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## FOREWORD

In presenting the 1941 issue of The Manchoukuo Year Book we have directed much of our efforts so as to make this volume not only a chronicle of a year's events but a record of activities witnessed in all branches of national life since the foundation of the State in 1932. This policy was pursued with the view that full appreciation of affairs of any given year is in most cases dependent upon a knowledge of the background of events. This is especially true with regard to statistics where knowledge of "trends" forms an indispensable item in the faithful evaluation of figures.

We have at all times striven to apply to original sources of information for the compilation of materials, and have given preference wherever possible to official statistics. By following this principle it was not possible in many cases to have access to later statistics, but on the other hand it has minimized the pitfalls of inaccuracy.

We have been indebted very greatly to organizations both here and in Japan and to individuals for liberal assistance rendered in the compilation of textual and statistical data. We would wish especially to express our hearty appreciation to the various government departments and semi-governmental concerns, to the South Manchuria Railway Company, The Manchuria Daily News, The Manchuria Information Bureau and The Japan Economic Federation.

THE MANCHOUKUO YEAR BOOK CO.

Hsinking, Manchoukuo

*December, 1940*



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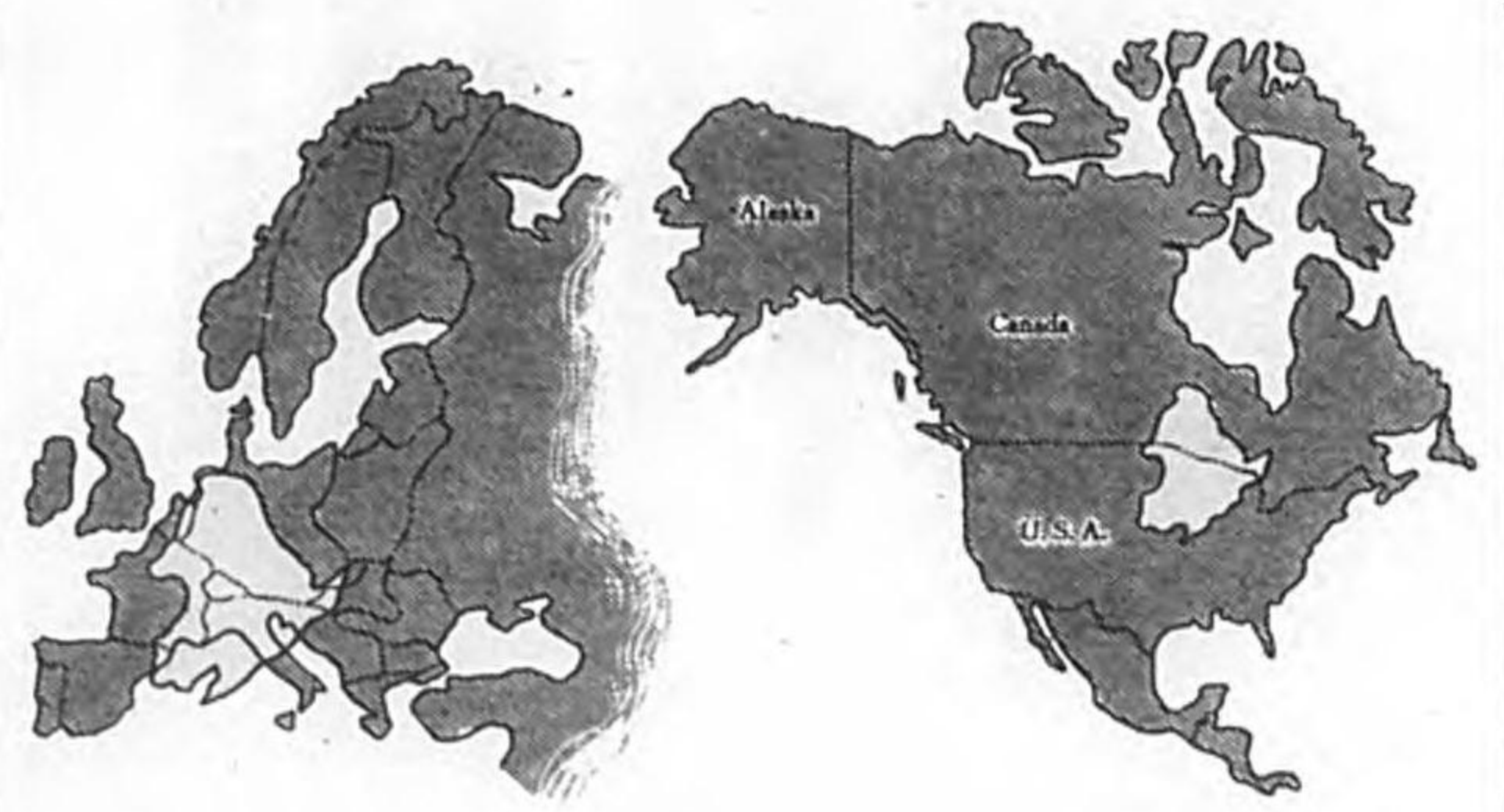
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Editor, 1931

