 29, 1941, the Chief of Naval Operations sent a message to the Commander-in-Chief of the Fleet, which was in substance a quotation of the Chief of Staff's dispatch of November 27 to the Commanding General, Hawaiian Department; and in addition directed the addressee to take no offensive action until Japan had committed an overt act. The foregoing messages did not create in the minds of the responsible officers in the Hawaiian area apprehension as to probable imminence of air raids. . . . The necessity for taking state-of-war readiness which would have been required to avert or meet an air raid attack was not considered. The Commanding General, Hawaiian Department, the Commander-in-Chief of the Pacific Fleet and the Commandant Fourteenth Naval District, their senior subordinates, and their principal staff officers, considered the possibility of air raids. Without exception they believed that the chances of such a raid while the Pacific Fleet was based upon Pearl Harbor were practically nil. The attack of Sunday, December 7, 1941, (Japan time, December 8) was therefore a complete surprise to each of them.

On December 2, 1941, Sumner Welles, acting under the President's order, made an enquiry of the true intentions of the Japanese Government regarding the movements and reinforcement of Japanese troops in Indo-China. The Japanese Government replied that, in view of the recent marked activities of the Chungking forces in the frontier of Indo-China, Japan made partial reinforcements in the northern Indo-China as a precautionary measure, and that this resulted naturally in the movement of the Japanese troops in the southern area.

On December 4, 1941, the Navy Department instructed the Commander-in-Chief of the Pacific Fleet to destroy confidential documents and means of confidential communication.

At about noon, December 7, 1941, an additional warning message indicating an almost immediate break in relations between the United States and Japan was dispatched by the Chief of Staff after conference with the Chief of Naval Operations for the information of responsible Army and Navy com-

manders. The delivery of this urgent message was delayed until after the attack.

At 6:30 a.m., December 7, 1941, a suspicious object was sighted in the prohibited area off Pearl Harbor by the U.S.S. Antares. Between 6:33 and 6:45 this object, which was a small submarine, was attacked and sunk by the concerted action of naval patrol planes and the U.S.S. Ward.

Foreign Minister Shigenori Togo on December 16, 1941, reiterated in the Diet: "If they truly misunderstood that the statement clarifying the limit of our conciliatory attitude as implying a bargaining or bluff, we must conclude that the United States Government were utterly blind to the actual situation."

Records of the War, 1941-1943

With all its patient efforts to cultivate friendship among nations and to enjoy prosperity in common with all nations made abortive by the inordinate ambition of Britain and the United States to dominate the Orient, Japan entered into a state of war with the United States and the British Empire on the morning of December 8, 1941.

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Immediately, the whole Japan was thrown into a turmoil of happy excitement. An emergency cabinet session was held at 7 o'clock on the morning of December 8 to hear Admiral Shigetaro Shimada, Minister of Navy, report on the progress of hostilities with the United States and British forces.

This was followed by the summoning of Joseph C. Grew, the American Ambassador to Japan, by Shigenori Togo, Foreign Minister, who handed to the Ambassador the formal reply of the Japanese Government to the note of Cordell Hull, United States Secretary of State, which was sent to the Japanese Government on November 26, 1941.

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ment in reply to the note of Secretary of State Cordell Hull, announced that the Japanese Government considered it impossible to reach an agreement with the United States through further negotiations. The memorandum explained that the American proposal made by Secretary of State Hull on November 26, while containing certain acceptable items such as those concerning commerce or abolition of the extraterritorial rights in China, ignored Japanese sacrifices in the four years since the outbreak of the China Affair and menaced the existence of Japan itself, thus disparaging its honor and prestige.

All radio-listeners throughout Japan intently keeping their receivers on for important news, the Navy Ministry at 11:20 o'clock on the same morning announced that the Imperial Naval forces successfully bombed military objectives in Singapore and also bombarded Davao, Wake and Guam.

The announcement added that the Japanese Navy succeeded in making a surprise attack on the United States fleet including aircraft carriers in Hawaiian waters, and that the Japanese fleet in China waters captured the United States gunboat Wake and sank the British gunboat Petrel.

Declaration of War At 11:45 o'clock, the epochal announcement of Japan's declaration of war against the United States of America and Britain was made, and the Imperial Rescript was granted (for full text of the Rescript see Chapter VI, last volume). Five minutes later at 11:50 o'clock, the Army and Navy Sections of the Imperial Headquarters jointly announced Japanese Army and Navy forces, closely co-operating, succeeded in carrying out landing operations on the Malay Peninsula.

This was closely followed by an announcement by the Imperial Headquarters that the Japanese troops started an attack on Hongkong at dawn on December 8.

From then on, it was the rapid succession of announcements reporting successful Japanese military operations in attacks on all important military and naval bases of the United States and Britain in East Asia.

Pearl Harbor Attacked The most spectacular military achievement of Japan on the opening day of the Greater East Asia War was the dazzling victory of the Japanese navy in an attack on Hawaii, in which the Imperial Head-

quarters announced on the very day that two American battleships were sunk, four battleships and four first-class cruisers were severely damaged and a large number of enemy aircraft were destroyed.

The naval successes scored by the Japanese navy in Hawaiian and other Pacific fronts completely shattered a naval strategy which was popularized by United States naval experts to carry war directly to Japanese waters in the event of a Pacific war. The Japanese blitzkrieg achievements proved that the encircling program of President Roosevelt was proved to have been based entirely on an utter miscalculation of Japan's strength, thus depriving the United States of the very foundation of "Naval superiority" of its hopes to obstruct and frustrate the national growth of Japan. (The record of the Battle of Hawaii is given at the end of this chapter.)

On the morning of December 10, the Imperial Headquarters announced Japanese troops effected successful landing on the Philippines at dawn on that day. On the very day, the Japanese army and naval forces, acting in close concert, successfully landed on Guam, one of the most important outposts of the United States' Pacific strategy against Japan.

Sinking of the Prince of Wales On December 10, the Japanese navy won another great victory when Japanese naval air forces sank, off the eastern coast of the Malay Peninsula, the Prince of Wales, 35,000-ton flagship of the British Asiatic Fleet, and the British battleship Repulse, 32,000 tons.

By that time, heavy fighting was in progress between Japanese and British forces near Kota Bahru along the northern frontier of Malaya.

There was a significant parallel between the disaster which befell the British Far Eastern Fleet off Malaya on December 10 and the devastating blow which the Japanese naval aircraft inflicted on American warships in Pearl Harbor on December 8. The former was the price the British navy had to pay for its traditional over-confidence in its strength and its belittlement of the Japanese fleet while the latter was the result of the poorest intelligence and absence of expert naval strategy on the part of the American command.

Guam Occupied On December 11, Japanese landing forces operating on Guam occupied Agaña, capital of the

island, and captured Captain George McMillan who was Governor-General and concurrently Commandant of the naval station of the island. The whole island fell into the hand of the Japanese forces on the following day, December 12, which also marked the successful landing of Japanese troops in the southern section of the Luzon Island in the Philippines.

On the same day came an announcement of the conclusion of a military agreement between Japan and French Indo-China, providing for the common defense of the French colony by Japanese and Indo-Chinese forces.

It was also on December 12 that the Japanese forces captured Kowloon, British leased territory at the extremity of the Kowloon Peninsula facing Hongkong, and immediately started preparations for a full-dress attack on Hongkong. With the Japanese capture of Kowloon, the British forces defending Hongkong started to withdraw from their first-line defenses.

While the Japanese forces were busy in attacks on British bases with Hongkong and Singapore as their centers, Japanese naval planes continued their incessant attacks on American military objectives in the Philippines, and reportedly bombed Batangas, Iba, Clarkfield and other points of military importance in the islands.

Landing on British Borneo At dawn on December 10, 1941, the Japanese expeditionary forces effected a successful landing on the coast of British Borneo, thus further expanding the Japanese penetration into the Anglo-American spheres of influence in East Asia. The landing on British Borneo was carried out in the face of a heavy gale of twenty-meter velocity a second.

On the afternoon of December 17, the Imperial Headquarters announced Japanese naval units attacked Baker Island and Johnston Island, both in the South Pacific, and destroyed many enemy defense facilities on December 11 and 16, respectively.

By December 17, the Japanese forces operating in Malaya succeeded in slashing through British defenses in the peninsula to its west coast, thus completely cutting land communications between Singapore and Rangoon.

Results of the Battle of Hawaii At 3 o'clock on the afternoon of December 18, the Imperial Headquarters made a sensational announcement reporting the

details of the casualties which were inflicted on the United States Pacific Fleet by the Japanese naval attack on the eve of the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War. The announcement said that five battleships were sunk, including one of California class, one Maryland class, one Arizona class, one Utah class and another of unidentified category, in addition to two heavy cruisers and one oil tanker. The report also added that the United States vessels which were damaged beyond repair included one battleship of California class, one of Maryland class and one of Nevada class as well as two light cruisers and two destroyers. It also said that 464 enemy planes were destroyed in the course of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor including 450 which were machine-gunned on the ground and 14 which were shot down in aerial combats.

Meanwhile, the Japanese forces operating from Kowloon landed in Hongkong on December 18 and occupied the Jardines Hill shortly after, thus placing half of the British Crown Colony under their control.

At dawn on December 20, the Japanese army and navy units effected a successful landing at Mindanao Island of the Philippines and immediately occupied Davao, thus gaining another foothold for the capture of the whole islands. In the wake of these favorable developments in the Philippine area, the Japanese landing party on the night of December 22 landed on Wake, another important Pacific outpost of the United States, and completely occupied the island during the following day.

On the morning of December 25, the Imperial Headquarters announced the start of landing operations by Japanese army units on the eastern coast of the Luzon Island of the Philippines at dawn in the preceding day, and added that the Japanese troops which landed on the coast of the Lingayen Bay continued an active advance toward the south.

Fall of Hongkong On the same day, December 25, Hongkong, unable to withstand the terrific Japanese attacks from sea, land and air, was occupied. At 7:05 o'clock that evening, Sir Mark Young, Governor-General of Hongkong, unconditionally surrendered to the Japanese as a result of a parley which took place at the Peninsular Hotel in Kowloon.

The surrender of Hongkong marked the first step of the retrocession of British interests from East Asia and

concluded the first stage of Japan's war against Britain.

The fall of Hongkong was equally significant to Chiang Kai-shek, as the former British Crown Colony was the nerve center of political activities of the Chiang Kai-shek regime against Japan as well as the most important port for exports from Chungking-controlled areas. With the fall of Hongkong, all fetters which had been imposed on China by Britain and the United States were removed and China was thus given liberty to co-operate with Japan for the construction of a new order in the Greater East Asia.

Enemy Losses up to December 26 On December 27, Premier General Hideki Tojo, reporting on Japanese army operations on the southern fronts including the Philippines since the outbreak of the war in an address before the Imperial Diet, summarized the Japanese military successes up to that date as follows: 1,758 automobiles, 58 tanks and light armored cars, 108 cannons, 4,157 rifles as well as huge stocks of gasoline, rubber, oils and fats and other munitions captured in land operations: 60 gunboats either sunk or irreparably damaged and 74 other vessels captured in sea operations: 427 enemy planes either shot down in aerial combats or destroyed on the ground.

On the same day, Admiral Shigetaro Shimada at the Diet listed the Anglo-American naval losses since the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War as follows:

Battleships:

- 7 sunk
- 3 heavily damaged
- 1 less heavily damaged

Cruisers:

- 2 sunk
- 2 heavily damaged
- 2 partially damaged

Submarines:

- 9 sunk

Smaller Naval Craft:

- 6 gunboats and mine-sweepers destroyed, more than 7 torpedo boats sunk

Merchant Ships:

- 16 sunk
- 3 damaged

The Navy Minister added that 50 ships aggregating 130,000 tons were captured by the Japanese navy in the period under review, and 803 Anglo-

American planes were shot down by the naval air forces in aerial combats.

On December 28, the Japanese fighting forces who presented Hongkong to the Japanese people as a Christmas gift made their triumphant entry into Hongkong, three days after the surrender of the Crown Colony.

With Hongkong thus completely occupied, the Japanese forces came to bring all power to bear on remaining two Anglo-American strongholds in East Asia, namely Manila and Singapore.

Meanwhile, the Japanese military operations in Malaya with the final goal fixed at Singapore progressed incessantly, and Ipoh, second largest city in the Malay Peninsula was captured by the Japanese forces on December 28, while the fall of Kuching, capital of Sarawak in British Borneo on December 25 was announced on the same day.

On December 31, the last day of the memorable year of 1941, the Japanese forces captured Kuantan, strategic town in the eastern part of Malaya located only 190 miles from Singapore.

Occupation of Manila The occupation of Manila, capital of the Philippines, by the Japanese forces on January 2, 1942, was officially announced by the Imperial Headquarters on January 3. The announcement said that the Japanese forces completed the occupation of Manila on the afternoon of that day and were continuing fierce assaults against American-Filipino forces defending the island fortress of Corregidor and the fortresses in the Bataan Peninsula. The dramatic raising of the Rising-Sun emblem over Manila on January 2 climaxed the intensive 24-day drive against the capital of the Commonwealth.

The Japanese military operations in Malaya were progressing incessantly. On January 9, the Imperial Headquarters announced the Japanese forces driving down the Malay Peninsula, passed Tanjong Mallm on the previous evening and were pressing hard on British mechanized troops which were thrown out of their defense positions.

On the same day, the Imperial Navy scored another triumph when Japanese submarines operating in waters southwest of the Johnston Island sank the 11,050-ton United States aircraft-tender Langley.

On January 11, the Japanese army forces completed the occupation of Kuala Lumpur and hoisted the flag of the rising sun over the capital building

of the Federated Malay States. The unexpectedly speedy fall of Kuala Lumpur, which is a key point of strategic importance in the central part of the Malay Peninsula, revealed the strength of the Japanese forces since the British defenders previously declared a determined stand against the Japanese attacks.

On the Philippine front, the Japanese attacks on retreating American-Filipino forces continued unabated with Olongapo, an important base along the eastern coast of the Bataan Peninsula captured by the Japanese on January 10.

On January 14, the Japanese people heard another sensational announcement by the Imperial Headquarters which said that Japanese submarines operating in waters west of Hawaii on the evening of January 12 scored two torpedo hits on an United States aircraft carrier of the Lexington type (33,000 tons), adding that the submarines were unable to confirm whether the aircraft carrier was sunk, but the sinking of the vessel was believed certain as two heavy explosions were noted after the submarines submerged.

On January 19, the Japanese army forces advanced into Burma and occupied Tavoy. By the following day, the Japanese forces advanced to a point only 350 kilometers from Rangoon after occupying Tavoy, with the defending British forces on fast retreat toward the northern mountain region.

Meanwhile, the combined Japanese army and naval forces at dawn on January 23 succeeded in effecting a landing on New Britain Island near Rabaul.

This was closely followed by the successful landing operation effected by the Japanese bluejackets on Kendari on the south-eastern coast of Celebes Island on January 24.

On January 28, the Imperial Headquarters announced that the Japanese army units completed the occupation of Balikpapan in Dutch Borneo on January 25. The capture of Balikpapan gave the Japanese forces a key position to dominate the Java Sea and the Sunda Sea.

To Johore Bahru Culminating a whirlwind campaign wherein the Japanese troops covered a distance of 1,100 kilometers from the Thai-Malayan border within fifty-five days, the Japanese forces on the evening of January 31 reached the shores of the Johore Straits opposite Singapore. In the course of the 55-day campaigns through the Malayan jungles,

the Japanese forces captured a total of 250 tanks and armored cars, 3,600 automobiles and trucks, 550 machine-guns and quantities of war materials and supplies and also took 8,000 enemy troops prisoners. It was on the same day, January 31, that the occupation of Moulmein by the Japanese forces was announced.

On February 2, the Imperial Headquarters announced that the Japanese army forces, closely co-operating with the naval units, at dawn on January 31 effected a successful landing near Amboina, capital of Amboina Island of the Molucca group.

On the afternoon of February 8 came another sensational announcement of an epochal naval victory in waters about 30 miles south of Kangeang in the Dutch Indies. The announcement stated that the Japanese naval bombers on February 4 spotted the main Dutch Indian Fleet escorted by destroyers at a point thirty knots south of Kangeang Island and sank two Dutch cruisers and also heavily damaged one Dutch cruiser and one United States cruiser. The announcement added that the Dutch cruisers which were sunk included a cruiser of the Java type (6,067 tons) and another of the De Ruyter type (6,450 tons).

Landing on Singapore On February 9, the Japanese forces which had been poised on the northern bank of the Johore straits for a final assault against the British Far Eastern base successfully crossed the straits after repelling the enemy resistance and started a fierce attack on Singapore fortifications. By 7 o'clock that evening, the Japanese forces completely occupied the Tengah Airfield, one of the four important military air bases on Singapore Island.

Continuing the ceaseless advance, the Japanese forces early on the morning of February 11 occupied Bukit Timah Peak, the highest point in Singapore. At 8 o'clock on the same morning, the Japanese forces were already entering into the city area of Singapore and started mopping up operations against the British remnants.

Fall of Singapore Unable to further withstand the Japanese attack, the British forces at Singapore sent a special messenger to the Japanese Army Headquarters at 2:30 o'clock on February 15 and offered to surrender.

At 10:10 o'clock on the evening of February 15, the Imperial Headquarters announced that the British forces in

Singapore unconditionally surrendered to the Japanese forces at 7:50 o'clock on the same evening, thus marking the fall of the last and most formidable of the three Allied bases in East Asia. (A detailed account of the battles in the Malay Peninsula is given at the end of this chapter.)