## Comparative Area and Latitudinal Position of Manchoukuo

(A) SUPER-IMPOSED ON EUROPE

(B) SUPER-IMPOSED ON NORTH AMERICA

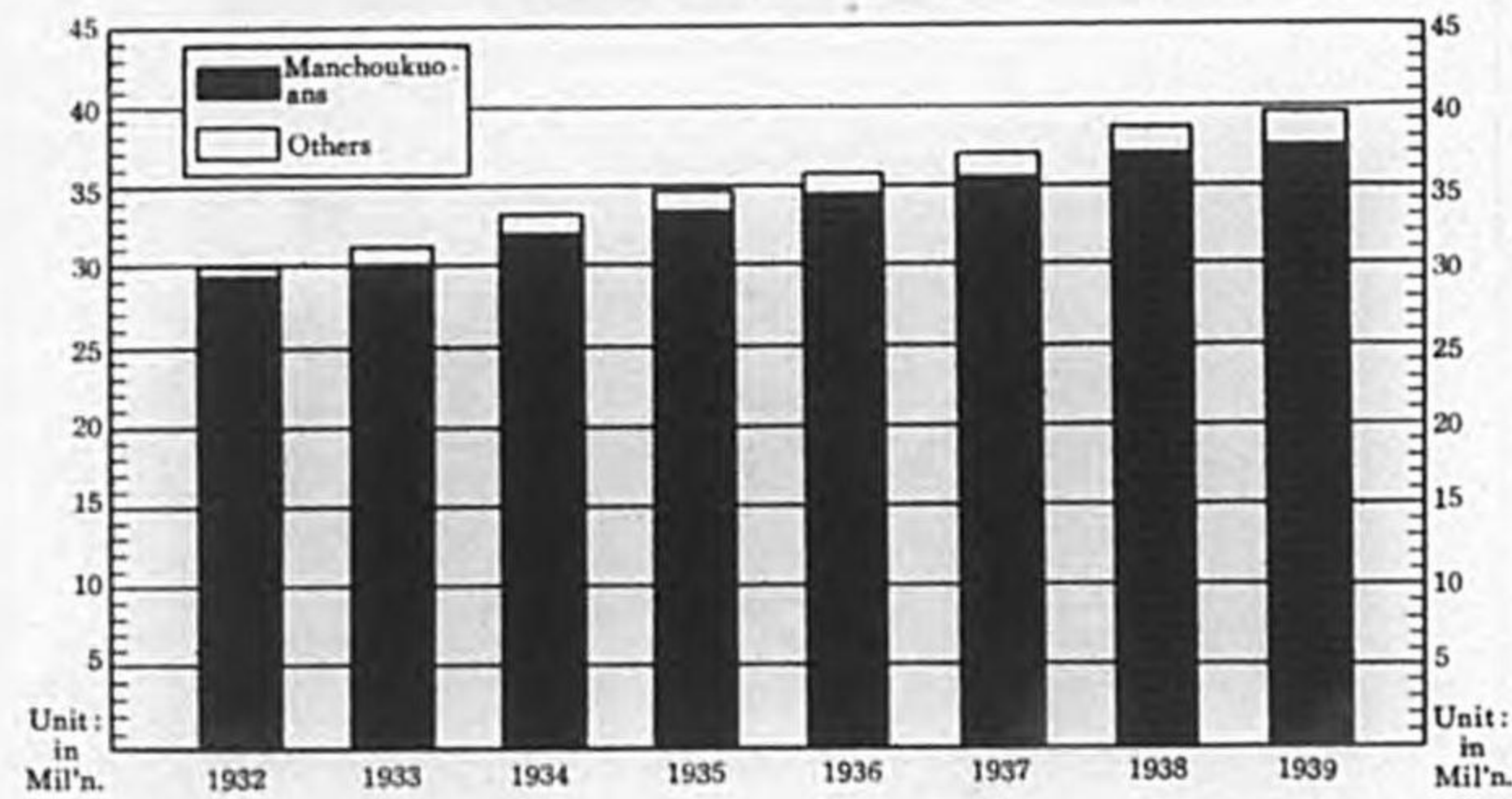


## Comparative Area of Japan Super-imposed on Manchoukuo

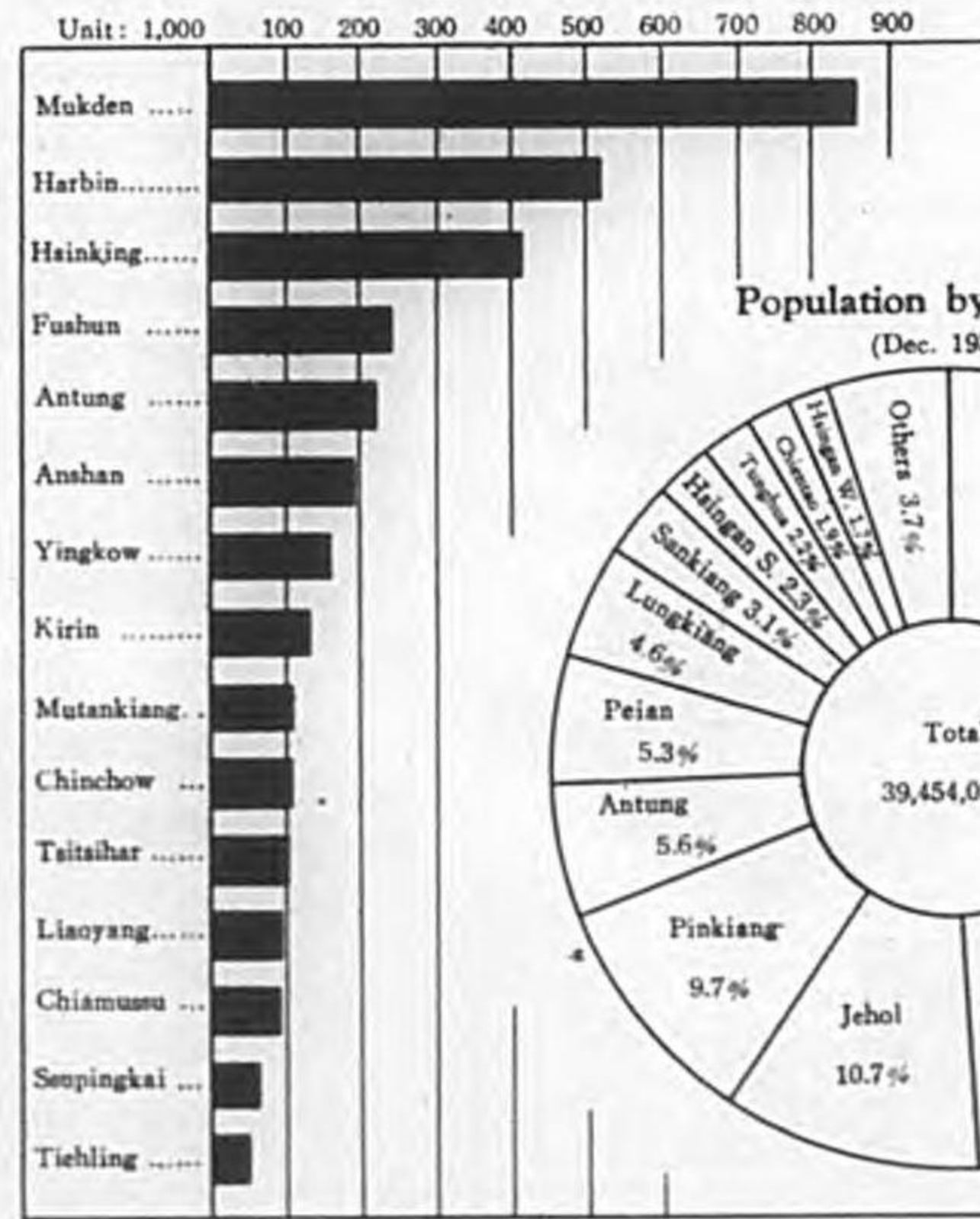




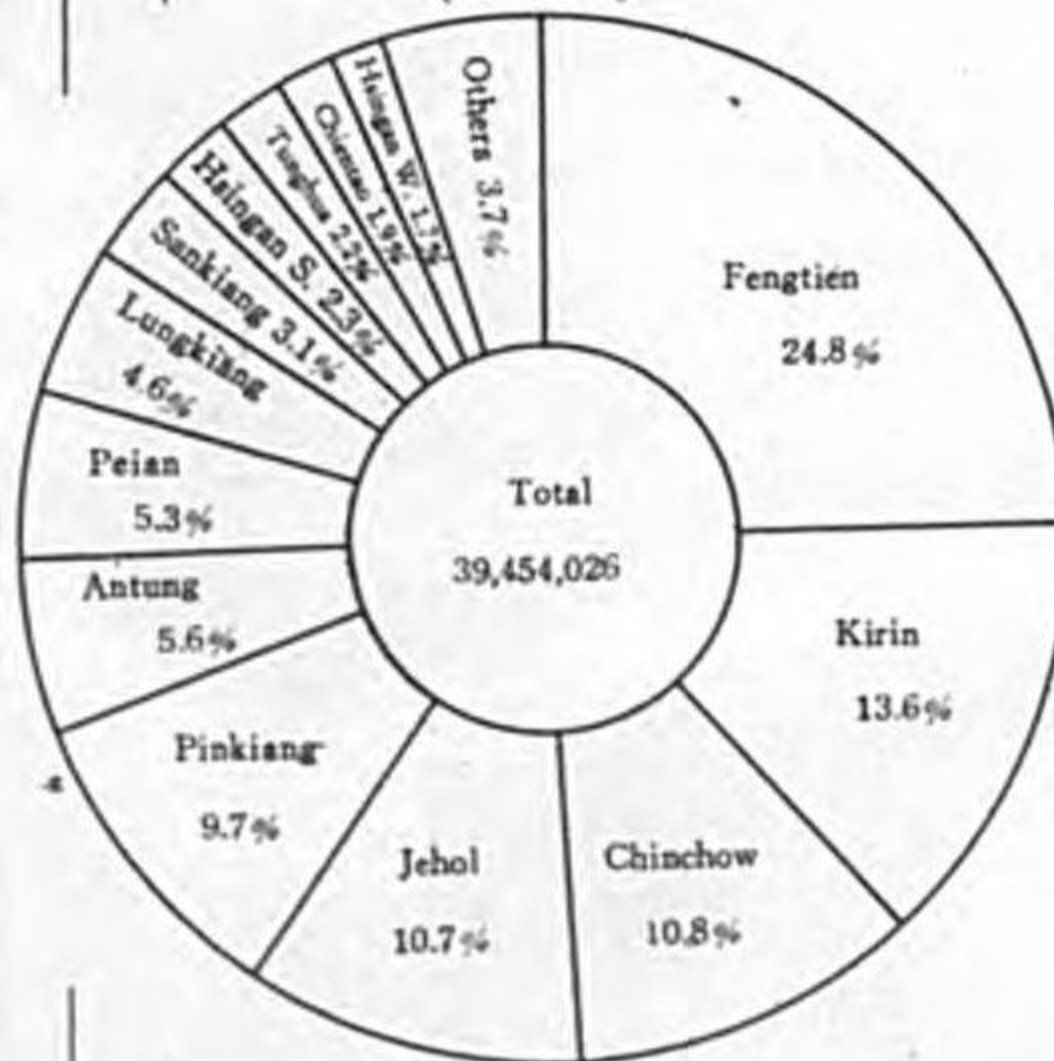
Population of Manchoukuo



Population by Cities  
(Dec. 1939)

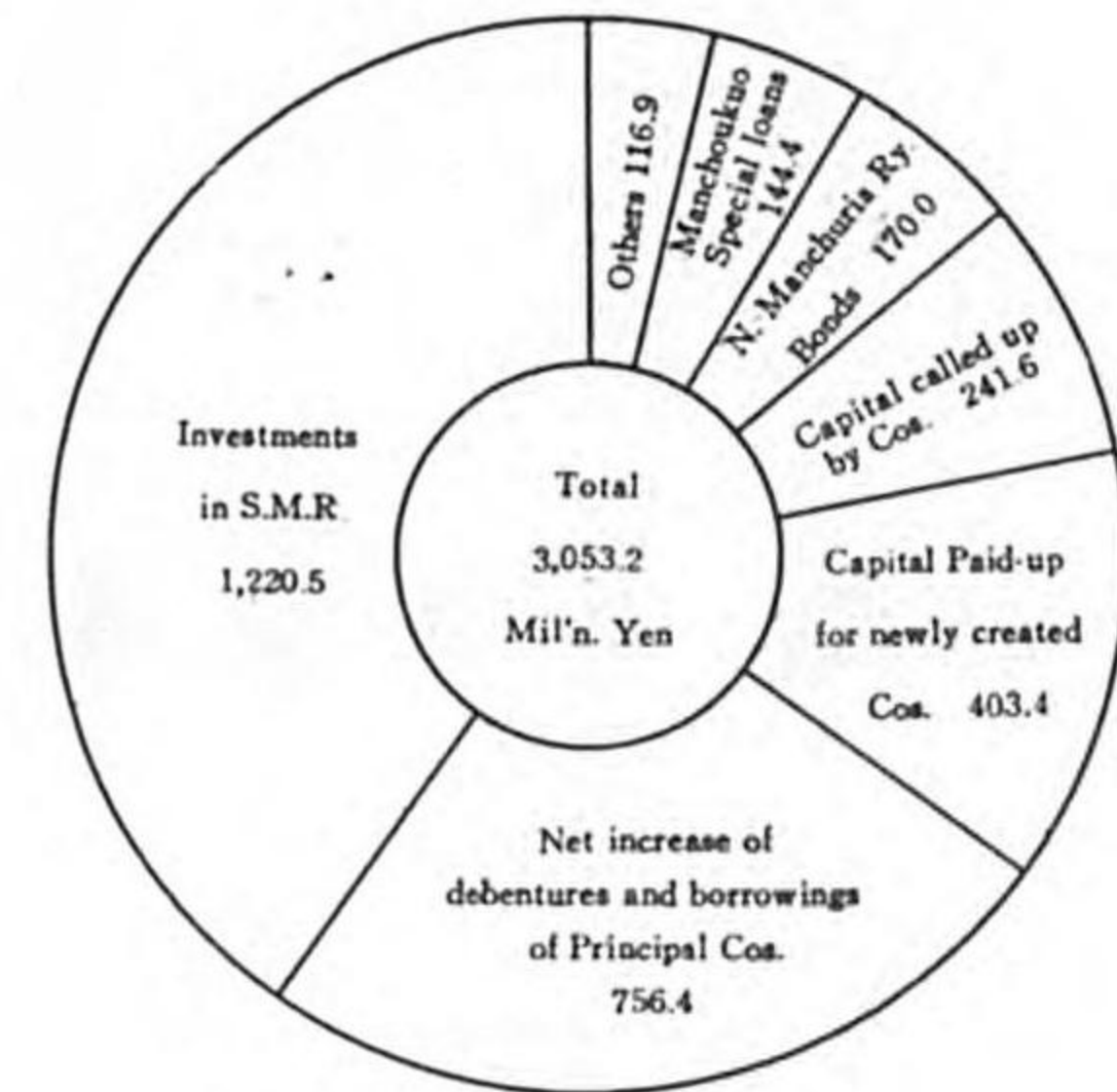


Population by Provinces  
(Dec. 1939)