On the historic day of the fall of Singapore on February 15, the Imperial Headquarters made another sensational announcement of the landing of Japanese parachutist troops on Palembang on the morning of February 14, center of the largest oil field in Sumatra and one of the most important airports in the island.

A Visit to California The Japanese naval forces were not content with their attacks on the enemy bases in the Southern Pacific. On February 25, the Imperial Headquarters announced that Japanese submarines operating in Californian waters on the night of February 24 shelled military objectives on the Californian coast and achieved highly successful results.

Battles Off Surabaya and Batavia Another naval victory was reported on February 28 when the Imperial Headquarters announced that the Japanese fleet operating in Dutch East Indian waters intercepted the Allied fleet in the Java Sea and sank one cruiser and three destroyers in a fierce sea battle which was later named the Battle Off Surabaya. This announcement was supplemented with another announcement by the Imperial Headquarters issued on March 1. The announcement said as follows: "Reports received up to early this morning on the results of the sea battle between the Japanese and Allied naval forces in Surabaya waters on February 27 and 28 indicate so far three enemy cruisers and six destroyers were sunk while four other enemy cruisers heavily damaged. In another naval engagement off Batavia waters early this morning, March 1, Japanese naval forces sank one large United States cruiser and one Australian cruiser."

Landing on Java Close on the heels of the report of the dazzling Japanese naval victory in Surabaya waters came another announcement of the Imperial Headquarters at 12:20 o'clock on March 2 that a large body of new Japanese forces made successful landing on Java Island at dawn on March 1.

Similarly sweeping was the progress of the Japanese military operations in

the Philippines. On March 2, the Japanese forces completely occupied Zamboanga, a strategic point on the western extremity of Mindanao Island. Three days later on March 5, Japanese army and naval forces operating in Java completed the capture of Batavia, capital of the Netherlands East Indies, within only five days after the first landing made by the Japanese in Java. The fall of the capital city of the Netherlands East Indies was particularly significant as it imposed a death sentence on Java.

Occupation of Rangoon On March 8, the Japanese army forces operating in Burma completed the occupation of Rangoon, thus attaining the main objective of Japanese operations in Burma.

Surrender of Dutch Forces On the following day, March 9, the entire Dutch forces in the Netherlands East Indies ceased resistance and accepted the Japanese demand for an unconditional surrender. On March 11, the Imperial Headquarters announced the collective results of the Japanese campaigns in the Netherlands East Indies, reporting that the Japanese forces took prisoners 92,000 enemy troops including 2,000 commissioned officers and captured 152 warplanes, 567 tanks and armored cars, 732 cannons, 1,567 machine-guns, 97,384 rifles and quantities of other war materials and supplies.

Andaman Occupied Another surprise attack by the Japanese forces on British bases in the Southern Pacific was scored on March 23 when the Japanese army and naval units at dawn on that day successfully landed at Port Blair, Southern Andaman Island. British forces defending the island, unable to withstand the Japanese attacks, surrendered immediately.

The whole Sumatra came under the Japanese control on March 27 when more than 200 Dutch troops which had been resisting Japanese attacks in a mountain stronghold at Koetlatjane in Northern Sumatra made an unconditional surrender.

British Defeat in the Indian Ocean On April 9, the Imperial Headquarters made a sensational announcement of the results of Japanese naval operations in the Indian Ocean. The announcement said in the course of the Japanese operations in the Indian Ocean on April 7, the Japanese naval forces sank two British cruisers, one of the London type (9,850 tons) and another of the Cornwall type

(10,000 tons) and 60 enemy planes were shot down.

This announcement was followed with a flash report from the Japanese front at the Bataan Peninsula that 6,000 Filipino-American troops which had been resisting the Japanese forces on the peninsula begged for a halt in hostilities after the six-day fierce Japanese assault which was launched on April 3. On the following day, April 10, the Imperial Headquarters made another amazing announcement that the Japanese naval and air units in the course of their operations off Trincomalee, Ceylon, sank the British aircraft carrier *Hermes* (10,850 tons) and a 9,100-ton British cruiser of the Birmingham type as well as a 7,550-ton cruiser of the *Emerald* class. The announcement added that British cruiser of the *Leander* class (7,270 tons) was heavily damaged.

Bataan Peninsula Cleared Culminating Japanese military operations on the Philippines, the Imperial Headquarters announced on April 13 that the Japanese forces completely occupied the Bataan Peninsula on April 11 after the eight-day general offensive.

Mandalay Occupied On May 1, the Japanese forces operating in Burma captured Mandalay, key point of strategic importance in Burma, thus attaining another objective of the Japanese military operations in Burma. This was closely followed by the capture of Akyab Airfield in Arakan by the Japanese vanguard troops on May 4.

Corregidor Reduced The whole Philippines was brought under Japanese control on May 7 when the Japanese army and naval units succeeded in landing on the Corregidor Island and occupied the Corregidor fort and other forts on other islands in Manila Bay.

On the following day, May 8, the Japanese forces in Burma occupied Myitkyina, the northern terminus of the Burma Railways.

Achievement on the Burma Front On May 11, the Imperial Headquarters in a special announcement reviewed the war in Burma during five months since the outbreak of the Greater East Asia War. The announcement said that in the five-month period under review Japanese air forces shot down or destroyed on the ground 554 enemy planes in 126 raids, and also destroyed 1,213 motor cars and trucks as well as 333 tanks and armored cars. The announcement added that 1,543 railway cars and 92 vessels were

destroyed and 666 enemy military establishments were smashed.

As the highlight of the Japanese military operations in May, the Imperial Headquarters announced on June 5 that a special submarine flotilla, which successfully penetrated into the Port of Sydney, on the night of May 31 sank an enemy warship.

On the same day, the Imperial Headquarters' announcement reported that another special submarine unit of the Imperial navy in a surprise attack on Diego Suarez, Madagascar, at dawn on May 31, torpedoed and seriously damaged a British battleship of the *Queen Elizabeth* class (13,600 tons) and a light cruiser of the *Arctura* class (5,220 tons).

Achievements of the Imperial Navy On May 26, the Imperial Headquarters made an announcement on the brilliant success of the Imperial Navy in the Greater East Asia War up to May 20, as follows. The Imperial Navy sent the following enemy vessels to the bottom: 6 American battleships; 2 British battleships; 5 American and 1 British aircraft carriers; 6 American cruisers; 4 Dutch cruisers; 5 British cruisers; 8 American, 12 British and Dutch destroyers; 2 American and 1 Dutch special service vessels; 50 submarines; 8 gun-boats; 5 mine-layers; 6 mine-sweepers; 9 torpedo-boats, 19 small naval vessels; and 169 merchant ships with an aggregate tonnage of about 934,000 tons. It gave a heavy damage to 4 American and 1 British battleships; 8 American, 2 British and 1 Dutch cruisers, 11 destroyers, 5 special-service vessels, 29 submarines, 6 gun-boats, 2 mine-layers, 2 torpedo-boats, 25 small naval vessels and 129 merchant ships. Those vessels captured by the Imperial Navy were 1 special service vessel, 2 gun-boats, 2 torpedo-boats, 2 small naval vessels and 503 merchant ships. The number of enemy war-planes shot down by the Imperial Naval Air Forces was 982 and that of the damaged on the ground 1,292.

The Imperial Navy established its power over vast areas of the Pacific Ocean west of Hawaii and the Indian Ocean east of Madagascar within but 6 months from December 1941 to May 1942.

Achievements of the Imperial Army On June 7 the Imperial Headquarters made another announcement on the great achievements of the Imperial Army. According to the announcement the Imperial Army occupied a vast area of

about 2,521,500 square kilometers in the South Seas, bringing a population of about 93,080,000 under its administration during the past 6 months. The Imperial Army Forces victoriously fought against the enemy strength of over 2 millions. On the China front, they met about 1,530,000 Chinese soldiers and bandits, including 900,000 in North China, 580,000 in Central China and 50,000 in South China. The Chinese left about 112,400 corpses on the battle fields, including 50,300 in North China, 53,600 in Central China and 2,500 in South China. Captives taken numbered about 44,000 altogether.

In the battles in the South Seas region, the Imperial Army Forces encountered with about 505,000 officers and soldiers of British, Australian, Indian, American, Dutch, Chinese, and Filipino troops, including 15,000 in Hongkong, 100,000 in the Philippines, 120,000 in Malaya, 120,000 in the East Indies and 150,000 in Burma. The Japanese troops crushed about one division in Hongkong, 11 divisions in the Philippines, 8.5 divisions in Malaya, 4 divisions in the East Indies and 13 divisions in Burma, or a total of 35.5 divisions. The announcement further added that the 11 divisions crushed in the Philippine district consisted of the United States first division, the Philippine national defense army composed of the 11th, 21st, 81st, 31st, 41st, 51st, 61st, 91st divisions.

The 6.5 divisions crushed in Malaya included the British 18th division, the Australian 8th division, the Indian 9th division as well as the Indian 20th, 44th and 45th brigades, and also Malay 1st and 2nd brigades. The four divisions crushed in the East Indies included the Dutch 1st and 2nd divisions and about 15 independent battalions as well as one division of Anglo-American-Australian combined forces. The 13 divisions annihilated in Burma comprised the British 7th mechanized brigade and 6 other British battalions as well as the Indian 17th, 13th and 63rd brigades, and also Chungking's 22nd, 96th, 200th, 55th, 93rd, 2nd, 20th and 39th divisions as well as the Burmese 1st division.

Besides, the number of enemy war-planes, shot down or damaged on the ground, reached 1,036 (241 uncertain), while one gunboat, one submarine, one torpedo-boat and 41 steamships were sunk, and one cruiser, 3 gunboats, 3 destroyers, 2 submarines, five torpedo boats and 46 steamships were heavily

damaged.

The number of captives reached 342,000, composed of 25,000 Americans, 64,000 British, Canadian and Australian soldiers, 24,000 Dutch, 44,000 Chungking soldiers, 185,000 mixed soldiers taken in various battlefields. Of the total, about 100,000 Indonesians were released.

The war booties taken by the Japanese forces in the course of these campaigns included 3,763 guns, 1,440 tanks, 31,589 automobiles, 240 airplanes, 11,548 machine-guns, 216,714 rifles, 12,200 locomotives and passenger cars as well as 48 ships aggregating 117,000 tons.

Dutch Harbor On June 10, the Imperial Headquarters made an announcement of a surprise attack made by the Japanese naval units on Dutch Harbor, Alaska as well as on the Aleutians on June 4 and 5. The announcement also said that the Japanese naval units carried out fierce attacks on Midway Island on June 5 and inflicted heavy damage on the enemy fleet reinforcements. In the latter engagement, the Japanese naval units sank two United States carriers of the Enterprise and Hornet types, both of 19,000 tons, as well as one United States cruiser of the San Francisco type (9,950 tons).

The highlights of the Japanese operations during July were the two Imperial Headquarters announcements disclosing the continued successes of the Japanese submarines and naval air units. The one announcement as issued on July 24 revealed that 325 enemy planes were shot down and 109 planes smashed by naval air forces in their attacks on enemy bases in New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Horn Island and in battles over Japanese bases during the period from February 2 to July 20. On July 19, the Imperial Headquarters revealed that through relentless efforts of Japanese powerful naval forces, 59 enemy submarines were sunk in a brief period of exactly seven months and two days since the start of the Greater East Asia War.

As the war progressed, the Japanese operations were not confined only to the Pacific areas. On September 23, the Imperial Headquarters announced part of the Imperial Japanese Navy advanced to the Atlantic and were engaged in strategic operations in co-operation with the Axis navies. The announcement said that one Japanese submarine operating in the Atlantic recently called at a certain German port and again set sail for strategic waters. The announcement stressed the operations of the Japanese

navy in the Atlantic with the German navy which paralleled the German naval operations in the Indian Ocean were highly significant as representing the joint-Japanese-Axis naval operations against the anti-Axis Powers.

Battles off the Solomons The Japanese navy scored another overwhelming victory on August 7 when the Japanese fleet fought against the combined Anglo-American fleet off the Solomons and sank one battleship of an unidentified type, two cruisers including one of the Astoria type and another of the Australia type as well as three A-class cruisers of an unknown type.

The second battle off the Solomons was engaged on August 24 ending in the victory of the Imperial Navy.

Another sensational victory of the Japanese navy was announced by the Imperial Headquarters on November 14, stating that powerful Japanese naval and air units on November 12 attacked the enemy naval craft and transport ships at Guadalcanar Island in the Solomon group.

On December 3, the Imperial Headquarters made the following announcement: A Japanese Destroyer Squadron launched a furious attack on a powerful enemy naval unit off Lunga on Guadalcanar Island on the night of November 30.

The Achievements in the First Year of the Great East Asia War On December 7, 1942, the Imperial Headquarters made public the following composite war results attained by the Imperial Army and Navy during the course of the past one year.

The Imperial Army:

The Southern Area and the Area of the Aleutians:	
Strength of the enemy forces engaged	600,000
Bodies left behind by the enemy	51,000
Prisoners taken	303,000
Trophies:	
Guns of various types	3,620
Heavy and light machine-guns	11,300
Other firearms	200,000
Tanks	1,440
Automobiles	31,700
Railway carriages	12,200
Planes:	
Shot down	731
Destroyed	993

Captured	235
Total	1,959
Enemy naval and merchant vessels sunk and heavily damaged	104
The China area:	
Strength of the enemy forces engaged	3,600,000
Number of engagements	25,000
Bodies left behind by the enemy	280,000
Prisoners taken	123,000
Trophies:	
Guns of various types	846
Heavy and light machine-guns	3,200
Other firearms	159,100
Automobiles	129
Railway carriages	208
Planes captured, shot down and destroyed	118

Note: Of the results given, those concerning planes and merchant vessels are as ascertained up to November 30. The others are as ascertained up to October 31.

The Imperial Navy:

War Vessels Sunk:	
Battleships	11
Aircraft Carriers (including seaplane tenders)	11
Cruisers	46
Destroyers	48
Special Service Shps	4
Submarines	93
Gunboats	8
Mine-layers	5
Mine-sweepers	7
Torpedo-boats	9
Other small and special war vessels	19
Warship (type unidentified)	1
Total	262
War Vessels Damaged:	
Battleships	9
Aircraft Carriers	4
Cruisers	19
Destroyers	23
Special Service Ships	2
Submarines	58
Gunboats	6
Mine-layers	2
Mine-sweeper	1
Torpedo-boats	2
Other small and special war vessels	26
Warships (type unidentified)	3
Total	155
Special Service Ships, Gun-	

boats, Mine-sweepers, torpedo-boats and others captured	9
Transports and other ships:	
Sunk or damaged	416 (2,240,000 tons)
Captured	503 (220,000 tons)
Warplanes shot down or damaged	Over 3,798

Note: The figures are for the one year ending December 7, 1942.

The loss of the Imperial Army and Navy sustained during the same period is insignificant as compared with that of the enemy forces mentioned above, all battles ending in the victory of the Japanese forces.

Feats of Bougainville

Imperial Rescript A gracious Imperial Rescript in appreciation of the sweeping victories in the Solomons area was granted to the Commander-in-Chief of the Combined Fleet. It was revealed in a communique issued by the Imperial Headquarters at 11:30 a.m., November 11, 1943.

The Imperial Headquarters' communique follows:

"His Majesty the Emperor, summoning the Chief of the Naval General Staff today, was graciously enough to grant the following Rescript to the Commander-in-Chief of the Combined Fleet:

"The Imperial Rescript.

"The Air Units of the Combined Fleet fought valiantly in the Solomons sea area and dealt crushing blows to the enemy fleet.

"We deeply appreciate this.

"The war situation in this region is growing in intensity. We enjoin upon ye to exert further efforts to live up to Our expectations."

In the Rescript, His Imperial Majesty pointed out the growing intensity of the war situation in the Solomons and exhorted the officers and men to make further effort, living up to the Imperial expectations. Having been given this Imperial exhortation, the Imperial Navy renewed its resolve to crush the enemy and satisfy the Imperial Wishes.

The first Imperial Rescript to the Army was granted at the time of the occupation of Heljo, Chosen, in the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5.

The late Field-Marshal Prince Iwao Oyama, Commander-in-Chief of the Japanese Army Forces in the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5 was granted an Imperial Rescript on the occasion of his departure for the front. At the time of the attack on Ryojun (Port Arthur) in that war, an Imperial Rescript was granted, by way of encouragement, before the offensive was started. This was unprecedented.

In the Battle of the Japan Sea, the late Fleet-Admiral Marquis Helbachiro Togo was granted an Imperial Rescript.

Upon the outbreak of the War of Greater East Asia, the late Fleet-Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto was granted an Imperial Rescript.

The Imperial Rescript granted the late Admiral Koga was interpreted as not only for the Admiral himself but, for all the Imperial Forces and even for the industrial fighters on the home front.

With the granting of each Imperial Rescript, the national morale is enhanced still further and far-reaching repercussions are aroused throughout the whole world.

The Achievement As many as 85 enemy vessels, including men-of-war and military transports, were sunk and destroyed in the waters around Solomon and Bismarck archipelagoes during a period embracing the session of the Greater East Asia Assembly held in Tokyo on November 5 and 6, 1943. This period covers from October 27 when the enemy landed on Mono Island, to November 17 when aerial engagements took place over Bougainville Island. The political result attained in the council of the Greater East Asiatic leaders in Tokyo was reinforced greatly by the triumphs in the battles fought during the period, results of which, incorporating the feats of the 6th aerial battle off Bougainville on Dec. 3 (five ships sunk and 3 damaged), are given in details below:

Instantaneously sunk:

- 4 large aircraft carriers
- 2 large cruisers
- 5 cruisers
- 1 cruiser or large destroyer
- 2 large destroyers
- 3 large transports.
- 17 ships—Total

Sunk:

- 4 battleships
- 4 aircraft carriers

- 1 battleship or heavy cruiser
- 4 cruisers
- 3 cruisers or large destroyers
- 6 destroyers
- 1 large warship of unidentified type
- 6 transports
- 4 transports of moderate sizes
- 38 ships—Total
- Total of ships sunk instantaneously or otherwise—55.

Damaged:

- 3 battleships
- 2 large aircraft carriers
- 1 medium-size aircraft carrier
- 11 or 12 large cruisers
- 1 cruiser
- 8 cruisers or destroyers
- 5 destroyers
- 3 large transports
- 1 medium-size transport
- 2 small transports
- 38 or 39 ships—Total.

Grand total—93 or 94 ships, plus many small boats damaged and 1 destroyer set afire on account of mutual fighting between enemy war vessels.

Warplanes shot down: more than 516.
Warplanes destroyed: 16.

Losses suffered by Japan during this time against all the afore-mentioned losses on the side of the adversary:

- 2 destroyers sunk
- 2 cruisers slightly damaged
- 138 planes lost
- 7 aircraft damaged.

Contest of Gilberts The results attained in battles off the Gilbert Islands during November 19-29, 1943, or before the six battles off Bougainville were as follows:

Enemy vessels sunk, instantaneously or otherwise:

- 7 aircraft carriers
- 3 cruisers
- 1 destroyer
- 1 warship of unknown type.

Enemy surface craft damaged:

- 4 aircraft carriers
- 1 battleship or cruiser
- 1 cruiser or battleship
- 2 cruisers
- 2 transports.

Planes downed: 125 including 25 whose fall was not established definitely.

Japanese losses—27 planes.

(For the Progress of New Order Construction in Greater East Asia, turn to the next chapter.)

CHRONICLE OF THE GREATER EAST ASIA WAR

November 1941–November 1944

1941:

November 26—The American Government offers new proposals unacceptable to the Japanese Government.

The American Ambassador to Tokyo gives final advice to 860 Americans in Japan to evacuate.

The American landing party evacuates Shanghai.

December 1—Singapore is set on war conditions by the official order.

The Dutch East Indies mobilizes men in services.

December 2—The British capital ship "The Prince of Wales" enters the naval base of Singapore.

December 8—The Beginning of the Greater East Asia War.

At dawn Pearl Harbor is attacked by the Imperial Naval Air Forces and submarines.

The Imperial Army units land on Malaya, attack Hong Kong, make peaceful entrance to Thailand.

Guam, the Philippine Islands, Wake are simultaneously bombed by the Imperial Naval Air Forces.

The Japanese Declaration of War against the United States and the British Empire.

December 9—Singapore attacked by the Imperial Naval Air Forces on the night.

British air forces in Malaya smashed, while Japanese army units occupy points in North Malaya.

December 10—The first landing of the Imperial Army contingents on the soil of the Philippines.

The Prince of Wales and the Repulse sent to the bottom.

Landing of the Japanese forces on Guam.

December 11—Germany and Italy declare war against the United States.

The Agreement between Japan, Germany and Italy concerning the joint prosecution of the war (signed on January 18, 1942).

December 12—Military Agreement between Japan and French Indo-China.

The Information Board of Japan announces that the present war shall be called "Dai To-A Senso" or the Greater East Asia War, including the campaigns in China.

The Japanese forces succeed in surprise landing on the Southern Luzon. Kowloon occupied. Guam occupied.

December 13—General attack began on Hong Kong.

December 15—Rangoon is bombed.

December 16—The Extraordinary Session of The Imperial Diet is convened in Tokyo.

The Japanese forces land on British Borneo.

December 17—The Extraordinary Session of the Imperial Diet adjourns.

The Government of Brazil announces neutrality.

The High Prize Court of Japan established.

December 18—New Guinea and Iloilo are first attacked by the Imperial Naval Air Forces.

Kunming bombed by the Imperial Army Air Forces.

Forced landing of the Japanese forces on Hong Kong Island.

December 18—Penang occupied.

December 20—The Japanese forces land on Mindanao and occupy Davao.

December 21—Alliance between Japan and Thailand concerning mutual assistance in the prosecution of the war.

December 23—Wake Island occupied.

December 24—The 70th Session of the Imperial Diet is convened in Tokyo.

New contingents of the Japanese army land on the Eastern Luzon.

December 25—Fall of Hong Kong.

Kuching in British Borneo occupied.

December 27—The Government of the Philippine Commonwealth evacuate Manila.

The Japanese forces cross the Perak River on the Malay Front.

December 28—Formal entrance of the Imperial Army into Hong Kong.

Ipo in Malaya reduced.

December 29—Singapore is bombed by a large number of the Imperial Army Air Forces.

December 31—Kuantan on the eastern coast of the Malay Peninsula occupied.

1942:

January 2—Manila falls into the hands of the Imperial Army.

January 4—Changsha of China occupied.

January 5—Brunel in British Borneo occupied.

Japanese new contingents' surprise landing on Selangor, Malaya.

January 7—Manila is placed under the Military Administration of the Imperial Army in the Philippines.

January 8—The American aircraft-carrier Langley sent to the bottom near Johnston Island.

January 10—Burmese cities attacked by the Imperial Army Air Forces.

January 11—Kuala Lumpur occupied. Imperial Navy contingents land on Tarakan Island and at Menado on Celebes Island.

Mölmefn and Tavoy in Burma bombed by the Imperial Army Air Forces.

January 13—Kakas Airfield in the Dutch East Indies occupied.

January 14—Minahassa in Celebes reduced by a special landing party of the Imperial Navy.

January 15—Malacca in Malaya occupied. Attack of the Imperial Army Air Forces on Sembawang and Tengah Airfields in Singapore.

Attack of the Imperial Navy Air Forces on Babo and Sorong in New Guinea, Ambolna in the Moluccas Islands and Rabaul in New Britain.

January 16—Likoepong in Celebes occupied.

Landing of the Japanese forces in Malaya at Batu Pahat and occupation of the airfield.

January 17—Bombing raids on Singapore.

Mengtze in Yunnan Province, China, attacked by the Imperial Army Air squadron.

January 18—The Imperial Navy Air Forces attack enemy ships along the coast of Cebu Island in the Philippines, and stage a bombing raid on Singapore.

Signing of the Military Agreement

among Japan, Germany and Italy in Berlin.

January 19—Occupation of Tavoy in Burma.

Lieutenant-General Rensuké Isogai appointed the first Governor-General of the Hong Kong Occupied Area.

January 20—Air raid on Singapore. Occupation of Endau in Malaya.

January 21—Air raids on Singapore.

Prime Minister General Hideki Tōjō enunciates in his address before the Diet Japan's basic policy for the prosecution of the current war to final victory. (See Chapter on Parties and Politics.)

January 22—Attacks of the Imperial Navy Air Forces on Balikpapan in Borneo, Macassar, Palopo, Kolonedale and Kendari in Celebes, Ternate and Labuha in the Halmahera Islands, Ambolna in Ceram Island, Singapore and Sumatra.

A special landing party of the Imperial Navy lands at Kavieng in New Ireland.

Attack of Mingaladon Airport, Rangoon.

January 24—Occupation of Taao in the British Borneo.

Bombing of Seletar Airfield in Singapore.

Landing of Japanese forces on Balikpapan in Borneo and Kendari in Celebes.

January 25—Occupation of Balikpapan.

Thailand declares war against the United States and the British Empire.

Occupation of Kavieng in New Ireland.

January 26—Occupation of Kendari.

Air fight over the vicinity of Endau in Malaya and attack on Tengah Airfield in Singapore.

January 27—Two Japanese destroyers meet two British destroyers off Endau and sink one of the enemy.

January 29—Attack of Seletar Airfield in Singapore.

Occupation of Pontianak in Borneo. Tripartite Alliance among Britain, Soviet Russia and the United States signed in London.

January 31—Johore Bahru occupied.

Mölmefn occupied.

Landing of Japanese forces at Ambolna in Ceram Island.

February 1—The Imperial Navy stages a counterattack on an enemy naval unit coming to attack the Marshall Islands.

February 3—The Imperial Navy Air Forces attack Sourabaya and Nalang in Java.

The Imperial Army Air Forces bomb piers and dockyards in Singapore and Toungoo Airfield in Burma.

February 4—Occupation of Powan in South Burma.

Bombing of Rangoon and Hlegu airfields.

Commencement of bombarding on Singapore.

Java Sea Battle. The Dutch East Indies Navy practically annihilated.

February 5—The Imperial Army in China commences a new operation in the southern part of Shantung Province.

February 6—Bombing of Mingaladon Airport in Burma and Muntok Airfield in Banka Island, Sumatra.

February 7—Bombing of Palembang Airfield, Sumatra and Mingaladon Airport in Burma.

February 8—Bombing of Palembang Airfield, Sumatra.

February 9—The Imperial Army crosses Johore Straits at 12:16 a.m. and occupies Tengah Airfield in Singapore.

Bombing of Batavia, capital of the Dutch colony.

Occupation of Macassar in Celebes, and Gasmata in New Britain.

The Imperial Headquarters announces the name of the Supreme Commander of the Imperial Army on the Malay front as Lieutenant-General Tomoyuki Yamashita.

February 10—Occupation of Banjarmasin in Borneo and Martaban in Burma.

February 11—A contingent of the Imperial Army thrusts into the city of Singapore.

February 14—Some 32 enemy warships and transports trying to escape from Singapore sunk or destroyed by the Imperial Navy between Feb. 10 and 14.

Occupation of Seletar Naval Base, in Singapore.

The Imperial Army Parachuters descend on Palembang, Sumatra and occupy the airfield.

February 15—The Fall of Singapore. British Commander A. E. Percival sur-

renders unconditionally at 7:50 p.m.

The Imperial Headquarters announces the name of the Highest Commander-in-Chief of All Imperial Armies in the South Seas as General Hisaichi Terauchi and that of the Chief of the General Staff as Lieutenant-General Osamu Tsukada.

Occupation of Palembang, Sumatra.

February 17—Singapore is renamed as "Shōnan."

The Imperial Navy enters into the Shonan Naval Station.

February 18—Bombing of Sourabaya in Java.

February 19—The Imperial Army and Navy units occupy Den Pasar in Bali. Extensive air raids on Port Darwin, Australia.

February 20—Occupation of Dell in Timor Island, and Tandjoengkarang in Sumatra.

February 24—Bombardment of the coast of California by an Imperial submarine.

Occupation of Bankulen, Sumatra.

American attempt of attacking Otori Island (Wake) of Japan frustrated by the Imperial Navy units.

February 25—Bombing of airfields in Java.

February 27-28—The Naval Battle off Java. Complete defeat of the combined fleet of British, American and Dutch navies.

March 1—Landing of the Imperial Army units on Java.

Sea battle off Sourabaya between the Imperial Fleet and the British fleet escaping toward India.

March 2—Landing of the Imperial Navy units at Zamboanga, Mindanao.

Activities of the Imperial submarines near San Francisco on March 1 and near Mendocino on March 2.

The American cruiser Marblehead sunk off the west coast of Australia.

March 3—Air attack on Broome, Australia.

March 4—Bombing of Pearl Harbor. Some 30 enemy warplanes appear over Minami-Torishima Island of Japan and are driven away, losing 7.

March 5—Occupation of Batavia.

March 6—The Imperial Headquarters

publishes the activities and personnel of the Special Attack Flotilla in Pearl Harbor on December 8, 1941.

March 7—Occupation of Sourabaya in Java and Pegu in Burma.

The East Indies is placed under the Imperial Military Administration.

March 8—Occupation of Rangoon in Burma.

Landing of the Imperial forces on the east coast of the Dutch New Guinea.

The Imperial Headquarters announces the name of the Supreme Commander of the Imperial Army in Burma as Lieutenant-General Shojiro Iida.

March 9—Surrender of the enemy combined forces in Java.

The Imperial Headquarters announces the name of the Supreme Commander in the East Indies as Lieutenant-General Hitoshi Imamura.

March 10—The Imperial Naval ensign hoisted on Buka in the Solomon Islands.

March 11—Malaya and Shonan Island are placed under the Imperial Military Administration.

March 12—Landing of the Imperial Army units on North Sumatra.

March 13—Occupation of Medan, Sumatra.

Bombing of Port Moresby, New Guinea.

March 16—Occupation of San Jose, Mindanao.

March 23—Landing of the Japanese forces at Port Blair, South Andaman Island in Bengal Bay.

March 25—The Imperial Diet closes its 79th Session.

March 26—Surrender of enemy troops in the mountains in Sumatra.

March 28—The 7th bombing of Port Darwin, Australia.

March 31—Occupation of Christmas Island south of Java.

Continued air raids on Corregidor Island in Manila Bay since March 24.

April 5—Colombo, Ceylon, attacked by the Imperial Navy Forces.

The 15th bombing of Port Darwin.

April 6—Bombing of Vizagapatam and Cocanada in Madras province, India.

The 23rd bombing of Port Moresby.

April 9—The Imperial Navy units storm Trincomalee, Ceylon, and sink one British aircraft carrier, two cruisers and others.

April 10—Landing of the Imperial Naval units on Cebu in the Philippines.

April 11—Complete occupation of the Bataan Peninsula, Luzon.

Lieutenant-General Marquis Toshitame Mayeda appointed Supreme Commander of the Highest Army Headquarters established in North Borneo.

April 16—Landing of the Japanese forces on Panay Island in the Philippines and occupation of Iloilo.

April 18—American bombers make a show over Tokyo and other cities, aiming at no military establishment but willingly killing school boys playing on a school ground and burning a few of private houses.

April 19—The Imperial Air Forces attack enemy airfields at Chinchow, Lishui, and Yushan in China during 3 days.

April 29—Occupation of Cota Bato, Mindanao.

Bombing of Sian, China.

Occupation of Lahsio, Burma.

April 30—The General Election of House of Representatives of Japan.

May 1—Occupation of Mandalay, Burma.

May 3—Occupation of Bhamo, Burma.

May 4—Occupation of Akyab Airfield in Burma.

May 5—The Imperial forces make forced landing on Corregidor.

May 6—Occupation of Myitkyna, Burma.

May 7—Fall of the Corregidor Fortress.

The Coral Sea Battle. The Imperial Navy sends 2 enemy battleships, two aircraft carriers, and one cruiser to the bottom of the Coral Sea on May 7 and 8.

May 8—Bombing of Chittagong, India.

May 9—The Imperial Navy enters into Manila Bay.

The Imperial Army in the Philippines under the Supreme Commander Lieutenant-General Masaharu Homma triumphantly enters the city of Manila at noon.

May 10—Occupation of Tengyueh, West Yunnan, China.

May 17—Air attack on Bahadurpur and Silchar in Assam Province, India.

May 18—Air raid on Paoshan airfield in Yunnan Province, China.

May 19—Bombing of enemy air bases at Kweilin and Linchow in Kwangsi Province, China.

May 21—Commencement of the clean-up operations of the Imperial Army in China in the eastern and northern regions of China.

May 25—The 80th Session of the Imperial Diet convened and closed on May 28.

May 31—Attack of the Imperial Special submarines on Diego Saurez of Madagascar and the port of Sydney, Australia.

June 4—A surprise attack on Dutch Harbor in the Aleutian Islands.

Burma is placed under the Imperial Military Administration.

June 5—The Imperial Navy attacks the American naval base of Midway, and sinks two American aircraft carriers.

June 7—The Imperial Naval units reduce a number of important points in the Aleutian Islands within a few days following June 7.

June 13—Aerial combats over Port Darwin on June 13 and 14.

June 16—Occupation of Kweiki in Kwangsi Province, and Sanshui in Kwangtung Province, China.

June 21—The Imperial submarines bombard the U.S. military establishments near Port Brown and West Port, Oregon.

June 24—Occupation of the Chinese airfield at Lishui in Chekiang Province.

July 5—American air forces in China defeated in air combats over several airports in Kwangsi and Hunan provinces.

July 7—Occupation of Halkowshih in Chekiang Province.

July 11—Occupation of Wenchow in Chekiang Province.

July 13—Occupation of Julian in Chekiang Province.

July 25—The Imperial Navy Air units conduct night raids on Townsville, Australia on July 25, 27 and 28.

July 30—Air attack on Port Headland, Australia.