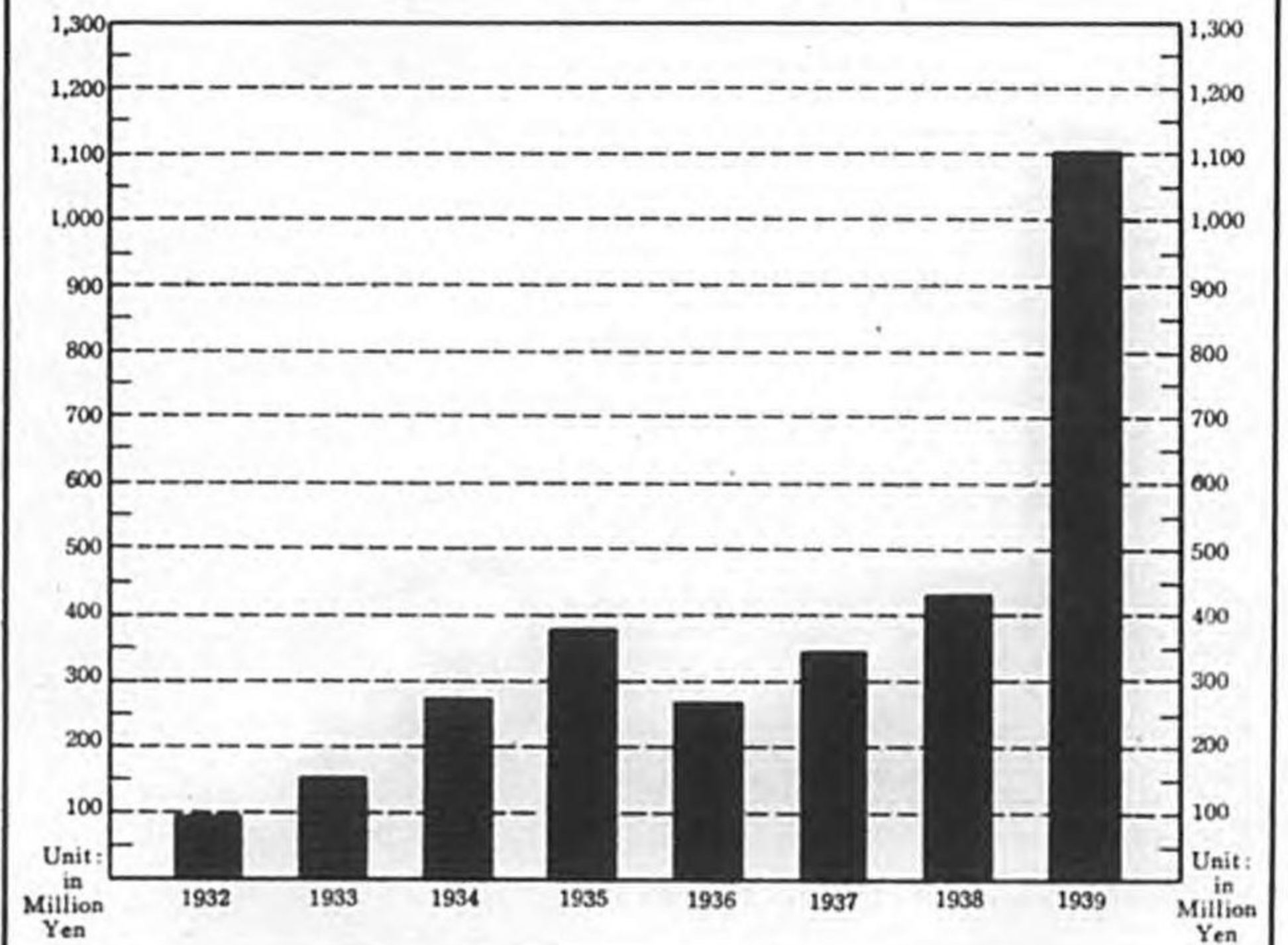


Japanese Investments Outstanding in Manchoukuo

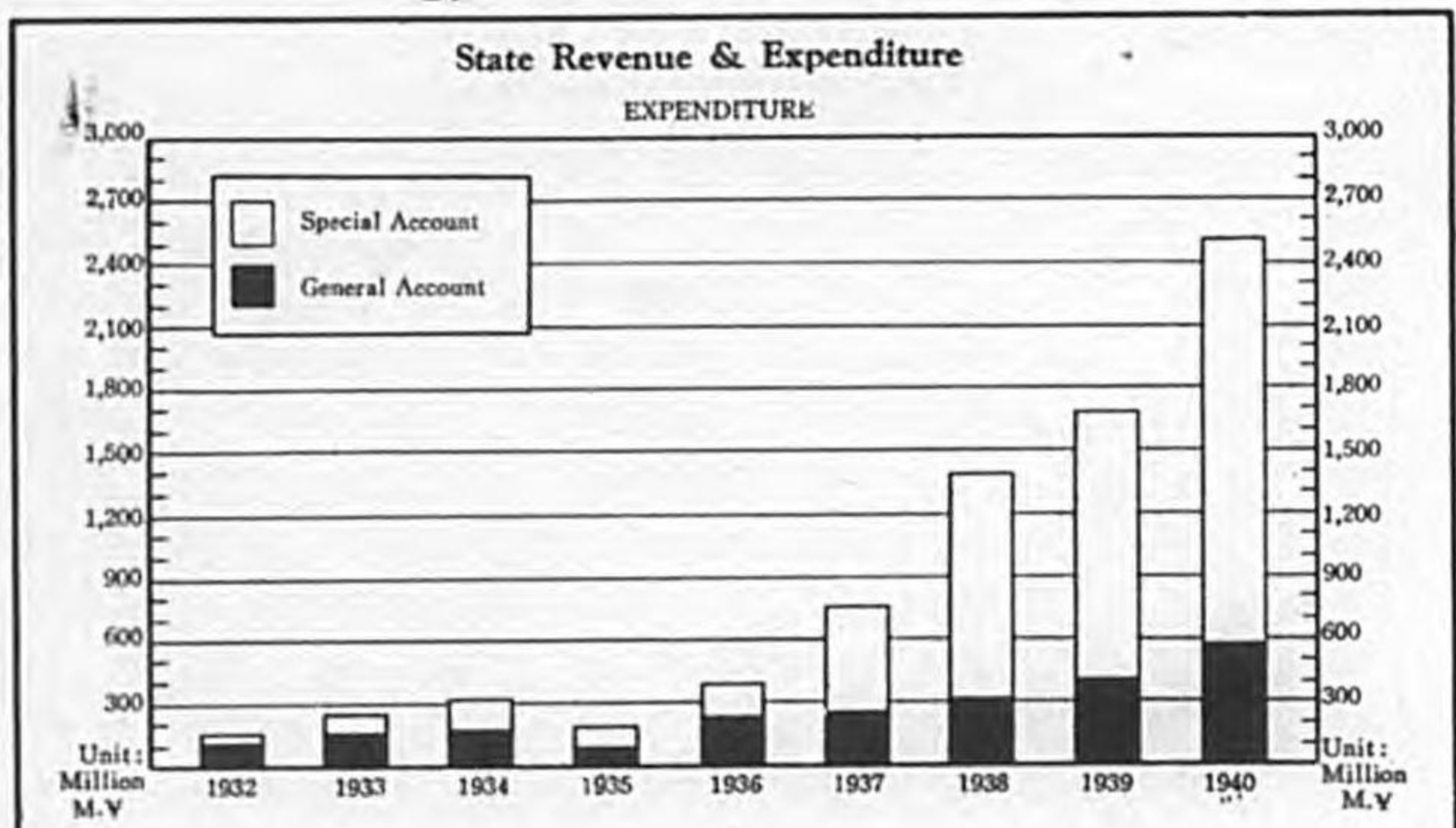
(For Period 1932-1939 Inclusive)