- August 1—The inauguration of the Central Administrative Organ of Burma under Dr. Ba Maw.
- August 7—The Sea Battle off the Solomon Islands. The battle lasted 3 days, and the Imperial Navy sent 25 enemy warships and 10 transports to the bottom. This is the beginning of the deadly sea battles in the South Pacific Ocean.
- August 8—The Imperial Naval units beat off an enemy naval force which appeared in the Aleutian waters. The Indian Congress Party adopts an Anti-British Decision and Mahatma Gandhi issues order of nonobedience.
- August 9—British wholesale arrest of Indian Leaders. Beginning of the death struggle of the Indian people for Independence.
- August 24—The Second Battle off the Solomon Islands. The Enemy fleet again defeated.
- September 23—Bombing of Nosan Bay in Atka Island, the Aleutians.
- September 25—The Imperial Headquarters announces that a part of the Japanese Naval Forces has turned its operations to the Atlantic.
- November 12—The sea battle off Guadalcanar Island in the Solomon Islands. The battle continued for 3 days and eight enemy cruisers and four or five destroyers were sent to the bottom while 9 warships were heavily damaged, including 2 battleships.
- November 30—The night battle off Lunga, Guadalcanar.
- December 5 and 10—Japanese Army air units in the Burma area attack the port of Chittagong, British India, and bring down 10 British warplanes (including 3 whose fall could not be ascertained definitely), sink 7 ships, damage 10 more and set ablaze several other ships while making hits at waterfront and setting a train afire. Two Japanese craft fail to return.
- November 24-December 8—Navy air arm in New Guinea shoot down and destroyed 44 enemy planes, sink 2 patrol boats and transports each near Buna. Nine Japanese machines fall.
- December 15-16—In raids of Chittagong and Feni 29 planes are brought down or otherwise destroyed. Severe damages are inflicted on the airdromes and waterfront at the former. Four Nippon craft fail.
- December 23—In an engagement with over 10 B17 planes which came from the direction of Midway Island, Japanese troops in Ohtori (Wake) Island bring down 4 and damage 6. Japanese side's casualties are limited four soldiers and fires at four spots.
- December 21-24—In attacks of Calcutta and Chittagong, harbor facilities and a transport are set on fire and 1 warplane shot down. At Calcutta large-scale fires are caused in a cluster of oil tanks and arms factory. At Feni, 3 craft are brought down and 9 others set on flame or destroyed. In enemy's attempt to attack Akyab, 2 machines are brought down by Japanese ground troops. Two are downed also by ground force at Magwe, where all 6 of a raiding party fall in a later engagement, at the hands of Japanese fliers and ground force. During this period in the same areas of eastern India, 2 Japanese warehouses and 1 plane are burned and 2 planes fail to return.
- December 23—Engaging more than 20 planes which have flown from the direction of Guadalcanar Island, Nippon's navy combat machines over Munda, New Georgia Island, shoot down 14 planes (including 6 uncertain). They are mostly Grumman fighters and Curtiss bombers. Japanese loses 2 planes.
- December 30-31—Navy air units in New Guinea Island attack Merauke and render enemy airbase, being built, unable to be used.
- December 30-January 1—Navy planes engaging raiders over Kiska Island in the Aleutians send down 5 fighters while the ground force there bring down a B25.
- December 31-January 2—Troops in New Britain Island and Solomon Islands repulse over 50 planes in all which persisted in attacking Munda, Rabaul and Suluml. Of more than 30 planes that came over Munda, 6 (including 2 uncertain) are brought down by ground fire.

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End of December-January 12, 1943—Army air units operating in the South Pacific area shoot down 34 planes and

- destroy aground 3 more while the losses on Japanese side amount to 10 planes.
- Late December-January 14—Army in Central China encircle 50,000 troops commanded by Li Tsung-jeng in Mt. Tapieh in the enemy's 5th battle area and destroy their main positions with losses of the foe including 6,500 bodies deserted, 1,500 soldiers being made prisoners, 9 cannons, 45 machine guns and 2,400 rifles captured. The Japanese side suffers casualties of 30 killed and 2,100 others captured.
- January 5-11—Navy fliers over the Solomon Group down and damage 21 planes with Japanese losses being 3 machines. Over the New Guinea area also, 21 are shot down and damaged and the Japanese side loses 6.
- January 16-17—In an attack of Yunnan-I airfield, army flying units shoot down 3 and destroyed on ground 10 planes. At Feni, 4 are downed and 7 destroyed on ground and military works set afire at 5 spots. In raiding Chittagong, these units cause the burning of 4 spots. Japanese loses 1 plane.
- January 15—Navy air units over the Solomon Group down 16 planes with the losses numbering 3 on Japanese Japanese.
- January 17—Navy fliers attack Rabul enemy airbase in New Guinea, and destroy on ground 12 planes including 6 large ones and downed 1 plane, causing fire at more than 10 spots of defense works. No losses suffered by Nippon.
- January 23 and 31—Japanese submarines shell defense works and vessels at anchor at Canton Island of the Phoenix Islands.
- January 29-30—Navy air squadrons, locating a strong enemy fleet cruising east of Rennell Island in the Solomons, brave adverse weather in making a surprise attack on it during the period of dusk on the 29th, dealing thus a severe blow. As the adversaries have turned about in a hurried runaway south-eastward, the navy fliers in daylight on the 30th forced another attack on the enemy forces and forestalled attempted counter-attack with the results: 2 battleships and 3 cruisers sunk, another battleship and cruiser damaged and 3 fighting planes shot down. Japan suffers a total of 10 planes lost. The encounter is to be called officially the Battle off Rennell Island.
- August 7, 1942-February 7, 1943—Navy in the Solomons and New Guinea reap the following results, yet unannounced: 3 destroyers sunk, 4 submarines sunk and 4 more damaged, 3 torpedo and 1 patrol boats sunk, another patrol boat damaged, 205 planes sent down and 32 destroyed and 8 merchant vessels sunk and 2 others damaged. Japanese losses are 1 cruiser damaged, 3 destroyers sunk, 3 submarines sunk and 4 more damaged, 1 patrol boat each sunk and damaged, 215 aircraft lost and 114 others destroyed, 4 merchant ships sunk and 5 more damaged.
- Mid-January-early February—Submarines sink 6 enemy ships off eastern coast of Australia, aggregating 54,000 tons.
- February 1-7—In a battle to southeast of Ysabel Island in the Solomon Group the navy scores the results of 2 cruisers sunk (one instantly), 1 destroyer and 10 torpedo boats sunk and 86 planes caused to crash. Three Japanese destroyers are sunk. This is named the Battle off Ysabel Island.
- February 1-15—Navy in the southwestern Pacific cause 4 planes fall and 5 others harmed through combined effort of fliers and ground force without losses on the Japanese forces.
- February 5-15—Navy fliers together with army and navy units on the ground bring down 5 planes and destroy 2 others without losses on Japanese forces in the Aleutians area.
- February 10-15—Similarly in the Solomons sector 64 planes are downed and 1 demolished with Japan losing 2 machines and receiving light harm on military works.
- February 17—In attack on convoy east of San Cristobal Island in the Solomon Group, navy air squadrons sink 2 destroyers and a large transport. Japanese loses 3 planes.
- February 21—Army and navy forces advance into French leased territory of Kwangchow Bay with understanding of the French Government. Navy fliers carry out night raid of Espiritu Santo Island in the New Hebrides and sink 1 destroyer instantly, set another afire and damaged shore

facilities without losses on Japanese side.

February 16-March 5—War results in the Solomons area and New Guinea are: 113 planes downed and 11 damaged and 4 submarines sunk. Nippon losses are 2 destroyers sunk, 5 transports also sunk and 7 planes lost.

March 8—Navy air arm sinks a transport and demolish another east of New Guinea.

March 10—Navy force ashore bring down 11 out of 60 enemy craft raiding Nippon's airbase in the Solomon Islands. Little damages suffered.

March 6-11—Navy sinks 6 submarines. Nippon losses amount to 2 merchant vessels sunk.

March 11—Navy fliers raiding airdrome in eastern New Guinea send down 18 challenging fighters. Japanese losses: 2 machines.

Navy brings down 3 planes at Kiska Island. Japanese losses small.

March 15—Navy air contingents attack Port Darwin with great damages inflicted on military works and shoot down 16 out of 30-odd planes. Japanese loses 1 machine.

Early 1943-Middle March—Army air corps in New Guinea area shoot down 95 planes and destroyed 30 on ground while in the Solomons sectors it downed 62 and destroyed 15 on ground. Japanese losses 30 planes.

Middle February-Middle March—Army in China crushed the North-of-River raiding party, 118th division and Wang Ching-tsai army north of Lake Tungting. Army also routs the bases of 89th army and Red new 4th army. Results are: 1) Wang Ching-tsai, Chin I-wu, second in command of the raiding party, and 26,500 troops converted to Japanese side 2). Enemy losses include 10,500 bodies left, 25,300 made prisoners, 186 cannons, 503 machine guns, 12,690 rifles, 401,000 charges of ammunition and 827 horses, all captured 3). Japanese losses 192 killed.

March 23—In a raid near Chittagong at dawn, army fliers set ablaze 4 planes and destroy 11 others on ground before returning safely.

March 21 & 25—Attacking Feni, 90 kilometers northwest of Chittagong, and another flying field near the latter, without damages on Japanese side,

army air units score: 3 planes and 4 spots of military works set afire, 20 planes destroyed on ground at Feni and 9 planes set afire and fuel dump destroyed at the other place.

March 19-26—Navy bomb Canton Island three times, hitting barracks, land- and sea-plane bases, without harm to Japanese side.

March 15-27—Navy units together with flying corps sink 4 enemy submarines.

March 27—West of Attu Island, navy damage 2 cruisers and 1 destroyer and forced them flee eastward. Little damages to Japanese attackers.

Army air force attack ships at Cox's Bazar, 100 kilos south of Chittagong, and near Maungdaw, damaging 5 large and 6 smaller craft. Cox's Bazar wharves are destroyed and 6 planes sent down while 7 Japanese machines fall to return.

March 28—In attack of Oro Bay, New Guinea, navy planes shoot down 19 machines and sink 2 transports, 1 destroyer and 1 patrol boat. Japanese losses: 3 planes.

March 31—Of 16 planes engaged over Cox's Bazar, 8 are downed and others damaged before Japanese flying machines return all safe. Near Allannyo in Burma 2 are downed while 1 Japanese plane is lost.

April 1—Navy shoot down 47 planes in encounter over Russell Island of the Solomons. Japanese losses 8 machines.

April 1-4—Air attacks of eastern India net results as follows: (a) 20 planes downed and 18 destroyed on ground. (b) 2 merchantmen sunk and 8 damaged. (c) More than 10 spots of military works set afire. Meanwhile 4 Japanese planes are lost.

April 7—In the Battle off Florida Island, navy air units sink 1 cruiser, 1 destroyer, 10 transports, damage 3 transports and shoot down 37 planes. Japanese losses 6 machines.

April 8—Army have annihilated 6th Anglo-Indian brigade near Inden on Bay of Bengal and captured Cavendish, commander.

April 8—Army based in northern Akyab since late December 1942 took up offensive early in March and is now mopping up after having destroyed the main force of 2 Anglo-Indian divisions. Lieutenant-General Masakazu Kawabe

is the army supreme commander in Burma.

April 5-9—Army air units attack Maungdaw near Burma-India border, and Chittagong, Dhaleswari and Aka Aura in eastern India sector and also fight enemy attackers, achieving results of 7 planes shot down, 15 set afire, and 14 destroyed on ground and 3 transports sunk. Japanese loses 1 plane.

April 10—By this date army land and air units in northern Akyab produce following results of operations: enemy losses include 4,200 bodies left, 2,000 of which being English, 516 made war prisoners, 186 cannons captured, also 374 machine guns, 4,015 rifles, 50 tanks and armored cars, 77 motorcars and 473 horses taken, 5 ships sunk, 29 others damaged, 465 planes downed and 52 cases of fire caused in military works. Japanese loses 422 killed and 46 planes.

April 11—Raiding Oro Bay, New Guinea, navy air forces sink 3 transports, 1 destroyer, down 21 fighters while Japanese loses 6 planes.

April 12—Naval air forces sink 1 transport, down 28 planes, damage over 10 others and destroy more than 20 barracks among other things at Port Moresby while losing 5 planes.

Simultaneously with operations north of Akyab, army in Burma opened campaigns early in February along borders of northwest and northeast. It is now engaged in mopping-up, having inflicted losses on enemy that are enumerated as: 900 bodies deserted, 200 made prisoners, and 7 cannons plus 42 machine guns captured together with other things. Japanese loses 85 killed.

April 14—Attacks on convoy approaching Milne Bay, New Guinea and on Rabi airdrome bring to navy following results: 11 transports sunk, 44 planes downed, more than 10 destroyed on ground and fires caused at 5 spots of defense works. Japanese loses 5 machines.

April 23—Navy planes deal heavy blow to enemy on Funafuti Island of the Ellice group and return without losses.

April 25—Navy fliers, all safe, down 6 fighters in encounter over Gatulal Island in the Solomons.

April 26 & 28—Catching American air corps by raids at Yunnan-I, army air-

men down 5 planes and destroy 41. Nippon loses 2 machines.

Since Middle April, army has fought 80,000 troops of Chiang Kai-shek 24th army corps and 15,000 Red troops all along eastern borders of Shansi Province. As of April 28, enemy losses are counted as: 5,000 bodies left, 7,600 prisoners taken including Sun Tien-ying commanding new 5th army, 19 cannons, 200 machine guns and 4,000 rifles captured. Japanese loses 96 killed.

January-April—American air corps and submarines attack 7 hospital ships for 9 times. Among them the Arabia Maru, Ural Maru and Buenos Aires Maru are damaged and casualties produced. Descriptions of all those ships were given enemies beforehand through Protecting Powers.

Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto, Commander-in-Chief of the Combined Fleet, is killed in action while directing operations in plane which has come to engage enemy, during April. Admiral Mineichi Koga now commands as successor.

Late in April submarines sink 2 enemy transports and 1 tanker in the southwestern Pacific.

May 2—At Port Darwin 21 planes are downed by navy fliers who then return without losses.

April 29-May 3—All along eastern borders of Shansi Province, army causes enemy to desert 2,300 bodies, with 2,500 troops surrendering and 11 cannons being taken together with 150 machine guns and 3,000 rifles. Japanese casualties: 169 killed.

During May, submarines sink 2 ships, of 12,000 and 8,000 tons respectively in the southwestern Pacific.

May 6—Army starts encircling Communist 18th army corps headquarters and 13,000 troops of Liu Poh-cheng's army corps in Shansi-Honan provincial borderland.

May 8—Buthidaung on the upper stream of the Mayu is occupied by army.

May 10—General results of operations in Arakan sector since late December 1942 are: enemy suffer losses of 6,414 bodies left, which Japanese army has buried, 574 prisoners taken including many British, 327 planes downed and 225 otherwise destroyed, 207 cannons taken combined with 459 machine guns, 4,897 rifles, 83 tanks and armored cars, 255 lorries, and 39 vessels

sunk. Japanese has 714 killed, 1,364 wounded and 48 planes lost.

May 11—Since May 5 army has caused following losses to 70,000 Chungking troops about Lake Tungting: 13,000 bodies left, 1,300 prisoners taken, 13 cannons, 145 machine guns and 1,459 rifles captured. Japanese losses are 168 killed.

Navy stages air attack of Merauke, New Guinea.

May 12—By a night raid, Japanese forces on Attu Island repulse foe to seaside after its landing on southern shore and an advance thence in morning. Enemy attempt to land on eastern shore in the evening is frustrated.

May 13—Over Russel Island 38 fighters are downed by navy air units. Japanese loses 2 planes.

May 14—Navy carries out attack on Guadalcanar Island from air.

Army occupies Maungdaw, enemy Japanese defenders withdraw outposts Burma and India.

May 14 & May 15—Enemy on Attu Island uses poison gas.

May 16—Enemy on southern shore of Attu Island starts landing tanks. Nippon defenders withdraw outposts and move to positions in eastern side.

May 17—Enemy who landed on northern shore of Attu Island is resisted fiercely. Enemy reinforces under cover of naval firing and bombing and machine gunning from planes while Japanese forces conduct sorties.

Gen. Pang Ping-hsien, commander of 24th army corps, only troops under direct control of Chiang Kai-shek in North China, stops resistance along Shansi-Honan provincial border and surrenders together with over 70,000 followers including Sun Tien-ying's army.

May 18—Army in Central China from May 12 crushes 5 divisions of Chungking's 10th army corps west of Kunggan, causing enemy to suffer losses of: 4,595 bodies left, 1,945 prisoners taken, 27 cannons, 67 machine guns and 946 rifles captured. Japanese loses 70 killed.

May 20—Army sinks 17 submarines since April 1.

May 22—Army raid almost exterminates planes at Chittagong by downing 19

and destroying 15 on ground. Japanese loses 1 plane.

May 23—Navy airmen damage 1 cruiser, sink 1 destroyer and set another ablaze near Attu Island without losses on Japanese side.

May 24—Since May 5 navy planes sink 4 transports while submarines sink 2 tankers and 7 other ships. Aggregate tonnage 111,400 tons.

Since May 12 submarines in waters of Aleutian Islands damaged 1 battleship, 1 cruiser and 2 other warships.

May 28—Of 20,000 enemy troops at Attu Island, 6,000 are lost.

May 29—Defenders of Attu Island, who numbered well over 2,000, carry out last attack on enemy, under command of Col. Yamazaki, at night. The sick and wounded end their own life.

Army air units attack Chittagong and down 14 planes, destroying 6 on ground, with loss of 1 plane on Japanese side.

May 30—Army and navy ground forces in South Pacific areas down 249 planes and damaged 32 others since March 1.

June 1—Army in Central China has since May 19 dealt heavy blow to shore guards, 10th army corps and other troops opposite Ichang, foe losses being: 18,600 bodies left, 2,678 prisoners taken, 16,000 tons of shipping, 50 cannons, 259 machine guns and 2,523 rifles captured. Japanese loses 237 killed.

June 5—Over Shortland, navy fliers down 20 planes and damaged 5 others. Japanese losses being 5 machines.

Army air force has downed 63 planes and destroyed 40 on ground in eastern India since May 1. Japanese losses are counted as 9 lost and 24 damaged.

June 6—Army air units south of the Yangtze river in China has shot down 17 planes and set afire 22 while losing 4 machines itself since the campaign began there on land.

June 7—Army fliers over Russel Island down 49. Japanese loses 6 combat planes.

June 10—Attacking Hengyang airdrome, army air force down 6 planes and loses 1.

June 12—Navy fliers stormed Russel

Island, downing 33 planes. Japanese loses 5.

June 16—In the Air Battle off Lunga, Guadalcanar Island, navy air arm sinks 7 transports, 1 destroyer and downed over 32 planes. Japanese loses 20 machines.

June 20—Army air corps destroys on ground 3 planes at Wau, New Guinea and loses nothing.

Port Darwin is attacked in Australia, enemy suffering losses of 27 planes downed and 3 destroyed as well as airdrome severely damaged. Japanese loses 3 machines.

June 21—Near Salamaua, New Guinea, army air units down 8 and damaged 3. Nippon loses 1.

June 22—Army combat planes meet no air or anti-aircraft resistance at Port Darwin.

June 20-21, 23 & 25—Army and navy ground forces down 27 planes in Solomon sectors.

June 28 and 30—Navy air force attacks Port Darwin and Brooks Creek, shooting down 21 fighter craft and smashing 15 heavy bombers on the ground. Military facilities are bombed and set ablaze at two places.

June 30—Army and Navy garrison units at New Georgia launch attacks on tens of thousands of enemy landing forces. The damage inflicted on the enemy on land totaled not less than 10,000 casualties.

Navy air forces attack several times on an enemy landing force on Rendova Island and sink or heavily damage six of the transports, 3 of the cruisers and one of the destroyers, besides shooting down 31 of the planes.

Japanese garrison in the vicinity of Salamaua engages in offensive operations against the American forces landing on Nassau Bay and against the Australians advancing from the direction of the Wau area.

During one year since July of last year, the Japanese forces on the continent, fighting against the Chungking and Communist troops scored the following results: Damage caused to the enemy: 457,800 dead bodies left behind 149,000 men taken prisoner; 96,000 desertions for the peace camp; 270 aircraft.

July 2—Army and Navy air units attack

Rendova Island, shooting down 9 planes and destroying one transport and other vessels.

Japanese destroyers attack the harbor of Rendova, and sink one torpedo-boat and destroy another one.

July 3—Navy fighters attack Rendova Island and shoot down 9 planes.

July 4—An enemy force in the Solomons group lands at several places on New Georgia and took place at Kula Gulf. Japanese forces sink one B-class cruiser of the Santa Fe type, one large-sized destroyer of the Strong type, and one unidentified warship.

Navy air units raid an enemy convoy at Rendova Port and sink five transports and other 10 vessels, smash and set ablaze supply dumps and shoot down 23 planes.

July 5—Japanese forces, engaging at Kula Gulf, sink instantaneously one B-class cruiser of the Helena type, one B-class cruiser of an unidentified type and one special service ship.

In the neighborhood of Bobdubi in New Guinea, Japanese forces storm the rear of the enemies, smashing and causing them to disperse in confusion.

July 6—Navy air units attack Brooks Creek, shooting down 16 fighter craft and smashing seven heavy bombers on the ground. Military facilities are bombed and set ablaze at five places.

July 7—Navy air units furiously attack the enemy forces advancing toward Roblana Island south of Munda on New Georgia Island and set afire the entire enemy position, besides shooting down 31 planes.

July 12—Japanese destroyer units engage more than four enemy cruisers appearing off Kulambangra Island and sink two cruisers and set another on fire.

July 14—Japanese garrison on New Georgia Island attacks at the seashore the American forces attempting to land in the eastern area of Munda in a large formation and sinks more than 20 vessels and put the remaining forces to rout.

July 15—Navy air formations attacking the enemy position on Roblana Island shoot down 19 planes.

July 16—Navy air forces, attacking Vanikoro Island, Santa Cruz Islands, Tulagi Island and Guadalcanar Island,

inflict damage on warships and vessels at anchor in those places.

July 17—Navy air forces, engaging 167 planes that raid Buin on Bougainville Island, shoot down fifty-eight planes.

On the night, part of the Japanese defenders on New Georgia turn the rear of the enemy line and attack landing forces east of the Ali River.

July 20—A lone Japanese submarine, encountering an enemy naval unit composed of one cruiser of the San Francisco type and three destroyers in the sea south of San Cristoval, breaks through the tight cordon of enemy destroyers and sinks the cruiser.

July 21—Navy air units raid a convoy at Rendova Port and score the following results: one medium-sized transport sunk instantaneously; two large-sized transports damaged; one large type destroyer and more than 10 landing boats sunk.

July 22—Japanese special service ships, destroyers and their protecting air units shoot down nine planes in the Solomons area.

July 25—Air units in the China area during July 23-25 raid on Hengyang, Lingling, Paoching, Chihkiang and Kienow and blast their runways and attack military facilities.

Army air units shoot down 28 planes in the vicinities of Hengyang, Lingling and Kwellin.

July 25 & 26—Navy fighter units shoot down 27 planes on Bougainville Island.

July 28—Five enemy planes are shot down over New Britain Island by the Japanese planes.

July 30—During July 26-30, air forces in the China area, attacking Hengyang and Kienow, blast their airfields, railway stations and neighboring military facilities, and shoot down 16 planes.

Army and Navy units garrisoned at Kiska Island complete their withdrawal at the latter part of July without casualty or resistance from the enemy. They are immediately engaged in new duties.

August 1—Navy air units attack warships and vessels at Rendova Port and its neighboring military facilities three times, and score the following results: large-sized transport, four medium-sized transports, six small-sized trans-

ports, one destroyer and more than six landing boats sunk; one cruiser and one vessel for landing purposes damaged; nine planes shot down; a torpedo-boat base, wharves and supply dumps at Bau Island outside the mouth of the port set ablaze.

August 4—Navy air units shoot down 25 fighters over Munda.

August 6—A Japanese destroyer unit, attacking an destroyer squadron in the waters west of Kulambangra, sinks one destroyer.

Navy fighter planes shoot down 15 combat planes raided Shortland Island.

Navy air units, attacking on Rendova Port, sink two medium-sized transports, one small-sized transport and about 8 landing boats, destroy one medium-sized transport and one tug-boat and shoot down five fighters.

August 12—Navy air units shoot down 34 aircraft over Buin on Bougainville Island.

An American air unit composed of five Consolidated B-24 and three Boeing B-17 bombers appears over North Chishima. A Japanese Army air unit shoots down three of the raiders.

August 13—Navy air forces attack in the Lunga and Rendova areas, and in the Lunga attack, sink three large-sized transports, destroy one airfield and set afire another, and in the Rendova area, shoot down six fighter over Munda.

August 15—Navy air units carry out a devastating attack on an enemy convoy in the waters near Vella Lavella. In the vicinity south of Vella Lavella Island, one large-type transport is instantaneously sunk, three large and medium-sized transports are set afire and 13 aircraft are shot down by Japanese first combat unit. The second combat unit sinks two large-type transports and one landing vessel, drops missiles in close proximity to one large-type transport, one large-type destroyer and one tug-boat, strafes 10 landing boats and shoot down 11 planes. The third combat unit drops a missile in close proximity to one cruiser, set afire two places on the ground and shoot down four enemy planes. The fourth combat unit sinks one large-type destroyer and damage one destroyer 10 nautical miles south of Simbo Island and 15 miles south-

east of Biloa. Another Japanese attacking force sinks instantaneously one large-type cruiser, sinks one light cruiser (or large-type destroyer) and lodges one torpedo each into a cruiser and a destroyer off Gatukal Island.

August 15 & 16—Navy air units attack the Fabuba airfield west of Lae and shoot down 39 planes, besides blasting or setting afire five on the ground.

August 23—Air forces in China attack Chungking and Wanhshien and pound the military establishments, and shoot down eight planes in the skies of Chungking. At Wanhshien they blast military installations and sink several vessels on the Yangtze River.

August 24—Air forces in the China area, in the sky of Wanhshien, blast the wharf, supply dumps, and a group of enemy vessels and set them on fire, the military establishments, and shoot down, sink one vessel and damage two others, and attacking 20 odd enemy planes that come raiding the Wuhan district, they shoot down 10 of them.

September 1—A large formation of enemy planes attacks Minami-torishima. The island is also bombarded by warships. The Japanese shoot down 12 enemy aircraft.

September 2—Navy fighters shoot down 19 aircraft which appear over the skies of Wewak, New Guinea.

September 4—Army and Navy air forces attack an enemy convoy which starts landing operations at Hopol and sink six transports, one cruiser and a large number of barges, besides blasting or setting afire five enemy transports and two destroyers, and shoot down 27 planes.

September 12—Army and Navy air units shoot down nine bombers which attack Kitchishima and heavily damage two others.

An enemy B-class cruiser is torpedoed and sunk by a Japanese submarine in the waters east of the New Hebrides Islands.

Navy air units, attacking enemy ships at the Morobe Bay, damage and set afire one large transport, four medium-sized transports, two tug-boats, and one submarine and sink one tug-boat.

September 14—At Buin, Navy air units shoot down 60 planes.

September 20—Airfields, military facilities and shipping at various localities in the Chungking-occupied region, that is, Kunming, Kienow, Nanyung, Nanning, Patung, Juyuan, Yunfu and others, are heavily raided by Japanese air units in China during September 10-20, and they shoot down 18 planes in combats and destroy 24 others on the ground.

September 21-23—Attacking an convoy which make landing operations at a point north of Finschhafen in New Guinea, Army and Navy air forces sink three cruisers, two destroyers and one large-sized transport, set ablaze two cruisers, and two small-sized transports, damage two other cruisers by near-hits, and shoot down 22 planes. Enemy bridgeheads are also blasted.

October 1—In the vicinity of Biloa, Vella Lavella Island, Navy air units sink one destroyer, two medium-sized transports and one small-sized transport, and shoot down 10 planes, and damage another.

October 6—One enemy cruiser and three destroyers are sent to the bottom by a Japanese destroyer squadron in the waters west of Vella Lavella Island.

October 6 & 7—Army and Navy forces repulse a powerful enemy which bombs and bombards Otorishima.

October 8—A British force of about 200 which comes as far as Maungdaw is completely wiped out by the Japanese.

October 12—Navy air force and the Army and Navy ground units shoot down or damage 17 planes which attack Rabaul.

October 15—Navy air units attack a convoy staying in Buna Bay, New Guinea, sink four large transports, damage one medium-sized transport and shoot down more than 14 planes.

October 27—Navy air units sink two cruisers (instantaneously), one large transport (instantaneously), one small transport and damage one large cruiser and one small transport near the landing point on Mono Island, south of Bougainville Island.

November 1—Japanese surface units engage a battle with a powerful fleet of cruisers and destroyers outside of Gazelle Bay, Bougainville Island, and

sink one large-sized cruiser (instantaneously), two large-sized destroyers (instantaneously), two large-sized cruisers and one cruiser or large-sized destroyer, damage one or two large-sized cruisers and two destroyers and set afire others.

A part of the enemy lands near Cape Torokina, Bougainville Island.

November 2—Japanese forces between the night of October 31 and the morning of November 2 sink or damage 14 warships, four transports and transports and numerous smaller vessels off Bougainville Island and shoot down 201 planes over Rabaul in New Britain Island.

At Buka, Japanese land units shoot down 39 planes.

November 5—Navy air units, discovering enemy mobile forces in the waters south of Bougainville Island, sink one large-sized aircraft-carrier (instantaneously), one medium-sized aircraft-carrier, two large-sized cruisers and two cruisers (or large-sized destroyers).

November 6 & 7—Army units in the New Guinea sector attack airfields of Madzab and Marawasa, smashing or setting aflame about 50 planes and shooting down 18.

November 8—Navy air units, attacking convoys and their escorting fleet in the sea area south of Bougainville Island, sink four battleships (instantaneously), two cruisers (instantaneously), three destroyers and four transports and damage one battleship, six large-sized cruisers, four cruisers or large-sized transport, and shoot down more than 15 planes.

November 9—Six attacks are carried out between November 6-9 against enemy airfields at Madzab, Tumbu and other points in the basin of Ramu and Markham Rivers by the Japanese. 59 enemy planes are shot down and more than 120 planes, destroyed and set afire.

November 11—In waters off Bougainville Island, Navy planes sink one cruiser or large-sized destroyer (instantaneously), damage one battleship, two large-sized aircraft carriers, one destroyer, and shoot down 2 planes.

Navy air units and surface units, intercepting about 200 planes which attack over Rabaul, shoot down 71 of them.

November 13—In waters off Bougainville Island Navy air units sink one large-sized cruiser (instantaneously), one cruiser (instantaneously) and one destroyer and damage one battleship and medium-sized aircraft-carrier.

November 17—Attacking a convoy in waters off Torokina Island, Navy air units sink three transports, damage one transport and one destroyer, and shoot down two planes.

November 21—A part of the American forces land on Makin and Tarawa Islands.

November 25—Japanese naval landing forces garrisoned on Tarawa and Makin Islands die a glorious death. All Japanese officers and men on the two islands take the same fate. The commander of the Japanese Garrison is Rear-Admiral Keiji Shibasaki.

November 27—In waters off the Gilbert Islands, Navy air units in two aerial battles on November 26 and 27 sink two aircraft-carriers and two cruisers and damage two aircraft-carriers and one cruiser or battleship.

November 28—Naval airplanes attack a convoy anchoring in a lagoon of Makin Island and sink one large-sized cruiser instantly and heavily damaged and set ablaze one large-sized cruiser and one transport.

November 29—Naval formations attack warships in the Gilbert area and sink two aircraft carriers and one warship of unidentified category and damage one large-sized cruiser.

December 3—Navy air units catch up and attack a mobile force in the sea area south of Bougainville Island and obtain the following war results—three aircraft-carriers (2 of them instantaneously), one battleship or large-sized cruiser and one large-sized cruiser, sunk; one battleship, heavily damaged and set ablaze and one large-sized cruiser and one destroyer damaged.

Army units engaging in offensive operations against the Chungking forces in the sixth war zone since November 2 deal a thoroughgoing blow to the enemy and completely occupy the wall town of Changteh.

Army and Navy air units bomb the harbor of Calcutta and damage five spots of waterfront and shoot down 40 planes.

December 5—On the morning, Japanese garrison forces in the Marshall Islands shoot down 20 enemy carrier-borne planes which attack the base.

In the evening, Navy air units attack the enemy task force and sink one medium-sized aircraft-carrier (instantaneously), one large-sized cruiser and damage one large-sized aircraft-carrier and another cruiser.

December 15—Navy air units attacking the enemy forces which made a landing on Cape Merkus, New Britain Island, sink one large-sized transport, three small-sized transports and more than 30 landing vessels and damage one large cruiser and one small-sized transport.

December 16—Attacking the enemy landing force on Cape Merkus, Navy air units sink one large-sized landing vessel and more than 20 landing barges, damage two special transports, one large landing barges and numerous landing barges, and shoot down five planes.

December 17—At Cape Merkus, Navy air units sink one small-sized transport, one tug-boat, four large landing barges and several landing barges, damage two small-sized transports, one tug-boat and two large landing barges, and shoot down 8 planes.

December 19—Army planes on December 18 and 19 carry out raids on the bases at Kunming and Yunnan-I, and shoot down 15 American planes and damage 17 others on the ground.

December 21—Navy air units, in the vicinity of Cape Merkus, sink 9 transports, about 31 landing boats, two cruisers or destroyers, and two torpedo boats, and damage two destroyers, a submarine chaser and another transports.

December 22—Army Eagles make surprise-raids on Kunming airfield, blasting 40 planes in aerial combats and attacking on the machines concentrated on the ground.

Navy air units bomb American bases and supply dumps in and around Cape Merkus and cause a big explosion in one place and fires in 11 other places.

December 23—Naval Wild Eagles shoot down 24 planes over Rabaul.

In the vicinity of Cape Merkus, Navy air units heavily damage and

set afire two American landing vessels and cause fires in eight places.

December 24—Navy air units shoot down 58 planes over Rabaul.

December 25—Navy air units sink one warship of an unidentified category off Bougainville Island.

December 26—Navy air units strike heavy blows at the landing enemy on Cape Gloucester, New Britain Island, sinking two cruisers, two transports and heavily damage three large transports, besides shooting down 20 planes.

In the vicinity of Cape Merkus Navy air units sink a tug-boat and and heavily damage two special transports, one landing vessel and a submarine chaser, besides blasting two enemy positions on Pilelo Island off New Britain.

December 27—In the vicinity of Cape Merkus, Navy air units sink two special transports, and two torpedo boats, shooting down 18 planes.

The same morning, Navy air units shoot down 23 planes over Rabaul.

December 31—During last three months Japanese warships as well as Army and Navy air units sink 14 enemy submarines.

Navy air units in an attack on an American convoy off Cape Merkus sink a medium-sized transport and one or two small transports and shoot down four planes.

1944

January 2—Navy air units destroy scores of American aircraft over Kavieng on New Britain Island, and Rabaul, on January 1 and 2.

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January 9—Navy air units shoot down 52 American planes attacking Rabaul.

January 14—Intercepting about 160 American planes that come attacking Rabaul, navy air units shoot down 65 of them.

Navy air units attack American airfields, barracks and supply dumps at Torokina and Munda since the night of January 13.

January 15—Army air units in New Guinea area surprise-raid and attack American airfields at Madzab, Marawa and Tenli, cause damage to the installations attached thereto and the quartering area, shoot down 6 planes and damage or set afire 34 planes.