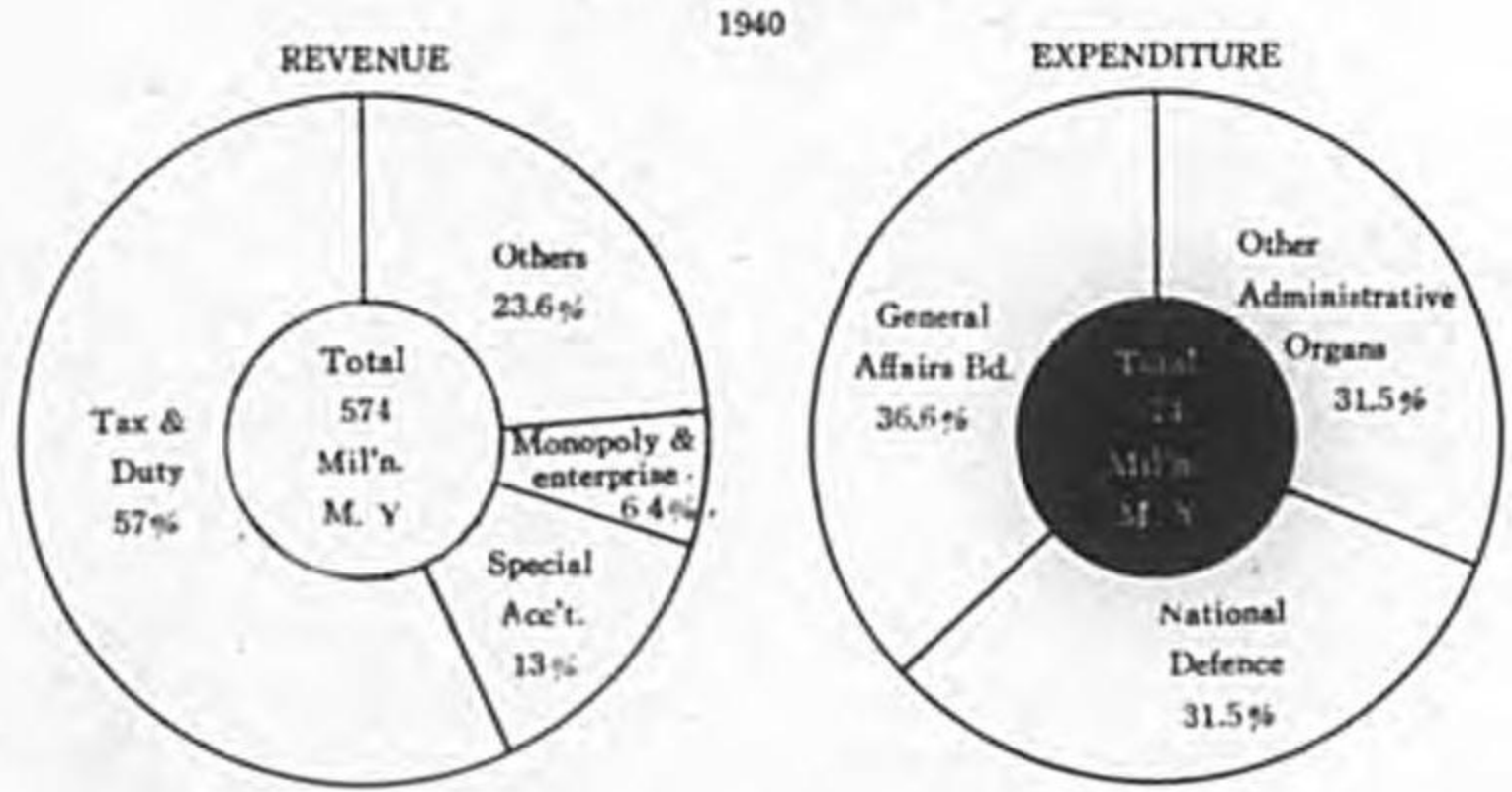
Trend of Investments Since 1932



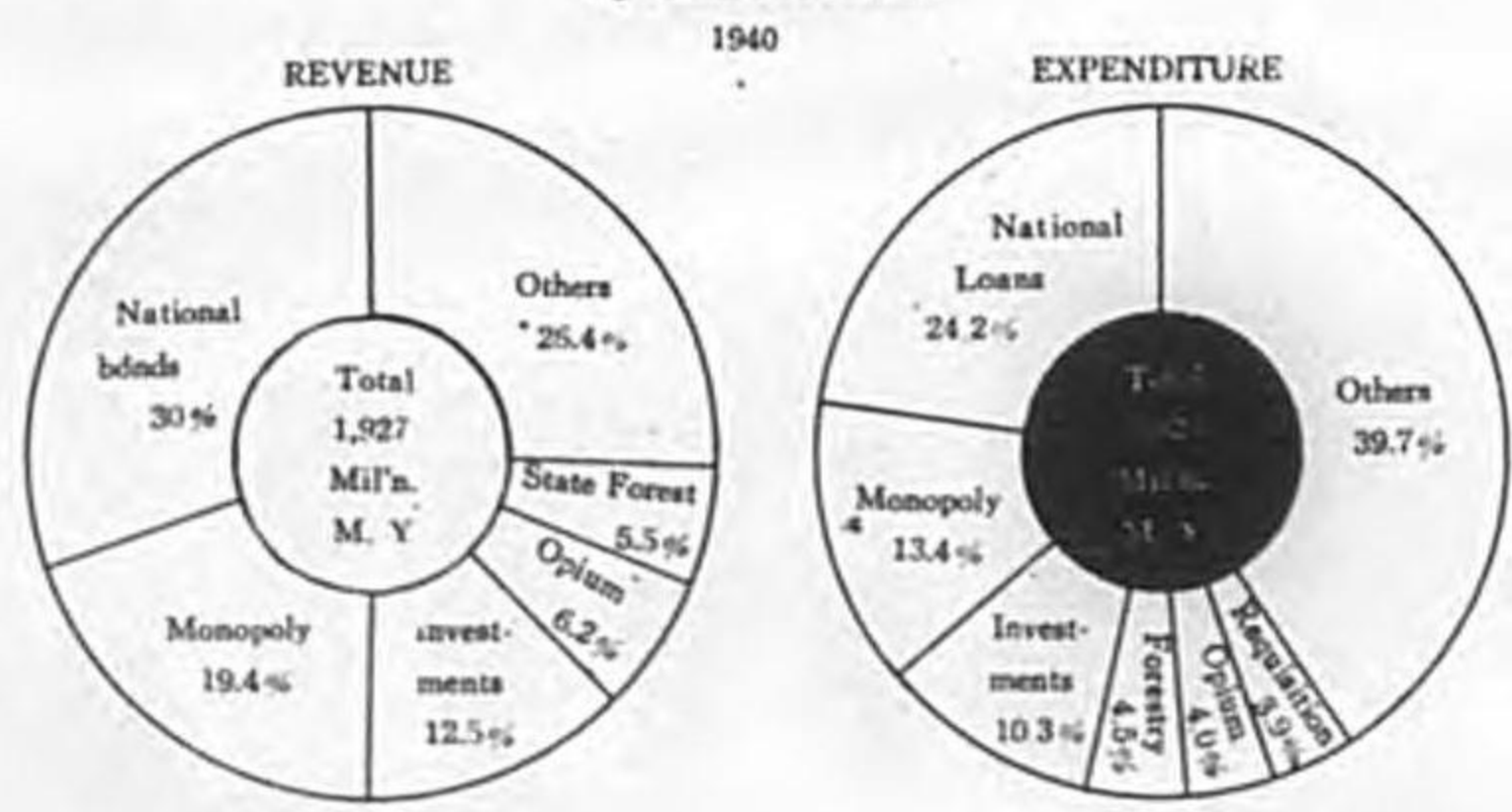




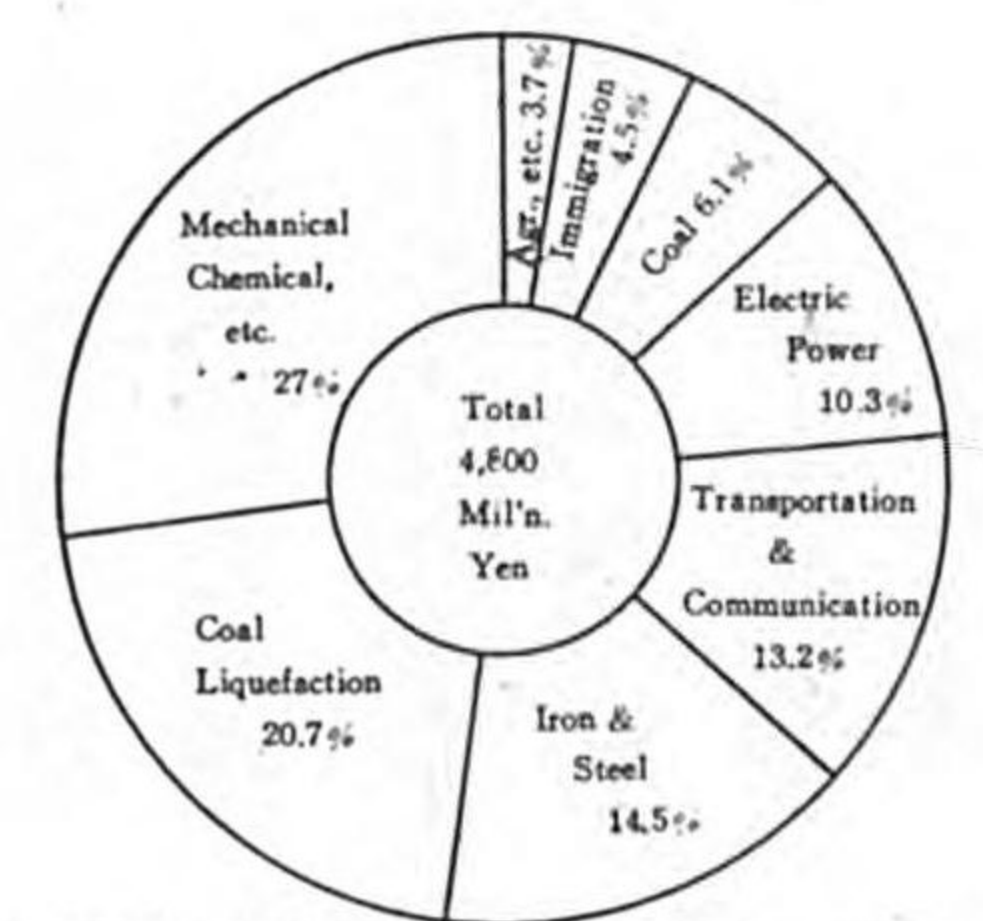
#### General Account



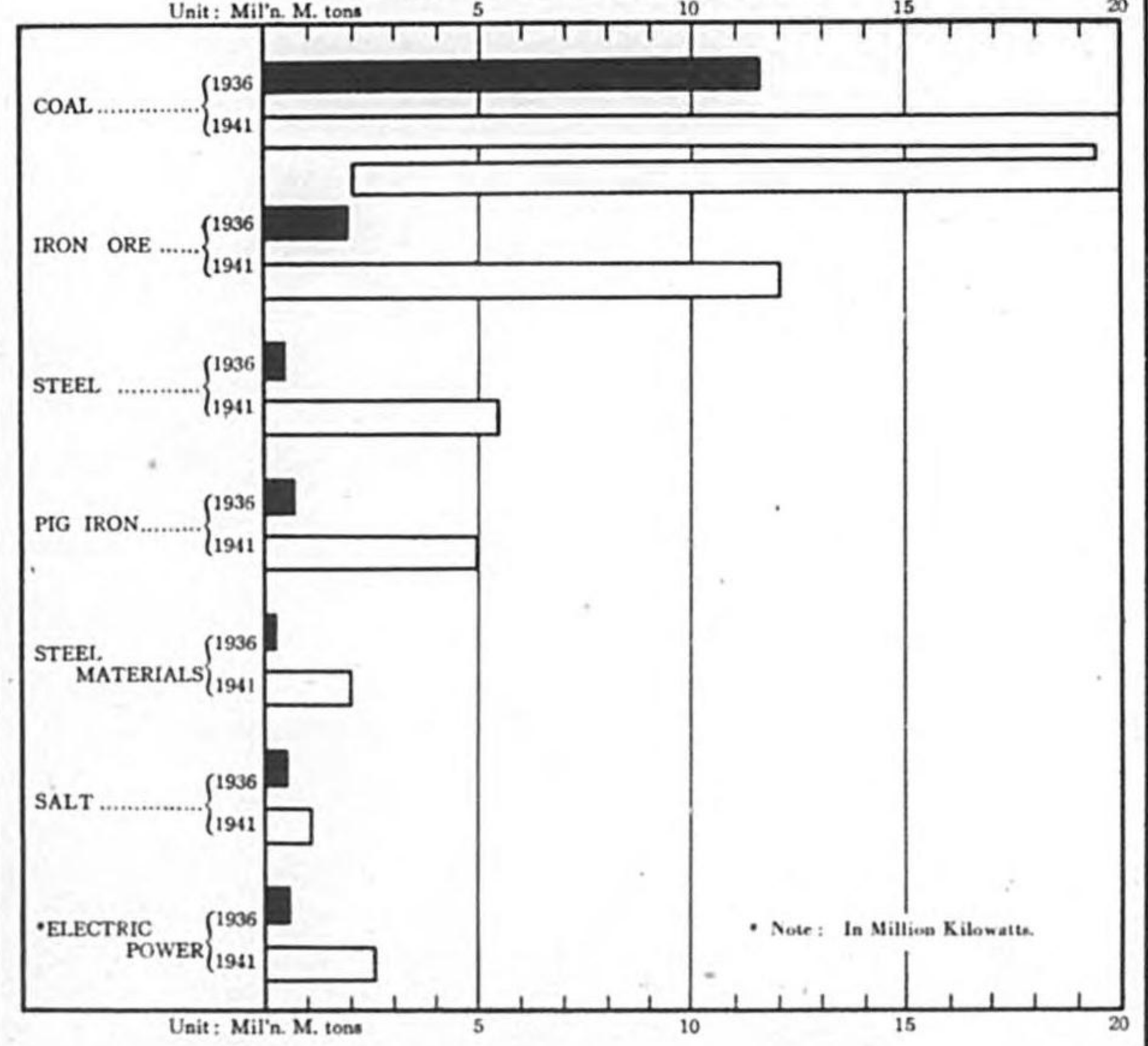
#### Special Account



### Capital Outlay of Manchoukuo's 5-year Plan (1937-41)



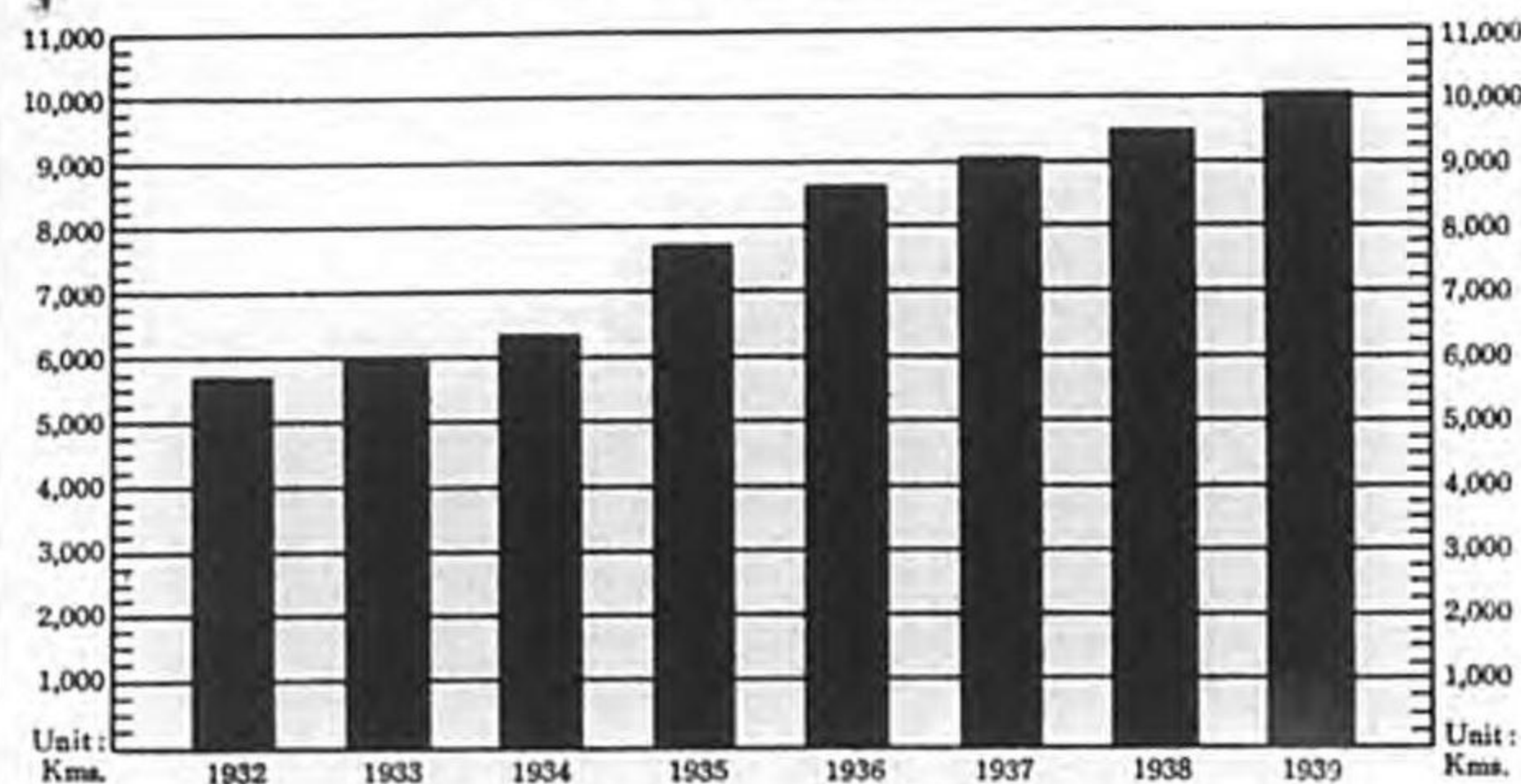