January 17—Navy air units, surface units and ground units shoot down 102 American planes which came attacking Rabaul.

January 22—Navy air units and the Army and Navy garrison forces shoot down 62 enemy attacking planes on Rabaul.

January 23—Navy air units shoot down 63 aircraft which raided Rabaul.

Beginning in the dawn of the previous day, Navy air units attack the enemy vessels and positions around Cape Merkus, Cape Gloucester and Finschhafen and sink one transport and one tug-boat as well as damaging one transport.

January 24—Navy air units and the Army and Navy garrison forces on New Britain Island shoot down 24 planes trying to attack Rabaul.

January 26—Navy air units and the Army and Navy garrison forces on New Britain Island smash 67 raiders on Rabaul.

January 27—Japanese units at Rabaul shoot down 34 planes which attacked there.

January 28—Navy air units and the Army, Navy garrison forces shoot down more than 95 raiders on Rabaul.

January 29—In the Solomon Islands area, Navy air units and the Army and Navy garrison forces stationed there shoot down 39 enemy raiders.

January 30—Navy air units cooperating with the garrison forces stationed in the Solomon Islands shoot down 63 enemy raiders.

January 31—Navy air units and the Army and Navy garrison forces stationed in the Solomon Islands shoot down 14 enemy raiders.

February 1—Enemy lands on Kuezyerin and Ruot Islands.

February 3—A large enemy cruiser is sunk by a Japanese submarine in the waters near Wotje Island in the Marshall Group.

February 4—Army air units in the Burma area, taking the initiative, launch a furious attack against the British-Indian Army which tried to recapture Burma in order to open up the Burma Route.

February 6—Japanese garrison forces on Kuezyerin and Ruot Islands in the Marshall Group meet glorious death. The number of the dying men total 4,500. The Commander of the Garrison on Ruot Island is Rear-Admiral Michiyuki Yamada and that on Kuezyerin, Rear-Admiral Monzo Akiyama. Civilians in the Army and Navy service, numbering about 2,000 on the two islands, also share the same fate as the garrison units.

February 6, 7 and 9—Navy air units and the Army and Navy garrison in Rabaul shoot down 117 planes.

February 21—A powerful American task force attacks the Japanese base on Truk. Two enemy cruisers are sunk, one aircraft-carrier and one warship destroyed, more than 54 enemy planes shot down by the Japanese.

February 22—Navy air units engage a battle with the enemy task force appeared in the waters east of the Marianas.

February 23—Navy air units, in the sea area off Marianas, sink one enemy aircraft-carrier and three large warships and damage another plane-carrier.

200 enemy carrier-borne planes raid Saipan, Tinian and Guam Islands.

February 29—The enemy makes a landing on Los Negros Island in the Admiralty Group but the Japanese forces are putting up a stiff resistance there to push the enemy back into the sea.

March 8—Army units in cooperation with the Indian National Army launch an offensive against the British-Indian Army in the vicinity of the China Hills.

March 11 and 12—52 raiders are shot down over Wewak.

March 15—Japanese units, together with the Indian National Army, cross the Chidwin River near Homalin and rapidly hurl themselves closer to the Indian border.

March 28—The Japanese and Azad Hind forces advancing toward the Imphal plains reach a point about 40 kilometers north of that fortress and sever the Imphal-Kohima roadway.

Following the swift reduction of Sangjiah on March 24, Japanese forces also take Mission, north of Imphal.

April 6—Japanese forces advance along the Shibong-Palel road for Palel.

Japanese and Indian National Army forces occupy Kohima.

April 7—Takkah falls into Japanese hands.

April 8—Tammu in Kabau Valley, is occupied by the Japanese.

April 10—Japanese units enter Moroh.

April 12—Japanese units enter an enemy stronghold west of Lake Logtak.

Japanese forces reduce the 3838 Height, north of Imphal.

April 15—A part of Japanese forces occupy Kongbok Heights, west of Bishenpur.

Japanese units tear down the enemy defenses at the 4,057 Height, northeast of Imphal.

Another fierce battle rages northwest of Kohima at Zubsa.

April 17—Japanese Wild Eagles shoot down 41 planes in their attack on Palel airfield.

April 18—Japanese-Indian Allied forces take Morran.

Japanese forces in the North China area cross the Yellow River and launch an offensive against Tang Enpo's army.

April 20—Japanese forces in the North China area reduce Chengchow.

April 23—Japanese Army forces occupy an elevation east of Height 2,465 in a drive against Palel.

April 25 & 26—In the vicinity of Imphal Japanese air units shoot down 12 enemy transport planes and 11 fighter planes as well as damage 8 transport planes.

April 26—Enemy troops stationed in front of Palel start their retreat toward Imphal.

April 27—In the waters west of Hollandia, New Guinea Island, Navy air units sink one cruiser, damage one warship and make an assault on the enemy task force.

April 30—Japanese units completely occupy Height 3,525 north of Palel.

April 30 and May 1—An enemy task force appears in the waters off the Caroline Islands and bombs Truk Island.

May 1—Japanese forces in the North China area reduce Hsuechang. An enemy task force bombs Mortlock Island.

May 3—Japanese units in the China area reduce Linju, pierce the wall of Jangcheng, and plunge headlong toward Loyang.

May 8—Fall of Tengfeng. Advance of Japanese units reach Iyang, south of Loyang.

May 9—Tungchanchen and Peihanchuan are taken. Japanese air forces attack against the enemy's air base at Sulchwan, Kiangsi Province.

May 14—Army forces in the Burma area advance toward Blshenpur.

May 20—An enemy task force appears in the waters east of the Ogasawara Group and raids Minami-torishima.

May 21—Fall of Loyang. An enemy task force attacks Minami-torishima.

May 24—An enemy task force appears in the waters off Otorishima and air-roads the island, but Japanese units on the spot shoot down 30 planes and damage two others.

May 27—On Wiak Island the Japanese sink one cruiser and one transport instantaneously as well as six or seven tug-boats and other vessels, besides damaging three warships and three tug-boats.

With the completion of the Honan operations, Army units unleash their offensive against the Sixth and Ninth War Zones in Honan Province (advancing from both sides of Lake Tungting.)

June 3—Army units in the China area possess Pingkiang.

June 10—Laotao River north of Changsha is crossed.

Hsiangyin is occupied.

June 13—An enemy task force raids Japanese bases at Tinian, Saipan and Omyajima (Guam) Islands since June 11. The Japanese sink one warship and shoot down more than 121 planes as well as damaging three others.

June 15—An enemy task force attacks the Ogasawara group and air-raids Chichijima and Yojima, and 17 enemy planes are shot down.

June 16—An American air force in China carries out a small-scale raid on Northern Kyushu. More than 7 enemy planes are shot down and 3 damaged.

June 18—Occupation of Changsha and Liling.

June 19—Part of the Combined Japanese Fleet catches up with an enemy task force in the waters west of Mariana and immediately launches an attack.

June 20—The Japanese sink or damage more than five aircraft-carriers, sink one battleship and down more than 100 planes in the vicinity of Mariana.

June 24—Navy air units sink two aircraft-carriers and two warships of an unidentified type and shoot down more than 55 planes at a point south of Ogasawara Island.

June 26—Army units in the Shanghai area commence their operations against the Chungking forces in the Third War Zone.

July 7—Japanese forces on Saipan launch their final attack on the enemy, inflicting enormous losses.

July 10—Army air units in the Burma area attack an enemy airfield at Myitkyina, and damage or set ablaze 39 planes.

July 13—Army air units in the China area bomb Kweilin.

July 18—General Yoshijiro Umezu is appointed Chief of the Army General Staff.

Appended below are the authentic scores of the battles fought over and around Taiwan, off the Philippines and on Leyte Island of the archipelago during October-November, 1944.

A total of 234 American vessels, including 48 aircraft carriers and 16 battleships but not including 115 landing craft, has been sunk or damaged in the period

between October 12 and November 5, according to a list compiled by the Board of Information.

The list shows that 57 American warships were sunk or damaged in the Aerial Battle off Taiwan, 78 warships and transports sunk or damaged by sea and air actions in the Philippine area, 90 more by actions in the Leyte Gulf by the Army and Navy Air Forces and nine more by a torpedo boat attack east of Peililiu and by action of the ground forces in the Leyte Gulf area.

WAR RESULTS

October 12 to November 5, 1944

(Compiled by the Board of Information)

Type of Vessel	Sunk &			Tot.
	Sunk	Dam.	Dam.	
Aircraft carrier	22	26	—	48
Battleship	2	14	—	16
Battleship or cruiser	1	1	—	2
Cruiser	15	14	—	29
Cruiser or destroyer	11	4	—	15
Destroyer	10	6	—	16
Warship unidentified & observed on fire	—	31	—	31
Transport	17	41	—	58
Large landing craft (Landing craft)	17	2	—	19
		(115)	—	
Total	95	139		234

I. Air Battle Off Taiwan, Oct. 12-16

Type of Vessel	Sunk Dam. Tot.		
	Sunk	Dam.	Tot.
Oct. 12:			
Aircraft carrier	4	1	5
Unidentified warship	—	11	11
Oct. 13:			
Aircraft carrier	3	1	4
Cruiser or destroyer	1	—	1
Battleship	—	1	1
Cruiser	—	1	1
Warship observed on fire	—	7	7
Oct. 14:			
Aircraft carrier	3	2	5
Battleship	2	—	2
Cruiser or destroyer	—	1	1
Unidentified warship	—	2	2
Warship observed on fire	—	5	5
Oct. 15:			
Aircraft carrier	1	3	4
Cruiser	—	1	1
Oct. 16:			
Aircraft carrier	—	1	1
Battleship	—	1	1
Total	17	40	57

Results by Categories

Type of Vessel	Sunk	Dam.	Tot.
Aircraft carrier	11	8	19
Battleship	2	2	4
Cruiser	3	4	7
Cruiser or destroyer	1	1	2
Unidentified warship	—	13	13
Warship observed on fire	—	12	12
Total	17	40	57

II. By Sea and Air Actions in the Philippine Area, Oct. 19—Nov. 5

Oct. 19:	No.	Reference
Sunk:		
Destroyer	1	Ene. Fl. in Leyte G.
Damaged:		
Battleship	2	" " "
Transport	1	" " "
Oct. 20:		
Sunk:		
Large transp.	1	" " "
Damaged:		
Aircraft car.	2	Ene. T.F. E. of P.I.
Oct. 24:		
Sunk:		
Aircraft car.	1	" " "
Transport	*4	By submar. action
Damaged:		
Aircraft car.	4	Ene. T.F. E. of P.I.
Cruiser	2	" " "
Oct. 25:		
Sunk:		
Aircraft car.	4	By surf. cr. E., P.I.
Cruiser	4	" " "
Destroyer	3	" " "
Aircraft car.	1	By Kamikaze S.A.F.
Battleship	1	Ene. T.F. E. of P.I.
Aircraft car.	1	By submar. action
Destroyer	1	" " "
Damaged:		
Sunk:		
Aircraft car.	2	By surf. cr. E., P.I.
Cruiser or destroyer	3	" " "
Aircraft car.	2	By Kamikaze S.A.F.
Oct. 26:		
Sunk:		
Aircraft car.	1	By Kamikaze S.A.F.
Damaged:		
Aircraft car.	1	" " "
Oct. 27:		
Sunk:		
Transport	1	" in Leyte G.
Damaged:		
Battleship	1	" " "
Cruiser	1	" " "
Unidentified warship	1	" " "
Transport	1	" " "

Oct. 28:		
Damaged:		
Transport	2	Ene. Fl. in Leyte G.
Oct. 29:		
Damaged:		
Aircraft car.	1	By Kamikaze S.A.F.
Cruiser	1	" " "
Unidentified warship	2	" " "
Oct. 30:		
Sunk:		
Aircraft car.	1	By Kamikaze S.A.F.
Damaged:		
Aircraft car.	2	" " "
Battleship	1	" " "
Nov. 1:		
Sunk:		
Cruiser	1	By Kamikaze S.A.F.
Battleship or cruiser	1	Ene. Fl. in Leyte G.
Cruiser	3	" " "
Damaged:		
Cruiser	1	By Kamikaze S.A.F.
Battleship or cruiser	1	" " "
Battleship	1	" " "
Destroyer	1	" " "
Battleship	3	Ene. Fl. in Leyte G.
Nov. 1 to 2:		
Sunk:		
Transport	1	" " "
Cruiser	1	" " "
Destroyer	3	" " "
Nov. 3:		
Sunk:		
Aircraft car.	1	By Submar. E., P.I.
Nov. 5:		
Sunk:		
Aircraft car.	1	By Kamikaze S.A.F. East of P.I.
Damaged:		
Aircraft car.	1	" " "
Aircraft car.	1	By Air Force East of P.I.

Results by Categories

Type of Vessel	Sunk	Dam.	Tot.
Aircraft carrier	11	16	27
Battleship	—	9	9
Cruiser	9	5	14
Destroyer	8	1	9
Transport	*7	4	11
Battleship or destroyer	1	1	2
Cruiser or destroyer	—	3	3
Unidentified warship	—	3	3
Total	36	42	78

Note: Fl.—Fleet; T.F.—Task force; Ene.—Enemy; E.—East; Submar.—Submarine; surf. cr.—surface craft; S.A.F.—special

attack force; Aircraft car.—Aircraft carrier; (*) over.

III. Actions in the Leyte Gulf by Army and Navy Air Force, Oct. 19-26

Oct. 19 to 25:	Sunk	Dam.
Transport	5	17
Cruiser	2	3
Destroyer	1	3
Large landing barge	17	2
Battleship	—	3
Oct. 25 (night) to 26:		
Transport	1	18
Cruiser	1	1
Cruiser or destroyer	10	—
Destroyer	—	1
Unidentified warship	—	3

Results by Categories

Type of Vessel	Sunk	Dam.	Tot.
Transport	6	35	41
Cruiser	3	4	7
Destroyer	1	4	5
Large landing barge	17	2	19
Cruiser or destroyer	10	—	10
Aircraft carrier	—	2	2
Battleship	—	3	3
Unidentified warship	—	3	3
Total	37	53	90

IV. Torpedo Boat Attack East of Peililu, October 28

	Sunk	Dam.
Transport	4	2

V. By Action of Ground Force in Leyte Gulf Up to October 30

Type of Vessel	Sunk	Dam.	Sk. & Dam.
Destroyer	1	1	—
Cruiser	—	1	—
Landing barge	—	—	115

The U.S. Losses Over 290 Warships Including 77 Carriers in a Year

In the one year from December, 1943, up to November, 1944, the United States forces lost the staggering total of more than 290 warships including 77 aircraft carriers, 26 battleships, 65 cruisers and 40 destroyers either sunk or damaged in the various theaters of the War of Greater East Asia, besides losing 7,270 planes shot down or damaged.

The Imperial Sea, Land and Air Forces thus achieved brilliant war results during the 12 months, the details of which are given in the following list:

Warcraft Sunk (Including those instantaneously sunk)

Aircraft carriers:	
December, 1943	4
February, 1944	1
June	2
October	22
November	5
Total	34

(In addition, more than five were either sunk or damaged)

Battleships:	
December, 1943	1
June	2
July	1
October	2
November	1
Total	7

(In addition, more than one were sunk or damaged)

Cruisers:	
December, 1943	6
February, 1944	4
March	2
April	1
May	1
June	6
September	1
October	8
November	9
Total	38

Destroyers:	
February, 1944	2
June	4
July	2
September	2
October	7
November	4
Total	21

Warcraft of unidentified category:	
December, 1943	1
February, 1944	3
June	1
September	3
Total	8

Transports:	
December, 1943	More than 24
January, 1944	5
February	3
March	1
April	2
May	3
June	3
July	2
August	2
September	2
October	More than 12
November	15
Total	More than 74

Torpedo-boats:	
December, 1943	5
January, 1944	3
February	12
March	4
May	2
November	5
Total	31

Other craft:	
December, 1943	2
January, 1944	1
March	1
May	7
September	14
November	2
Total	27

Warcraft Damaged

(Including those heavily damaged)

Aircraft carriers:	
December, 1943	1
February, 1944	2
March	3
April	2
June	6
September	3
October	23
November	5
Total	43

Battleships:	
December, 1943	1
March, 1944	2
June	2
October	8
November	6
Total	19

Cruisers:	
December, 1943	3
February, 1944	2
June	7
August	1
September	1
October	11
November	2
Total	27

Destroyers:	
December, 1943	3
February, 1944	4
April	1
May	2
June	2
July	3
October	3
November	1
Total	19

Warships of unidentified category:	
December, 1943	1
February, 1944	1

March	1
April	1
May	3
June	1
September	3
October	16
November	3
Total	30

Transports:	
December, 1943	34
January, 1944	2
February	12
June	15
September	4
October	6
November	21
Total	94

Torpedo-boats:	
December, 1943	1
March, 1944	1
April	2
November	5
Total	9

Other craft:	
December, 1943	2
January, 1944	1
February	1
March	3
September	2
Total	9

Aircraft shot down:	
Dec., 1943	More than 469
January, 1944	1,063
February	1,107
March	218
April	199
May	157
June	742
July	235
August	122
September	474
October	879
November	244
Total	5,911

Aircraft damaged:	
December, 1943	12
January, 1944	31
February	More than 103
March	57
April	48
May	67
June	100
July	169
August	284
September	162
October	172
November	174
Total	1,379

Imperial Headquarters' Communique

(November 27)

"1. Our units that have been continually chasing the fleeing enemy troops after reducing Kweilin and Liuchow, on November 24 captured Nanning, the last stronghold of the U.S. air force remaining in Kwangsi Province.