PRODUCTION IN 1936 COMPARED WITH ESTIMATED PRODUCTION IN 1941, ACCORDING TO THE REVISED 5-YEAR PLAN



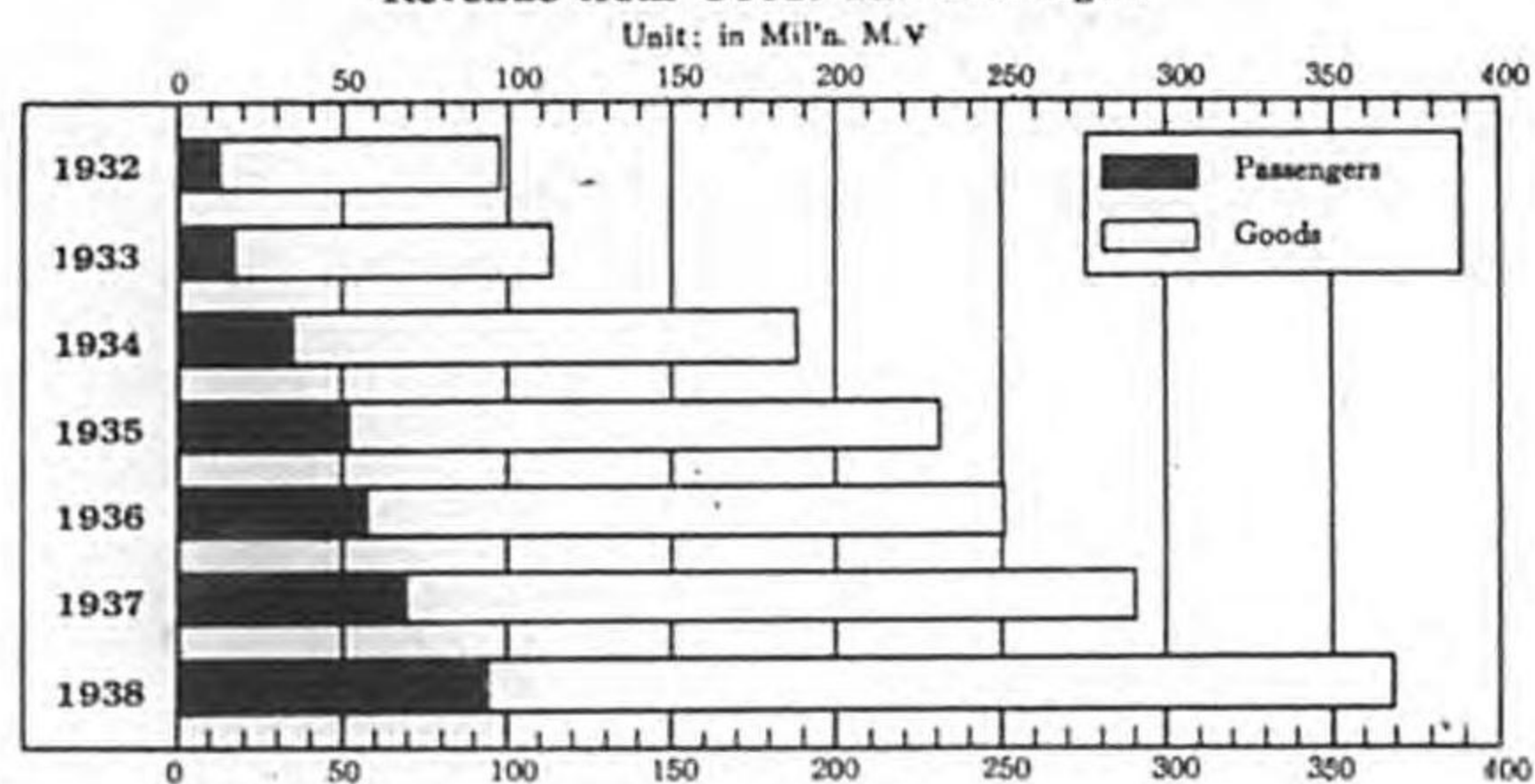
\* Note: In Million Kilowatts.



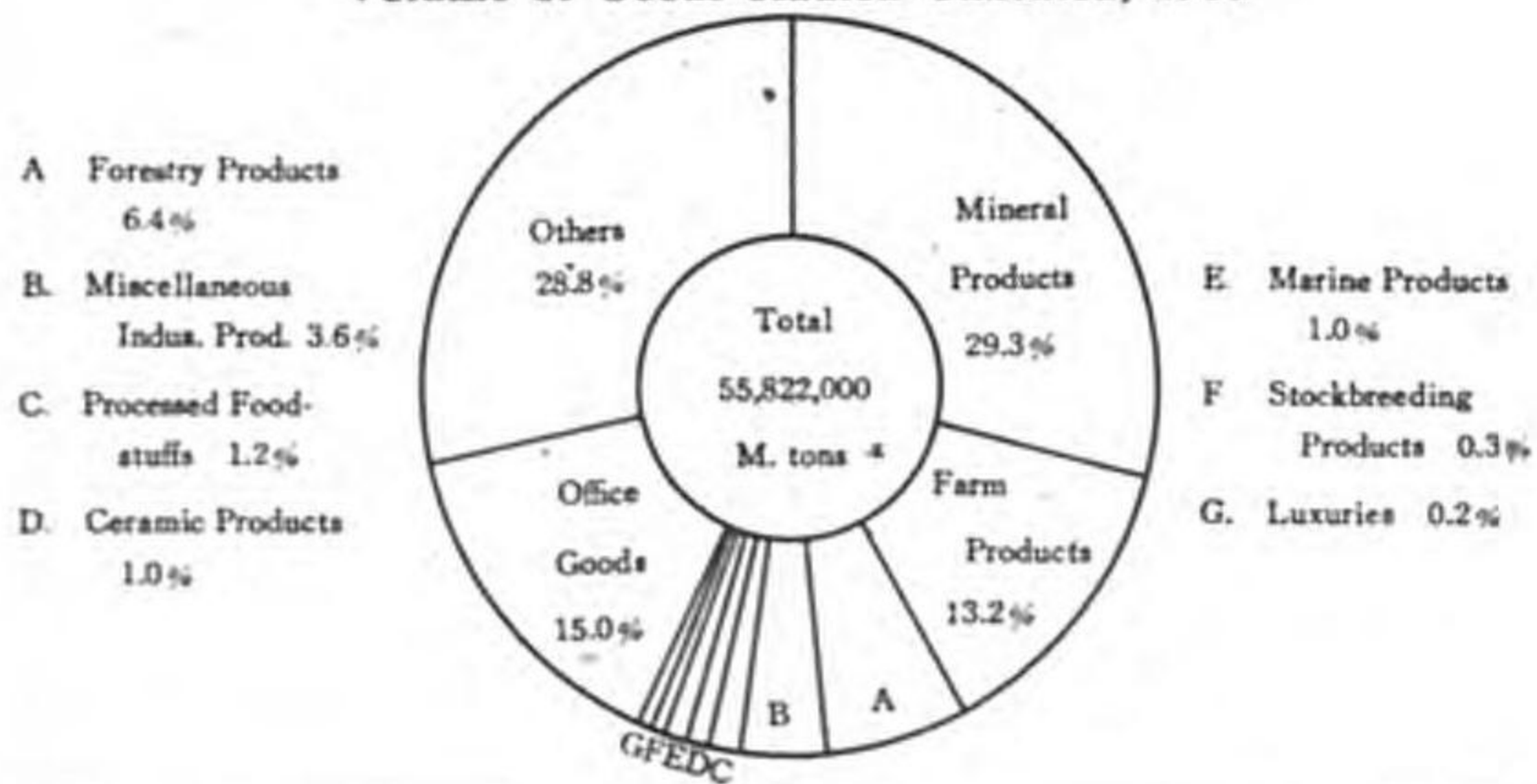
Development of Railways in Manchoukuo



Revenue from Goods and Passengers



Volume of Goods Hauled Classified, 1939



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## Year Names and Equivalents

	Japan		Manchoukuo	China	Christian Era
	Since Foundation	Era			
2572 .....		(Taisho) 1		Minkuo (Republic) 1	A. D. 1912
2573 .....		2		2	1913
2574 .....		3		3	1914
2575 .....		4		4	1915
2576 .....		5		5	1916
2577 .....		6		6	1917
2578 .....		7		7	1918
2579 .....		8		8	1919
2580 .....		9		9	1920
2581 .....		10		10	1921
2582 .....		11		11	1922
2583 .....		12		12	1923
2584 .....		13		13	1924
2585 .....		14		14	1925
2586 .....		(Showa) 1		15	1926
2587 .....		2		16	1927
2588 .....		3		17	1928
2589 .....		4		18	1929
2590 .....		5		19	1930
2591 .....		6		20	1931
2592 .....		7	(Tatung) 1	21	1932
2593 .....		8	2	22	1933
2594 .....		9	(Kangteh) 1	23	1934
2595 .....		10	2	24	1935
2596 .....		11	3	25	1936
2597 .....		12	4	26	1937
2598 .....		13	5	27	1938
2599 .....		14	6	28	1939
2600 .....		15	7	29	1940
2601 .....		16	8	30	1941
2602 .....		17	9	31	1942
2603 .....		18	10	32	1943
2604 .....		19	11	33	1944



# Weights, Measures and Moneys

(MANCHOUKUO)

## Measures

Length		Area	
	(meter)		(sq. meter)
1 hao (毫)	$= \frac{1}{10,000}$ chih (尺)	$= \frac{1}{30,000}$	1 kung (弓) = 25 sq. chih (尺) = $2\frac{1}{2}$
1 li (釐)	$= \frac{1}{1,000}$ chih (尺)	$= \frac{1}{3,000}$	1 hao (毫) = $\frac{1}{1,000}$ mu (畝) = 1
1 fen (分)	$= \frac{1}{100}$ chih (尺)	$= \frac{1}{300}$	1 li (釐) = $\frac{1}{100}$ mu (畝) = 10
1 tsun (寸)	$= \frac{1}{10}$ chih (尺)	$= \frac{1}{30}$	1 fen (分) = $\frac{1}{10}$ mu (畝) = 100
1 chih (尺)	=	$= \frac{1}{3}$	1 mu (畝) = 9,000 sq. chih (尺) = 1,000
1 chang (丈)	= 10 chih (尺)	= $3\frac{1}{3}$	1 tien (天) = 10 mu (畝) = 10,000
1 pi (引)	= 100 chih (尺)	= $33\frac{1}{3}$	1 ching (頃) = 100 mu (畝) = 100,000
1 li (里)	= 1,500 chih (尺)	= 500	

## Quantity

		(cu. meter)	
1 tso (撮)	$= \frac{1}{1,000}$ sheng (升)	= 0.001	1 sheng (升) = 27 cubic chih (尺) = 1
1 shao (勺)	$= \frac{1}{100}$ sheng (升)	= 0.01	1 tou (斗) = 10 sheng (升) = 10
1 ho (合)	$= \frac{1}{10}$ sheng (升)	= 0.1	1 tang (石) = 100 sheng (升) = 100

## Weights

1 ssu (絲)	$= \frac{1}{1,000,000}$ chin (斤)	= 0.0000005kg.	1 chien (錢)	$= \frac{1}{100}$ chin (斤)	= 0.005 kg.
1 hao (毫)	$= \frac{1}{100,000}$ chin (斤)	= 0.000005kg.	1 liang (兩)	$= \frac{1}{10}$ chin (斤)	= 0.05 kg.
1 li (釐)	$= \frac{1}{10,000}$ chin (斤)	= 0.00005kg.	1 chin (斤)	=	$\frac{1}{2}$ kg.
1 fen (分)	$= \frac{1}{1,000}$ chin (斤)	= 0.0005kg.	1 tan (擔)	= 100 chin (斤)	= 50 kg.

## Moneys

10 li (厘) = 1 fen (分)	1 fen (分) (Copper).....Weight 3.5 gr.
10 fen (分) = 1 chiao (角).	(Copper 95%, Tin 4%, Zinc 1%)
10 chiao (角) = 1 yuan (圓)	5 fen (分) (Nickel).....Weight 2 gr.
(23.91 grs. of Pure Silver)	(Nickel 25%, Copper 75%)
M. ¥ 1.00 (1 yuan) = 1 G. ¥ 1.00 (Japan)	1 chiao (角) (Nickel).....Weight 3 gr.
	(Nickel 75%, Copper 25%)

### Coins

5 li (厘) (Copper).....Weight 25 gr.  
(Copper 95% Tin 4%, Zinc 1%)

### Notes

5 chiao (角)	10 M. ¥ (圓)
1 M. ¥ (圓)	100 M. ¥ (圓)
5 M. ¥ (圓)	

## CHAPTER I

# GEOGRAPHY AND GEOLOGY

## General Features

The state of Manchoukuo, forming the northeastern littorals of the Asiatic continent, is divided from China in the south by the Great Wall running westward from Shanhaikwan close to the Pohai Sea. In the north Manchoukuo borders on Russian territory with the long winding stream of the Amur as a natural boundary. In the east, it is walled in by the range of Changpaishan mountains running along the Korean border and stretches far up to the north bordering the Maritime Province. In the west its borders touch Outer Mongolia and Chahar Province of Inner Mongolia. Manchoukuo's area is approximately 548,000 square miles or double the area of Borneo or more than half the size of the Argentine Republic. It lies between latitude 38°40' and 53°50' north, and longitude 115°20' and 135°20' east.

Table 1. POSITION, BOUNDARY AND COASTLINE

Position	East extremity—East Longitude	135°20'
	West " — " "	115°20'
	South " — North Latitude	38°40'
	North " — " "	53°50'
Boundary .....	8,438 kilometres (extension)	
Coastline .....	866 " "	

Manchuria is physiographically marked by three main mountain ranges; namely, the Hsingans, Great and Little, cutting the country from north to south through its northwestern section; the Changpaishan near the Korean boundary; and the Yinshan mountains fringing Jehol Province. Between these ranges lie extensive valleys of fertile soil, stretching from near the sands of Eastern Inner Mongolia in the southwest and the Gulf of Pechihli in the southeast and reaches up in the north to the basin of the Sungari river. The mountainous regions are rich in timber and



minerals. Several great rivers running through the central valley, together with their numerous tributaries, serve not only to irrigate the areas through which they pass but also as a means of transportation. They are the Amur (Heilungkiang), Sungari, Ussuri, Yalu, Tumen and Liao rivers. Though frozen in winter, these waterways each play an important part in the commercial traffic in other seasons.

#### Geographic Factors of Manchurian Civilization

The development of Manchuria and the life of its inhabitants was largely governed by the following conditions of nature.

1. Its intermediate position lying between Japan on the east, China on the south and Soviet Russia and Mongolia on the north and the west;
2. Continental climate with comparatively dry weather prevailing;
3. Extensive plains forming a central basin in the country.

Because of its natural position, Manchuria from its early times developed as a neutral or buffer area. Its internal and external policies were always subject to currents outside its territory. The dry weather prevailing through the greater part of the year provided determinative conditions for agriculture, forestry and livestock raising. The great difference in climate between North and South Manchuria showed its effects on the different lines of primitive industries developed in those distinct parts of the country. The fertile soil of the central basin produced abundance of crops which fall into the five major kinds of soya beans, kaoliang, millet, Indian corn and wheat. On the grassy plains varieties of livestock were raised. The wealth of mineral reserves found also in these parts of the country, especially the coal and iron deposits, have given birth to branches of modern industry which are now in thriving conditions. The vast timber resources found in the mountain ranges walling in Manchoukuo, though they still remain unexplored for the most part, provide a highly encouraging outlook for Manchoukuo in the timber industry.

The influence of these conditions of nature is now visible in many lines of industry in the country. It is because of this that the extensive plains of North Manchuria produce soya beans which

are the staple product of agriculture. Harvested, a large portion of this produce is brought southward to Dairen, Yinkow and other ports where argosies under many different flags come to carry it to Japan, Europe and America. The mineral wealth found in the region of Fushun and Anshan has brought forth large scale enterprises to turn it into the industrial center of the country. The steppes fringing the Hsingan mountains and the plains stretching out westward into Inner Mongolia have always been known for its abundance of livestock which give promise to play a role of increasing importance in the industrial structure developing in Manchoukuo.

#### Administrative Divisions

Manchuria, formerly called the "Three Eastern Provinces," comprised the provinces of Heilungkiang (Amur), Kirin and Fengtien. Jehol, Chahar and Suiyuan, constituting Inner Mongolia, were treated as an extramural or outlying district under the Manchu dynasty. After the fall of the Manchu dynasty, Chang Tso-lin, of Mukden, virtually maintained his authority over the Three Eastern Provinces and Jehol District, which forms the eastern part of Inner Mongolia. When the three districts of Inner Mongolia were raised to the status of separate provinces in 1928 by the Nanking regime of the day, Jehol Province was brought under the rule of Chang Hsueh-liang, Chang Tso-lin's son and successor, and the territory embracing Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol was after that called the "Four North-eastern Provinces". The administrative, judicial and military powers exercised by the Russians in the Chinese Eastern Railway zone were taken over by the Chinese authorities in 1920 and the zone was named the "Eastern Special District".

The four provinces above mentioned, including the Eastern Special District, were included in the independent state of Manchoukuo by the proclamation of independence on March 1, 1932, and the northwestern part of Heilungkiang Province and the northwestern part of Fengtien along the Hsingan mountain range, the regions mainly inhabited by Mongols, were formed as a separate administrative unit and called the Hsingan Province.

In December 1934 the four provinces and Inner Mongolia



were divided into 14 provinces or administrative units and these were again divided into 16 provinces in July 1937 and lastly into 18 in June 1939.

Table 2. AREA OF MANCHOUKUO

Province	Sq. km.	Province	Sq. km.
Fengtien .....	75,812	Mutankiang .....	32,961
Kirin .....	88,819	Heiho .....	109,813
Lungkiang .....	67,109	Peian .....	71,491
Jehol .....	66,585	Tungan .....	41,974
Pinkiang .....	63,863	East Hsingan .....	106,751
Chinchow .....	39,462	West Hsingan .....	80,410
Antung .....	41,974	South Hsingan .....	79,021
Chientao .....	29,830	North Hsingan .....	159,299
Sankiang .....	90,055	Hsinking Special Municipality	437
Tunghua .....	31,647	Total .....	1,303,437

#### Physiographical Conditions

Absence of high mountains and precipitous features of terrain are an outstanding physiographical feature of Manchoukuo. The Changpaishan mountains running from a southwesterly to a northeasterly direction through the southeastern section of the country provide, except Mt. Hakutosan (Paitushan) which is 2,344 meters high above sea level, a series of plateau generally lower than 2,000 meters. The Great Hsingan mountains, with their highest peak rising to 2,500 meters, form in other parts low tablelands. The Little Hsingan mountains extending through the northern section of North Manchuria from northwest to southeast generally form a plateau less than 1,000 meters high.