"Other units on the same day, penetrated Limingwan the southern gate of Kweichow Province and entered into the said province.

"2. The composite war results obtained by our units in the China area since the commencement of the offensive against the Kweiling and Liuchow sectors in the early part of September up to the reduction of these areas in the middle of November follow:

*Losses inflicted on enemy:

Bodies picked up by our side.	*39,000
Prisoners	*18,200
Aircraft shot down by ground batteries	77
(Of which 23 unconfirmed)	
War trophies:	
Various kinds of cannons ..	411

Heavy & light machine-guns	1,245
Rifles	*17,000
Planes	18
Locomotives	108
Passenger and freight cars	916
Automobiles and tanks	62

In addition, a large amount of weapons, ammunition, provisions and aircraft accessories.

*Losses on our side:

Killed	*4,500."
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Note: (*) indicates about.

December 8—"The approximate figures of the members of the American and British forces killed and injured by the Imperial Japanese Army and Navy in the past one year follow:

American forces	226,000
British forces	78,000
(of which the British numbered some 20,000)	

"Against the foregoing, losses of the Imperial Army and Navy were about 168,000 killed and wounded."

MANCHOUKUO

Geography

Position Extending between 38°43' and 53°30' North latitude and 117°50' and 135°20' East longitude Manchoukuo is bordered on the north by Siberia and on the east by Chosen and the Maritime Province of Siberia.

On the west its borders touch Outer Mongolia, Eastern Inner Mongolia and China proper, while on the south its shores are washed by the waters of the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Pechili, the coast line extending over 855 nautical miles.

Topography Topographically, Manchoukuo is a vast expanse of plains, traversed from north to south by the Great and Little Hsingan (Khinyan or Khingan) mountain ranges in the north-western section, and by the Changpai mountains near the south-eastern boundary.

Several great rivers with many tributaries run through Manchoukuo, irrigating the plains which they pass. The most notable of these rivers are the Heilungkiang (Amur), Sungari, Ussuri, Yalu, Tumen and Liao rivers.

Climate The climate of Manchoukuo is typically continental, despite the fact that this country lies within about the same latitudes as Japan, Chosen, France and England.

Almost unaffected by ocean currents, Manchoukuo has a dry, cold climate with long severe winters and short hot summers. The spring season is windy, strong winds often carrying yellow dusts from the west.

The temperature falls as low as 49° C. below zero in winter and goes up as high as 40° C. in some localities in summer.

Area and Population

The area of Manchoukuo is put at 1,303,143 square kilometers and is about twice as large as the combined areas of Japan proper, Chosen, Taiwan, and Karafuto. Prior to 1932 little effort was made to obtain reliable census. In that year the population of Manchoukuo was estimated at 30,000,000 people. Rapid increase immediately followed with the great influx chiefly of Chinese, Koreans and Japanese.

According to the first census taken on October 1, 1940, the population of Manchoukuo reached 43,202,880, consisting of 23,908,082 men and 19,294,798 women.

The density of population is 33.2 per square kilometer. The ratio of men to 100 women is 123.9, clearly indicating the fact that the country is still in the making as compared with Japan where it is 101.0.

Of the total, 40,858,473 or 94.57 per cent were Manchurians (Hans representing 90.24 per cent of it), 2,271,495 were Japanese (Koreans representing 63.85 per cent of it), and 72,912 were Westerners and others.

POPULATION OF MANCHOUKUO BY PROVINCES

(Census of October 1, 1940)
(Revised)

Provinces	Area (Sq. km.)	Population
Hsinking Spe. Municipality	428	555,009
Kirin	88,025	5,608,922
Lungkiang	67,483	3,093,500
Pelan	76,183	2,318,957
Heiho	118,899	149,987
Sankiang	90,418	1,415,633
Tungan	41,397	512,240
Mutankiang	32,975	688,424
Pingkiang	63,860	4,234,206
Chientao	30,134	848,197
Tunghua	31,705	982,387
Antung	26,506	2,231,507
Fengtien	74,860	7,565,599
Szuping		2,031,970
Chinchou	40,162	4,317,822
Jehol	103,062	4,553,228
West Hsingan	73,934	736,701
South Hsingan	76,860	1,026,635
East Hsingan	109,107	199,530
North Hsingan	156,230	132,426
Total	1,303,143	43,202,880

Note: On October 1, 1943, Tungan, Mutankiang and Chientao provinces were consolidated into Tungman Province, and the four Hsingan provinces and Lungkiang provinces were united into All-Hsingan Province.

POPULATION OF KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY

(As of December 31 each year)

Year	Manchurians	Japanese	Koreans	Others	Total
1937	1,009,870	174,587	3,917	1,629	1,190,003
1938	1,038,613	150,689	4,496	1,772	1,225,570
1939 (July)	1,058,900	184,500	4,800	1,900	1,250,200
1940 (Nov.)	1,171,154	202,324	5,668	1,675	1,380,821
1941	1,270,119	215,267	6,405	1,700	1,493,491

Note: The 1941 population consisted of 855,799 men and 637,692 women or 134.2 men to 100 women.

POPULATION OF PRINCIPAL CITIES

(At the end of August 1941)

Mukden	1,077,515	Mutankiang	198,144
Harbin	637,573	Chiamussu	109,157
Hsinking	533,799	Fushun	279,604
Antung	312,697	Anshan	214,260
Yingkou	182,957	Hallar	39,877
Kirin	225,153	Llaoyang	102,478
Chinchou	141,157	Penhsihu	100,057
Tsitsihar	120,603	Dairen	715,781

Government

A historical survey concerning the founding of Manchoukuo and the development of her governmental system has been given on pp. 931-933, the Japan Year Book, 1940-41.

The present Government organization of Manchoukuo is as follows:

H. I. M. The Emperor

Imperial Household Dept.

Committee on Imperial House Law
Office of the Privy Seal
Office of Aides-de-Camp
Legislative Council
Privy Council

State Council

Bureau of Audit
Council on Decorations
Board of Decorations
Office of Foreign Affairs
Secretariat
Bureau of Political Affairs
Bureau of Investigation

General Affairs Board

Council on Planning
Secretariat
Bureau of Planning
Bureau of Accounts
Bureau of Legislation
Bureau of Personnel
Bureau of Statistics
Bureau of Information
Cadastre Adjustment Bureau
Bureau of Supplies and Repairs

Office of Home Affairs

Secretariat
Bureau of Management
Bureau of Supervision
Office of Hsingan Affairs

Dept. of Public Peace

Secretariat
Bureau of General Staff
Bureau of Military Affairs
Bureau of Police Affairs

Dept. of People's Welfare

Institute of Cultural Research
Secretariat
Bureau of Education
Bureau of Social Affairs
Bureau of Public Health
Health Equipment Dept.

Dept. of Agriculture

Secretariat
Bureau of Agricultural Affairs
Bureau of Agricultural Production
Bureau of Live-Stock Farming
Bureau of Colonial Administration
Forestry Bureau
Special Products Bureau

Dept. of Finance and Commerce

Secretariat
Bureau of Revenue
Bureau of Finance
Bureau of Industry
Bureau of Mining
Bureau of Commercial Affairs
General Monopoly Office
Patent Bureau

Hydro-electric Power Construction Bureau
Dept. of Communications
General Postal Administration Bureau
Secretariat
Bureau of Railways
Bureau of Roads
Bureau of Navigation
Dept. of Justice
Secretariat
Bureau of Civil Affairs
Bureau of Criminal Affairs
Bureau of Penal Administration
Courts
Procurator's Offices
Offices of Special Municipalities
Provincial Government Offices
Hsingan Provincial Government Offices
Metropolitan Police Board
Capital Construction Bureau

The Concordia Association In most constitutional states, parliaments and congresses are the chief organs of government which reflect popular sentiment, but in Manchoukuo, the Hsieh-ho-hui or the Concordia Association has performed this function ever since the foundation of the State.

The Government strives to put Wangtaoism, the fundamental principle underlying the State's foundation into practice while the Concordia Association is entrusted with the task of diffusing the principle throughout the nation. For this reason the Concordia Association is regarded as the mother of the Government. At the present time, there are in the country more than 3,200 sub-organizations with a total membership of about 1,320,000. A national conference is held once each year and various proposals are submitted to the Government.

National Defense

History The Manchurian army has its origin in the Litan army which rendered great services in founding the Ching dynasty. The soldiers of this army were since then hereditary and were garrisoned in various important points. After the Chinese Revolution of 1911 the army was modernized, and in Manchuria, there were stationed two divisions of the 27th and 28th numbering from 30,000 to 40,000. When Chang Tso-lin came into power, he increased it to 200,000, which was again increased by his son to 260,000 regulars with an additional 100,000 held as provisional forces. There was kept also a small

fleet of 7 gunboats to protect trade carried on the rivers. These were the military forces in service under Chang Hsueh-liang at the time of the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident.

Present Status The army and navy of the empire is under the supreme command of the Emperor, and is garrisoned in defense of particular districts prescribed by the Emperor.

The Bureau of Military Affairs combines both services of army and navy having the following bureaux and sections:

(1) Staff Bureau, (2) Supplies Bureau, (3) General Affairs Section, (4) Justice Section, (5) Personnel Section, (6) Survey Section, (7) Accounting Section, (8) Auditing, (9) Naval Administration, and (10) Armaments Section.

Besides there are the Military Advisory Board, where a number of Japanese officers are engaged who direct the military administration and the Investigation Board which engage in the investigations into the subjects of military affairs and also in propaganda.

The conscription system recommended by the Investigation Board was sanctioned by the State Council and the Conscription Law was promulgated on April 11, 1940 and enforced on the 15th of the same month.

Foreign Relations

The establishment of the new Chinese Government in Nanking in 1940 has given chance for a final readjustment of the relations between the two nations, and the joint declaration of the two governments on November 30, 1940, when the Treaty concerning the Basic Relations between Japan and China was concluded, made it clear that Manchoukuo and China will recognize sovereignty and territorial integrity each other.

Recognition of Manchoukuo Manchoukuo has been formally recognized by 11 countries of Japan, Germany, Italy, China, Dominica, Salvador, Spain, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and Rumania by the end of 1940, and by Bulgaria on May 14, 1941, by Finland on July 19, 1941, and by Thailand on August 1, 1941, the number of countries which recognized Manchoukuo reaching 14.

In 1944 Manchoukuo on June 17 concluded with Germany, as represented by Minister and Plenipotentiary Wagner, the fourth pact for perpetuating economic relations between the two nations.

Public Finance

While the finance under Chang Tso-ling was comparatively sound in his early administration, the expenditure commenced to increase steadily due to his army being enlarged in the latter days. Thus in 1926, the total expenditure was ¥120,000,000 and showed a budgetary deficit of ¥12,000,000. When he was succeeded by his son, Chang Hsueh-liang, the deficit was further increased. The recklessness of his finance was evidenced by the fact that, of the total expenditure of ¥142,500,000, the sum defrayed for the military purpose amounted to ¥114,720,000. The deficit

thus created was met by increased taxes and inflation of currency, thereby causing the people great misery.

In view of the deplorable state of affairs, as above stated, the leaders of Manchoukuo directed their efforts for the stabilization of the financial conditions of the country without increasing tax economic pressure on the people. It is much to the credit of the new state that such a rapid and sound development has been made in finance and currency in so short a time.

Manchoukuo's national budgets since its foundation follow:

MANCHOUKUO'S NATIONAL BUDGET

(In MY1,000)

	Revenue		Total	Expenditure		Total
	Ordinary	Extra-ordinary		Ordinary	Extra-ordinary	
1932	108,441	44,492	152,923	89,937	39,698	129,635
1933	151,145	43,429	194,574	105,143	60,339	165,482
1934	180,439	34,460	214,899	113,831	73,411	187,242
1935	93,386	39,382	132,768	54,714	45,121	99,835
1936	223,719	39,891	263,610	130,741	90,049	220,790
1937	211,631	36,467	248,098	119,112	128,986	248,098
1938	240,335	64,210	304,555	143,659	160,875	304,555
1939	299,537	103,540	403,377	182,033	221,344	403,377
1940	417,770	155,785	573,555	240,319	333,236	573,555
1941	498,799	154,420	649,220	281,166	368,054	649,220
1942	610,152	213,247	823,400	258,225	465,174	823,400
1943	—	—	1,055,000	—	—	1,055,000

Note: Figures for 1932-1936 represent settled accounts. The budget for the fiscal year 1944 involves ¥3,990,000,000.

Manchoukuo's National Debts The national debts of Manchoukuo as at the close of 1943 aggregated MY3,316,411,000 comprising MY3,092,694,000 in government bonds (a gain of MY381,664,000 as compared with the close of 1942) and MY223,717,000 in loans (MY77,430,000

in short-term loans and MY146,287,000 in long-term loans). The national debts were divided into MY2,345,000,000 internal loans and MY971,410,000 external loans.

Details as classified by the respective accounts in the State budget follows:

MANCHOUKUO'S NATIONAL DEBTS AT END OF 1943

(In MY1,000)

Accounts	Govt. Bonds	Loans	Total
General Account	904,456	3,164	907,621
Investment Special Account	1,448,336	6,000	1,434,336
Reserve Supplies Special Account	15,625	7,869	23,494
State Forest Special Account	35,720	47,100	81,820
Hydroelectric Special Account	209,500	9,400	218,950

Water-Supply Special Account	5,740	14,265	20,005
Scientific Experiment Special Account	—	1,654	1,654
Anti-Opium Special Account	—	4,000	4,000
Prison Special Account	—	4,872	4,872
Development Activities Special Account	30,000	36,429	66,429
Domestic Pioneer Farmers Subsidy Special Account	—	36,429	36,429
Dairen Harbor Construction Special Account	13,540	27,470	41,010
Official Residence Special Account	159,776	25,000	184,776
Total	3,092,694	223,717	3,316,411

Manchoukuo's Deposits Bureau The balance of funds held by the Deposits Bureau of Manchoukuo as at the end of March, 1944 totalled MY654,311,000, increasing by MY53,123,000 over the corresponding figures at the end of February. In the debit accounts, investments in government bonds aggre-

gated MY416,534,000 representing a gain of MY23,400,000 over a month ago while in the credit accounts general postal savings amounted to MY497,317,000 registering a sharp increase of MY44,000,000 as compared with the end of February. Details follow:

ACCOUNTS OF DEPOSITS BUREAU AT END OF MARCH, 1944

(In MY1,000)

	March End	Increase Over February End
Debit:		
Government bonds	410,347	29,400
Debentures	24,142	—
Stocks	76,721	1,181
Loans extended	81,437	1,950
Local bodies	81,437	1,950
Others	—	—
Postal transfer savings deposits	31,074	—
Postal life insurance special deposits	25,259	796
Government officials mutual aid special deposits	23,907	4,896
Pension special deposits	15,687	2,000
Pinchiang local expenses	1,000	—
Deposits	48,294	20,329
Others	7,369	263
Debit total	654,311	53,123
Credit:		
Government officials compulsory deposits	56,555	—
General postal deposits	497,317	44,000
Enemy assets control special account	415	—
Others	3,097	1,431
Credit total	654,311	53,123

Bond Digestion in Manchoukuo Assimilation of Manchoukuo government bonds during 1943 totalled ¥385,825,000 as by December 31, eclipsing the original goal of ¥345,000,000. However, with the balance of ¥1,046,676,000 worth of government bonds brought forward from the preceding fiscal year to

the 1943-44 fiscal year for consumption, ¥1,005,851,000 worth of government bonds stood unconsumed at the beginning of 1944. Details of the bond consumption for the 1943-44 fiscal year (January, 1943-March, 1944) as at the end of 1943 were as follows:

BOND CONSUMPTION FOR 1943
(In ¥1,000)

Consumption Sources	Final Goal	Actual Consumption
Deposits Department	90,000	180,000
Industrial Bank of Manchou	25,000	23,000
Yokohama Specie Bank	12,000	12,000
Ordinary Banks	64,000	58,390
Commercial & Industrial Financing Cooperative	45,000	31,500
Farm Promotion Treasury	15,000	5,014
Insurance Companies	10,000	7,110
Mutual Financing Associations	1,000	770
Corporations (A)	20,000	15,165
Short-Term Bonds	20,000	19,538
Bonus Bonds	10,000	9,900
National Prosperity Bonds	20,000	11,172
Total	332,000	374,417
Others	183,000	28,520
Redeemed	15,000	17,112
Net Consumption	500,000	38,825

Note: (A) Corporations under provisions of Article 5-2 of the Temporary Funds Control Law.

Banking

Central Bank of Manchou This bank was established on July 1, 1932, and it opened business on the same day. In it were included four old banks of issue, the Three Eastern Provinces and the Frontier Bank. It has its head office at Hsinking, and branch offices at Mukden, Kirin, Tsitsihar and Harbin. It is capitalized at MY45,000,000, and the Manchoukuo Government holds more than 50,000 shares of MY100 each. It is authorized to mint coins (to the amount of 100 million yen) and issue notes.