The plains walled in by these mountain ranges run 1,000 kilometers north to south, and 300 kilometers from east to west. The northern section of these Manchurian plains forms a series of tablelands about 200 meters high and are drained by the rivers Sungari and Nonni. The southern section of less altitude forms the basin of the river Liaoho. Thus, the plains gently slope down from north to south over a distance of more than 500 miles with no intervening object except for the low watershed running near Kungchuling, about 40 miles south of Hsinking, which forms a natural boundary between North and South Manchuria.

#### 10 Local Divisions

Shusaku Tanaka, Japanese authority on Manchurian geography, divides the country in 10 divisions as follows:

1. District of the Liaotung Peninsula; the entire peninsula lying between the Yellow and Pohai Seas;
2. District of Liaotung mountains; mainly the mountainous area bordering the northeastern part of the peninsula and bounded by the Changpaishan on the east and the low range of Sahakiang mountains on the north;
3. District of Liaoho Basin; the larger part of the alluvial plain along the river Liaoho, forming an industrial center of South Manchuria, with abundance of agricultural produce and active industrial life.
4. District of Liaosi; the area to the west of the river Liaoho and the land bordering on Liaotung Bay; roughly speaking, forming a link between Manchuria and North China.
5. District of Upper Sungari; the area on the upper course of the river Sungari and the basin of the river I-tung.
6. District of Northeastern Mountains; the area forming the entire northeastern part of Manchuria from the Korean border up northward to the Soviet border.
7. Sungari and Nonni Basins; the area bordering the river Sungari from its middle course downward and the basin of the river Nonni; marked by the presence of rich black soil which has won for the locality the name of "the granary of North Manchuria."
8. District of West Liao Basin; the basin of the upper course of the river Liao known as Shiramuren, forming high plateaus, constitutes the greater part of this area, which also includes the regions drained by the upper reaches of the rivers Talingho and Lanho as well as the northern part of the Yinshan mountains.
9. West of Hsingan Mountains; the northwest of Manchuria lying to the west of the Hsingan Mountains, mainly consisting of the wooded area of the mountain range and the pasture land of Holunbuir.
10. District of Northern Mountains; the northernmost area along the river Amur.



## MOUNTAINS

## In Eastern Part

**Changpaishan Range.** This range consists of several chains running in parallel lines and cuts through the eastern part of Manchuria. With its tendency from southwest to northeast, it forms a series of watershed from which spring rivers like Yalu, Liaoho, Sungari, Tumenkiang. The northern section called Wan-tashan forms a divide on one side of which rises the Ussuri and on the other the Sungari. The southern end of the Changpaishan runs into Liaotung. The entire length of the range is given at approximately 1,300 kilometers and the highest peak, Changpaishan, is 2,744 meters above sea level.

**Kirin-Hata Range.** This system of mountains forms a western branch of the Changpaishan range, starting in the east in Mount Irhayafan, reaches as far as the river Liaoho in the west, touches Motienling in the south, and in the north reaches into the area lying between Changchun and Kirin.

**Sahaliang Range.** This range runs on the northern side of the Changpaishan system almost in a parallel line, starting from the east of the city of Mukden and extending to the south of Kirin. The highest peak is Chienshan noted for its fine scenery and ancient monasteries.

**Laochangkwangling Range.** This group may be regarded as a northern extension of the Sahaliang range. It originates between the city of Kirin and Tunghua and runs up in a northeasterly direction, its entire extension being 300 kilometers and the highest peak 1,721 meters in altitude.

## In Northern Part

In this section of Manchuria most mountains are found close to the river Amur. The peaks forming a divide between the Amur and the Sungari are thickly wooded, with rich timber resources which remain mostly intact. Many volcanoes are found in this area.

**Little Hsingans.** The Hsiao Hsinganling or Little Hsingan mountains are marked with a tendency from north to south, though throwing out spurs east to west at many points. In these peaks

rise many tributaries to both the Amur and the Sungari. The highest peak of the whole system, Mt. Ikokukota, stands some 1,800 meters above sea but the other peaks are less than 1,000 meters in height.

**Ilohulishan Range.** This range running east to west forms a link between the Little and the Great Hsingan mountains and a divide between the river Humar and the Nonni. The range is generally of low elevation, the highest peak, Orkuli, being some 600 meters in altitude.

## In Western Part

**Great Hsingan Mountains.** This massive chain of mountains, cutting through the west of Manchuria, starts in the south in the Yinsan mountains, fringing the province of Jehol, and runs generally in a northeasterly direction through Inner Mongolia and between Jehol and Chahar Provinces and reaches northward almost within sight of the Amur. One of its northern branches connects further up with the Aldan heights. The entire length of the range is given at 650 kilometers. Although the highest point rises as high as 2,500 meters, the average height of the whole range is from 1,000 to 1,500 meters. Generally speaking, the range is higher in the south and falls in height as it proceeds northward, though it extends in width and forms at places in the north steppes 1,000 meters in width. The Hsingan mountains are marked with sharp and sometimes even precipitous features on the eastern side, but on the western side slope down at gentle angles and trail off into the plains of Inner Mongolia.

**Sungling Mountains.** This system of mountains forms a natural boundary between Liaosi and Jehol Provinces, its northern extremity reaching as far as the northwestern border of Fengtien Province. The length of the range is estimated at some 400 kilometers.

**Liangyuan Mountains.** This group runs across Jehol to the north of the Sungling chain, its extension being estimated at some 400 kilometers. These mountains seldom rise above 1,000 meters in height.

**Yenshan Mountains.** This range cutting through the westernmost part of Jehol Province generally runs parallel with the Great Wall.



Table 3. PRINCIPAL MOUNTAIN SYSTEMS IN MANCHOUKUO

Principal Range	Sub-Range	Tributary Mountains	Height (metres)	Main Peaks	Height of Peaks (metres)
Changpaishan	Changpaishan	—	—	Paitoushan	2,774
	"	Feitehlishan	More than 2,000	Feitehlishan & Maotsushan	—
	"	Iluhayafan (Laoling)	—	Laoling	1,000
	"	Heishan	1,000-2,000	Laopaishan	—
	"	Yingehling	2,000 maximum	—	—
	Hsiao (Little) Changpaishan	Moutanling	1,000-2,000	Chingling	1,013
	"	Changkwang-tsailing	850 maximum	Changkwang-tsailing	793
	"	Laoling	—	Daoling	1,200
	Kuanta (Kentai)	—	250-270	Hounishihshan	—
	"	Kongtaishan	—	—	—
	"	Lungehaokou	—	—	—
	"	Chakulanling	—	Kuantashan	—
	"	Natanhatalaling	—	Shuangyashan & Fulishan	—
	"	Aluhaweichuling	—	—	—
	Laosungling (Mukotehsiang)	Halupaling	800 maximum	Halupaling	800
	"	Changlingtsu	—	—	—
	"	Laoyehling	1,200 maximum	Laosungling	800
	"	Meling	—	—	—
	"	Takaoliling	—	—	—
Changpaishan Western Branch (Kirin-Hata)	Chahaliang	700-1,000	—	—	
	Kueling	"	—	—	
	Mayenhotaling	"	—	—	
	Southern Watershed	Imenshaling	700-750	—	—
		Taling	500-700	—	—
		Aiho Western	700 maximum	—	—
Matienling		800-1,100	—	—	
"	Tsienshan	—	—	—	
Hsinganling	Greater Hsinganling (West Branch)	Yikilishan	1,210 maximum	Yikilishan	1,210
	"	Shihchangshan	—	Shihchangshan	—
	"	Chiehichangshan	1,360 maximum	Chiehichangshan	1,360
	Great Hsinganling (East Branch)	Ilihuli	600 maximum	Erkoloshan	600
	"	Suchen	—	Yunholdongi	—
"	Chalahamutu	—	Achatehshan	—	
"	—	—	Hosenshan	—	

(Continued)

Principal Range	Sub-Range	Tributary Mountains	Height (metres)	Main Peaks	Height of Peaks (metres)
Yingshan (Gachar)	Hsiao (Little) Hsinganling	—	1,221 maximum	Mahalashan	1,221
	"	Fuszukuan	—	—	—
	"	Chushan	—	—	—
	"	Fulin	—	—	—
	"	Laolung	—	—	—
	"	Kulukuluto	—	—	—
	"	Heishan	—	—	—
	"	Talитай	—	—	—
Yingshan (Gachar)	—	Tsilautu	720 maximum	Maochinpaling (Machintaba)	720
	"	Sungshangling	1,600 maximum	Ifoloshan	1,600

## PLAINS

**Centrals Plains.** The plains of Manchuria marked off by three major mountain ranges running in the east, in the south and in the west, as described above, extend from Hailung in the north to Yinkow in the south, covering a distance of some 1,000 kilometers. Its breadth, measured from Taonan to Hsinking, is approximately 300 kilometers. The entire area represents one quarter of the total area of Manchoukuo. The southern part is drained by the river Liaoho and the northern part by the rivers Sungari and Nonni which both flow into the Amur.

The central plains, marked by few irregular features of terrain, are formed of diluvial and alluvial soils of the quarternary period. The soil of North Manchuria is black humus for the most part and well suitable for grains. In South Manchuria loess occurs in large part. This porous, brittle kind of soil turns into mud after rains and make traffic extremely difficult, and in dry seasons it turn into yellow flying dust and is blown about by winds.

**Steppes.** These plains of grasses and undergrowth, probably formed under the influence of the country's prevailing dry climate, are marked with many sand dunes and barren for the most part. These plains extending to a distance of some 150 kilometers on the eastern side of the Great Hsingan Mountains include the area lying between Buir-nor and Dalai-nor lakes. Alkaline deposits are found at many places in the western part of the steppes. The steppes



to the west of Lake Buir-nor rise to an altitude of 750 meters and those to the south of Taonqan to 360 meters.

### COASTLINE

The coastline of Manchoukuo is extremely short, only a small portion of its southern area facing the Yellow and Pohai Seas. Even inclusive of the Kwantung Leased Province, the entire coastline is only some 1,100 kilometers. With all islands reckoned, the length is not more than 1,400 kilometers. The line running from the mouth of the Yalu in the east to Lienshan Bay in the west near Shanhaikwan is marked with but few indentations, there being few good anchorages.

The Liaotung peninsula projects between the Pohai and the Yellow Sea, its southern extremity being known as Kwantung Province. Chinchow Bay and harbors like Port Arthur and Dairen mark its coastal line. There are the Changshan group and other small islands off its shores, their number being more than 70. Tachangshantao, the largest of the Changshan group, some 20 in number, lying to the east of Kwantung Province, has an area of 34 square kilometers.