REPORTS OF THE CENTRAL BANK OF MANCHOU

(For the First Half of 1943)

ASSETS	(In 1,000 yen)
Cash and deposits	141,269
Negotiable papers	1,635,211
Bills discounted	623,407
Advances to the Government	144,805
Advances	390,778
Fixed assets	21,395
Miscellaneous accounts	26,880
Capital unpaid	75,000
Total	3,067,747
LIABILITIES	
Notes issued	1,800,000
Coins	61,742
Government deposits	87,013
Deposits	536,434
Loans	224,703
Exchange bill accounts	16,297
Due to other banks	81,699
Miscellaneous accounts	17,503
Capital paid-up	100,000
Reserve fund	24,570

Net profit 17,522
Total 3,067,747

Currency Problem The currency in Manchoukuo has been in an extremely complicated condition, native and Japanese and other notes and coins being in circulation. But in the newly regulated system of Manchoukuo currency 23.91 grams of pure silver is taken as the unit called the yuan, there being 100 fen or 1,000 li in one yuan. The new paper notes are issued in five different denominations of 100 yuan, 10 yuan, 5 yuan, one yuan and chian, or 50 fen, circulated together with 1-chiao and 5 fen nickles and 1-fen and 5-li coppers. The amount of coins issued by the end of October 1941 reached MY53,592,000.

Note Issue Before opening for business on July 1, 1932, the Central Bank of Manchou took over old notes of 15 different kinds and 136 denominations amounting to MY142,234,881 calculated in the new currency at the exchange rate fixed officially. This figure was gradually reduced and by the end of June 1935 a total of MY138,200,000 or 97.2% had been redeemed by the Bank. The amount of the notes issued by the end of 1941 reached MY1,275,991,000.

National savings in 1943 totalled ¥1,600,000,000.

Industrial Bank of Manchou This bank was founded in accordance with the Industrial Bank of Manchou Law issued by the Manchoukuo Government on December 3, 1936. Its capitalization

is ¥30,000,000, a half of which is invested by that Government. Its object is to supply capital necessary for industrial development of Manchoukuo, and the domain of its business is not only limited to supply of capital to commerce, but to large and small industries on a basis of long-term and low interest rate. The bank is vested with authority to issue industrial debentures 15 times its paid-up capitalization. The Manchoukuo Government will guarantee for payment of principal and interest of loans for the bank, when the latter intends to raise necessary loans by floatation of its debentures abroad.

Money in 1944 First Half The circulation in Manchoukuo which reached a sizable total of MY3,079,000,000 at the close of 1943 continued to increase in 1944 except for a temporary shrinkage in the early part of the year. The expansion was particularly noteworthy since April and the circulation advanced to MY3,584,000,000 at the close of June. In order to cope with the continuous expansion, which, however, was a natural phenomenon due to an energetic demand for industrial funds necessary for large-scale production increasing operations in agriculture, mining and manufacturing industry, timely and proper measures were taken by the Government. Among such measures for 1944 were the curtailment of government expenditures, the active consumption of government bonds and the expansion of national savings.

The total number of bills transacted at nine clearing houses in Manchoukuo during the first half of 1944 aggregated 1,514,000 valued at MY8,277,000,000, a gain of MY951,000,000 over the first half of 1943 and of MY109,000,000 over the second half of 1943.

Brisk monetary operations in Manchoukuo during the first half of 1944 were well reflected by a marked improvement of business results of the Industrial Bank of Manchou, the pivotal industrial financing organ. Deposits accepted and loans extended by this industrial bank at the close of the first half of 1944 stood at MY1,447,000,000 and MY2,254,000,000, respectively, the former showing an increase of MY62,000,000 and the latter MY369,000,000 as compared with the corresponding figures at the close of the preceding half. The increase of loans extended was attributed chiefly to the active supply of industrial capital to mining

and industrial enterprises principally by the Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation as well as accommodations to undertakings guaranteed by the Government. Among the deposits, fixed deposits led with MY502,650,000, up by MY45,670,000 as compared with the corresponding figure at the close of the preceding half. A "Victory Savings" which was started by the bank from April, this year, totalled ¥5,540,000 at the end of June, 1944.

Due to a steady decrease of capital supplies from Japan, a healthy sign, principal debentures floated within Manchoukuo are steadily on the increase. During the first half of 1944, the Industrial Bank of Manchou underwrote debentures worth MY385,000,000 belonging to the Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation and MY10,000,000 of the Yalu-chiang Hydroelectric Company of Manchoukuo.

Supply of Industrial Funds Active Manchoukuo has become increasingly self-supplied in industrial funds as dependence on Japanese investments has lessened while monetary and capital operations within Manchoukuo have become steadily active. This tendency was particularly conspicuous in 1943. Industrial funds supplied in the Japanese yen during 1943 totalled ¥800,000,000, representing a drop of ¥500,000,000 as compared with 1942. Of these, new corporation debentures aggregating ¥400,700,000 were issued within Japan by the Manchuria Development Company, the Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation, the Manchuria Telephone and Telegraph Company, the Industrial Bank of Manchou, the South Manchuria Railway Company and several other concerns. Industrial funds required by other concerns were completely raised within Manchoukuo.

Industrial funds raised within Japan during the first quarter of 1944 (April to June) amounted to ¥215,000,000, declining by ¥35,000,000 as compared with the corresponding period in 1943 as debentures during this period were issued in Japan only by the South Manchuria Railway Company, the Manchuria Development Company and the Industrial Bank of Manchou.

The South Manchuria Railway Company floated debentures amounting to ¥50,000,000 in Manchoukuo for the first time in December, 1943 by the underwriting of the Central Bank of Manchou. The same company issued in

Manchoukuo debentures amounting to ¥30,000,000 and ¥50,000,000, respectively, in February and April, 1944, thus indicating a drastic change in capital operations of the railway company which heretofore depended solely on the Japanese bond market for the supply of funds.

Other Banking Institutions Though the Central Bank of Manchou occupies the controlling position in the monetary market as the note issuing bank, there are other banks which do substantial banking business. The names and capitalizations of the principal banks follow:

Name	Authorized Capital
(1) Manchoukuo Banks	
Fengtien Commercial & Industrial Bank	MY2,200,000
Fengtien Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Yingkow Bank	1,000,000
Kung Cheng "Yu Bank"	500,000
Tungpien Industrial Bank	1,500,000
I Fa Bank	1,000,000
I Tung Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Hui Hua Bank	250,000
(2) Japanese Banks	
Yokohama Specie Bank	¥100,000,000
Bank of Chosen	400,000,000
Shoryu Bank	12,000,000
Manshu Bank	10,000,000
(3) Chinese Banks	
Central Bank of China	25,000,000
Bank of Communications	10,000,000
Chin Cheng Bank	10,000,000
Ta Chung Bank	4,000,000
(4) Other Foreign Banks	
Russo-Asiatic Bank	R65,000,000
The Far Eastern Bank	\$5,000,000

To aid the sound development and proper control of banking, the Government promulgated a new Banking Law in November 1933.

Encouraged by the favorable results of the two credit associations which were created in 1932 in Fengtien province the Finance authorities in 1933 inaugurated eight similar associations in Fengtien, two in Kirin and one in Hellungkiang province. The number has been increased year by year, and it reached 126 in 1938.

LOANS

Cities	Loans Extended, At end of April, 1944
Hsinking	2,214,172
Mukden	684,324
Harbin	375,448
Tsitsihar	30,192
Kirin	56,572
Antung	58,185
Yingkow	37,385
Chinchow	24,351
Mutankiang	38,093
Chismussu	19,109
Fushun	15,737
Anshan	29,143
Dairen	1,146,497
Total	4,739,208

Industrial Development Plan

The first five-year industrial development plan has been carried out last five years ending March 31, 1942, to enter into the second five-year plan beginning April 1, 1942. According to the report of the Government on the results of the five years, the increase of some agricultural products could not reach the proposed level, but that of the products of mining and manufacturing industries excelled the goals, especially in cases of lead, copper, pig iron, steel and chemicals. The amount of funds to be obtained during the five years was first set as 2,500 million yen and later as 6,100 million yen, but the actual amount raised reached 7,600 million yen. It is a wonderful result reaped in the years of the most complicated international affairs which heavily affected the execution of the plan all through the entire period. Relative figures follow:

RESULTS OF THE FIVE-YEAR PLAN

(In index numbers, taking 1936 as normal)

Agricultural Products	Index Number
Kaoliang	116
Millet	115
Soya beans	85
Maize	148
Rice (paddy)	330
Rice (upland)	88
Wheat	100
Barley	53
Oat	383
Cotton	156
Hemp	2,327
Flax	546
Cocoon	129
Tobacco	1,083
	(1939=100)

Beet	456
Live-stock	
Horse	105
Cattle	120
Pig	109
Sheep	120
Wool	130
Mining and Manufacturing	
Pig iron	219
Steel ingot	154
Steel	264
Asbestos	4,828
	(1937=100)
Copper	517
	(1938=100)
Lead	1,223
Zinc	398
Coal	178
Ammonium sulphate	104
Salt	150
Soda ash	545
	(1937=100)
Caustic soda	3,500
	(1939=100)
	Index Number
Aluminium	1,668
	(1938=100)
Pulp	790
Liquid fuel	160
Electricity	241
Transportation	
State railways	215
Private railways	208
Highways	281
Colonization	
Japanese houses	1,532
Chosenese houses	451

Banking	195	1,005,629	594,321
Insurance	4	6,150	2,825
Warehousing	31	3,361	5,070
Market and bourse	21	12,823	6,626
Trade, real estate	3,157	1,262,295	598,749
Transport	204	1,824,895	1,317,335
Colonial development	217	246,768	159,325
Civil engineering and construction	32	166,936	1,137,434
Farm produce	102	118,825	83,676
Forestry	109	93,473	79,908
Livestock	54	14,660	9,742
Fisheries	29	38,943	36,007
Mining	230	1,239,617	1,027,842
Metal industry	151	526,051	493,210
Machine industries	417	658,421	468,139
Electric and gas	40	472,150	460,727
Chemical industries	363	76,543	520,270
Kiln industries	179	131,572	107,960
Spinning and weaving	135	237,130	196,317
Foodstuff industries	437	187,664	146,370
Miscellaneous industries	600	248,881	200,496
Others	357	880,804	69,667
Total	7,569	9,355,691	6,722,665

Iron and Coal Amalgamation was effected among the Kabushiki Kaisha Showa Seiko-sho (Showa Steel Manufacturing Co., Ltd.), the Kabushiki Kaisha Honkeiko Baltetsu Konsu (Penchihu Iron Manufacturing Co., Ltd.) and the Tohendo Kaihatsu Kabushiki Kaisha (Tungpien Development Co., Ltd.) into a new company, the Manshu Seitetsu Kabushiki Kaisha (Manchuria Iron Manufacturing Co., Ltd.) in accordance with the provisions of the Manchou Iron Manufacturing Joint Stock Company Law on April 1, 1944.

In 1937 the output of iron stood at 2,260,000 metric tons, Manchoukuo thus supplying a third of pig iron production in Japan then.

In the first quarter of 1944-45 the output of coal increased considerably over the corresponding period in 1943-44. Coal production in 1937 ran over 14,000,000 tons.

Companies in Manchoukuo

Investigation of corporate capital movement conducted by the Economic Department shows that the number of companies was 7,569 for entire Manchoukuo and Kwantung Territory as at the end of July 1943, with face value capitalization of MY9,355,691,000, of which ¥6,722,665,000 paid-up. The capital status of all those firms, classified according to the kinds of their business activity, are as follows:

Number	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital
195	1,005,629	594,321
4	6,150	2,825
31	3,361	5,070
21	12,823	6,626
3,157	1,262,295	598,749
204	1,824,895	1,317,335
217	246,768	159,325
32	166,936	1,137,434
102	118,825	83,676
109	93,473	79,908
54	14,660	9,742
29	38,943	36,007
230	1,239,617	1,027,842
151	526,051	493,210
417	658,421	468,139
40	472,150	460,727
363	76,543	520,270
179	131,572	107,960
135	237,130	196,317
437	187,664	146,370
600	248,881	200,496
357	880,804	69,667
7,569	9,355,691	6,722,665

YEARLY COMPARISON OF JOINT-STOCK COMPANIES AND
GOVERNMENTAL COMPANIES

(Amount in ¥1,000)

End of	(A) Total of Joint-stock Companies		(B) Governmental and Semi-governmental Companies in (A)		Percentage of (B) to (A)	
	No.	Paid-up Capital	No.	Paid-up Capital	No.	Paid-up Capital
1932	437	693,704	4	483,850	0.9	70
1933	477	943,508	6	711,178	1.3	75
1934	573	1,116,465	12	840,640	2.1	75
1935	674	1,197,014	15	808,528	2.2	78
1936	794	1,337,041	26	956,704	3.3	72
1937	959	2,123,826	35	1,549,984	3.6	73
1938	1,146	2,495,335	41	1,746,899	3.6	70
1939 (June)	1,290	3,790,787	45	1,951,382	3.5	70
1941 (July)	2,177	5,124,988	70	2,633,917	3.2	51

INDEX NUMBER OF HSINKING WHOLESALE PRICES

(1933=100)

	1940	1941	1942	1943 (June)
Staple products	294.8	342.0	391.9	435.0
Cereals	298.8	235.1	268.1	286.1
Foodstuffs and delicacies	204.2	204.3	267.8	298.4
Textiles	218.6	249.1	248.0	262.2
Fuels	179.0	227.7	280.1	353.5
Hardware	162.3	174.0	190.8	240.5
Building materials	183.9	198.3	209.3	211.8
Miscellaneous	296.2	210.9	299.6	309.9
Average	225.8	248.2	268.6	296.1

INDEX NUMBER OF HSINKING COST OF LIVING

(1936=100)

	1940	1941	1942	1943 (June)
Food and drink	225.0	268.6	306.7	346.2
Clothing	298.3	320.9	343.5	347.1
Housing	166.7	171.2	170.8	178.3
Light and fuel	175.0	214.6	261.7	312.2
Miscellaneous	183.7	223.4	262.7	307.1
General index	213.4	249.8	278.5	311.0

Japan's Investment in Manchoukuo
Japan's investment in Manchoukuo was estimated to have amounted to about ¥1,700,000,000 before the Manchurian Incident of 1931. According to the South Manchuria Railway Company, the pre-incident investments were distributed as follows: 30 per cent in transpor-

tation; 11.6 per cent in finance; 6.7 per cent in commerce; 16.2 per cent in agriculture, forestry and mining; 9.2 per cent in industry; and 26.3 per cent in other enterprises. The investments sponsored by the Tokyo Government, totalled ¥4,033,000,000 in 9 years, from 1932 to 1940.

JAPANESE INVESTMENTS IN MANCHOUKUO DURING 1941

(In ¥1,000)

	Amount Newly-Issued	Conversion	Total	Redemption	Outstanding At the End of the Year
National bonds	220,000	—	220,000	2,397	842,062
Bank bonds	40,000	—	40,000	450	114,550
Company shares	351,500	—	331,500	6,175	1,104,025
Shares of Japanese companies in Manchoukuo	289,000	10,000	299,000	19,545	1,664,060
Total	900,500	10,000	910,500	28,566	3,724,697

Agriculture

General The vast plains of Manchuria consist for the most part of agricultural land, covered with fertile soil or humus, and agriculture has always been the main occupation of the people of Manchuria. The recent development of transport facilities has encouraged the coming of immigrants in large numbers from China, especially from Shantung province. Undeveloped land is being thus brought under cultivation, and every year sees some increase in the total amount of farming products. Unfortunately, these immigrants possess neither scientific knowledge nor capital, and, as they still follow primitive methods of cultivation, the productiveness of the land is not yet fully exploited. The wide plains that characterize the country invite the use of machinery for large-scale cultivation.

Arable Land The area of arable land in Manchoukuo in 1935 follows:

AREA OF ARABLE LAND
IN MANCHOUKUO

(Unit: hectare)

Provinces	Total Area	Arable Land
Kirin	11,276,777	4,618,860
Lungkiang	16,042,130	8,223,280
Heiho	2,858,260	878,180

Sankiang	9,685,380	4,090,750
Pinkiang	16,882,840	6,347,340
Chientao	4,629,220	1,853,780
Antung	8,160,250	425,000
Fentien	7,068,350	3,252,560
Chinchow	2,290,330	795,090
Jehol	13,606,060	1,217,930
Total	92,499,590	31,697,870

Number of Farmers In 1934, there were 4,008,053 farming households in Manchoukuo. It represents 85.2 per cent of the total number of households in the country. The number of house members of those homes was estimated at 25,667,000 or 84.7 per cent of the total population.

Agricultural Products and the Area of Cultivated Land As it is commonly known, the primary crops of Manchuria are soya beans, kaoliang, millet, corn, and wheat. The total land area used for the raising of these products is 80%. The remaining crops are paddy rice, upland rice, beans, green peas, buck wheat, cane, barnyard grass, rye, and barley, which are raised throughout Manchuria, while cotton, tobacco, hemp, flax, perilla, gingelly, etc., are widely raised. Together with cabbage, hop, fruits and lucerne, the entire agricultural products of Manchuria number some 40 or 50 species.

CULTIVATED AREAS AND PRODUCTION OF CEREALS

Cultivated Areas

(In 1,000 hectares)

	Soya Beans	Other Regumes	Kaoliang	Millet	Maize	Wheat	Rice	Other Cereals
1936	3,468.4	378.1	2,994.7	2,554.9	1,312.7	1,094.4	289.4	983.0
1937	3,590.8	375.7	3,046.0	2,613.2	1,418.8	1,216.1	315.4	1,036.6
1938	4,034.9	452.2	3,805.3	3,530.9	1,827.7	1,162.5	354.5	1,598.2
1939	4,156.5	521.5	3,928.6	3,690.1	2,006.8	1,282.1	389.1	1,704.9
1940	3,821.5	523.1	4,106.8	3,902.1	2,301.9	1,021.9	429.6	1,756.9