Chinchow Bay is a small inlet to the west of the town of Chinchow in Kwantung Province. The bay extending about 70 kilometers inward from its entrance is divided in two sections, the one to the north being called Adams Bay and the other to the south the Southern Bay.

Lienshan Bay. A small bay lying to the south of the town of Chinchow, on the western side of the Pohai Sea. This bay rose in importance after harbor construction was undertaken at Hulutao in 1930 by Chang Hsueh-liang and resumed in 1937 by the Government of Manchoukuo. The only port in Manchuria free from ice in winter, this port will be developed as an outlet for Chinchow and Jehol.

### RIVERS

#### The Heilungkiang (Amur)

**General Remarks.** The Heilungkiang, or Amur, is one of the greatest rivers of the world, running through the north-eastern part

of Asia, and its drainage basin occupying a large area between the 46th and 54th parallels of north latitude and between the 113th and 141st meridians of east longitude. Forming the boundary between Soviet Russia and Manchoukuo, the Heilungkiang flows eastward to the length of 4,426 kilometers and drains approximately 1,960,000 square kilometers, and occupies the 11th place in length and the 12th place in area among the rivers in the world. The name of Heilungkiang designates the section from the confluence of the Shilka and the Argun rivers down to its mouth. The Shilka, one of its headwaters, is a combination of the Onon River of Mongolia and the Ingoda River of Siberia.

Receiving waters of the Zeya and the Bureya on the way, the main stream of the Heilungkiang moves south-east down to Tungkiang where it joins the Sungari River, then turns its course north-east, and absorbing the Ussuri at Khabarovsk and the Amgun at a point near its mouth, finally empties into the Gulf of Tartary at the estuary port of Nijne Amursk. The name Heilungkiang means "Black Dragon River", and comes from the dark-green color of the water, called by the Chinese as "Heishui", by the Manchus as "Sahalienwula", by the Mongolians "Kolamulien"—all meaning black-green water. Others say, however, that the present name originated either from "Amur" (great river) of the Gilyaks or "Emur" (black river) of the Tunguse.

The production of placer gold in the drainage basin of the Heilungkiang is world famous, while forestry and farm products also abound. The river ports of Blagovyeshensk, Ta-Heiho, Khabarovsk and Nijne Amursk are located at the important points on the river and stand at the center of the respective districts.

As it forms the boundary between Manchoukuo and Soviet Russia, the stream entirely divides the race on the right bank from that on the left bank, and the political interests of these nations are delimited by the Heilungkiang and the Ussuri.

#### The Heilungkiang and Its Tributaries

**The Main Stream of the Heilungkiang.** The Heilungkiang proper starts at the confluence of the Shilka and the Argun, but its headwaters are the Onon and the Ingoda. The Onon River starts from Mt. Kenteshan in Outer Mongolia and runs north-east

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to Onon Station on the Siberian Railway where it joins with the Ingoda. The Ingoda springs in the Yablonoi mountains and passes by Chita, where it turns its course south-east and finally forms the Shilka River with the Onon. At Lokuho the Shilka meets the Argun which comes up from the south to form the great Heilungkiang. The district in between the Onon from Mt. Kenteshan and the Kerulen from the same mountain is historically famous as the cradle of the Mongolian Kingdom. Measured from Lokuho, the length of the Heilungkiang is 2,894 kilometers, but it extends over 5,000 kilometers when the Onon and the Shilka included. The navigable length reaches 3,268 kilometers from Sryetensk down to Nijne Amursk.

(A) **The Argun, or the Headwaters.** The Argun actually constitutes the headwaters of the Heilungkiang, and forms the western boundary of Manchoukuo. The Argun has the Kerulen River as its headwaters above Lake Dalainor on the map. But according to a recent survey, Lake Dalainor absorbs the waters of the Kerulen and other small rivers, but does not drain its own waters to the north. If this is true, the Kerulen cannot be taken for the headwaters of the Argun.

The Argun receives the waters of the Hailar River, then runs up to the north and meets three rivers—the "Haur, Delpur" and "Gan," which drain the so-called Three River District embracing the vast pasturage of the Russians. The length of the Argun is 1,270 kilometers, and 969 kilometers of it is navigable by light craft, the depth being from 0.6 meter to 6 meters. The raft may be used for another 140 kilometers.

The Heilungkiang proper may be divided into three main sections of navigation, i.e. the upper stream from Lokuho to Blagovyeshchensk, the middle stream from Blagovyeshchensk to Khabarovsk and the lower stream from Khabarovsk to Nijne Amursk.

(B) **The upper stream (from Lokuho to Blagovyeshchensk).** In the section from the confluence of the Shilka and the Argun to Albazin the course is narrowed by the mountains of the Great Hsinganling range and pushes eastward through high banks covered with coniferous woods. At Albazin the stream emerges from the woodland and turns its course to the south-east. For a certain stretch, the stream is still narrow and the current is torrential with shallows at several points. Below Albazin it parts from the moun-

tains to a considerable distance and is divided into several streams with islands covered with tall trees in between. Such condition persists until it joins the Humaerhho. In the vicinity of the confluence, the Hsinganling mountains again press hard toward the right bank of the river, but recede from it at the point near Heiho and Blagovyeshchensk. The 827 kilometers from Heiho up to Moho allow the passage of steamships, while smaller boats may sail up to Kilalin.

(C) **The middle stream (from Blagovyeshchensk to Khabarovsk).** For Manchoukuo, the middle stream of the Heilungkiang is the most important section for navigation. The river joins the Zeya at Blagovyeshchensk and gathers the waters of many small effluents within the distance of 320 kilometers down to the confluence where the Bureya River joins it. The banks are mostly high and precipitous with a height of 5-10 meters from the surface of the water, and the stream is so deep to the brink that steamers may be moored alongside at various points. The width of the stream is from 800 to 2,000 meters at some places; the depth averages 10 feet and the speed is about 6 kilometers per hour. The district on the left side; that, on the Russian plain, is moorish for 60 kilometers below Blagovyeshchensk, especially in the section where small rivers empty into the Heilungkiang. Where the stream passes the mouth of the Bureya are the Buregensk mountain range and the Small Hsinganling range. The stream runs winding through the valley between these two mountain ranges to a distance of 160 kilometers. Huge rocks baffle the current which whirls at many places. The banks are formed by the precipices of the mountains, leaving but small patches of flat land here and there. This section boasts of the most beautiful landscape in the whole length of the river. The hills, from 60 to 90 meters in height, erect pyramids or cones covered with a carpet of green grasses on both sides of the river. Forests of the oak, larch and pine give a high scenic effect to the general view of the valley, especially in the fall when the leaves change colors. The speed of the stream is from 4-5 knots. As the stream comes out of these mountain ranges and approaches the point where the Sungari River joins, one notices a change in the topography. The river now assumes a greater dimension in width. Below Tungkiang the lands on both sides become flat, rich plains. The river flows quietly



through the vast plains, almost nothing standing in the field of vision, except beacons or lone Buryat shepherds. The width of the river is wide, and many islands raise their heads on the water.

(D) **The lower stream (from Khabarovsk to its mouth).** Below Khabarovsk, the Amur pushes its course due north through the boundless swampy plains of East Siberia. In this section, there lies no large town on either bank, but hamlets of Russians or Koreans. The Amur absorbs the waters of the Amugun at a point near its mouth, and then finally empties itself into the sea at Njjne Amursk.

#### Tributaries of the Heilungkiang

The Heilungkiang is fed by innumerable streams on its long way, the number of its effluents utilized more or less for transportation reaching 130. Explanations of the important ones follow:

**Tributaries in the territory of Manchoukuo.** All the rivers of North Manchoukuo, which drain the area north of the Small Hsinganling range, belong to the drainage basin of the Heilungkiang. They are small rivers, fordable under normal conditions. The volumes of water of these rivers vary according to rainy and dry seasons; a small river barely discernible in the dry season rises in flood, rushes down in torrents after but two or three rainy days, and then returns to its former state after one or two sunny days. No riparian work has ever been tried for these streams which change courses as they like. Consequently their banks are liable to be overflowed at any time and threaten the district with floods.

(a) **The Fumaerhho.** The upper stream of the Fumaerhho winds swiftly through large forestry lands, and huge rocks prohibit even the use of rafts. The section from Chinshanchen to Hsinglungkou is specially dangerous. The district drained by the river is famous for its gold mines.

(b) **The Sunho.** The river passes by Sunho-hsien to the east and empties into the Heilungkiang. It is unnavigable and has fords at Wuchiawo.

(c) **The Sungari.** The greatest tributary of the Heilungkiang combines the Second Sungari which starts from Mt. Changpai on the border of Chosen and the Nunkiang which comes down

from the Great Hsinganling range, and, absorbing the waters of North Manchoukuo, flows to a length of 1,927 kilometers through the drainage basin of 520,000 square kilometers. Traffic on the river is most prosperous. (See the foregoing section dealing with the Sungari.)

**Tributaries in Soviet Russia.** (a) **The Shilka River.** The Shilka is a combination of the Onon which starts in Outer Mongolia and runs to the north and the Ingoda which passes west of Chita. The watershed on the plateau of Yablonoi divides the waters into the tributaries of the Lena River of Siberia to the north and the tributaries of the Heilungkiang to the south. The Ingoda is one of the latter. The Shilka meets the Argun at Lokuho, after running over 1,198 kilometers, it being navigable for 557 kilometers. The stream below Sryetensk becomes slow and wide enough for steamers, while rafts may be floated on another stretch of 213 kilometers. The land along the upper stream has mountains covered with forests, mostly of pines.

(b) **The Zeya River.** The river is the largest of the tributaries of the Heilungkiang on its left side. It springs in the Yablonoi range, runs down to the south, gathering the waters of various tributaries on the way, and empties into the Heilungkiang at Blagovyeschensk. Misled by the wideness of its mouth and the direction of the Heilungkiang at the confluence, the natives of the district once took the Heilungkiang for a tributary of the Zeya.

The width of the Zeya at its mouth is from 800 to 1,400 meters, the upper stream having a width of 200-600 meters. The depth is from 4 to 6 feet, and the length 1,282 kilometers, of which 1,132 meters is considered to be navigable. Safe navigation is possible up to the town of Zeya, and it may be extended still further up to Pomnark via Danbuki in the high-water season. The speed averages 4 kilometers per hour, but, at the iron bridge of the Siberian Railway, the stream narrows, the speed increasing to 8 kilometers. Navigation is safe in general, except for the section between Zeya and Danbuki, where the stream is torrential at several points.

The drainage basin of this river is rich in gold, being famous for its production of placer gold. The transportation on the river is, therefore, mostly for the conveyance of goods for the gold



mines. When it freezes in winter time, the waterway is transformed into a sled traffic course.

(c) The Selemdja. The tributary of the Zeya has a length of 700 kilometers. At the confluence with the Zeya, it is 500-700 meters wide and about 4 feet deep. Shallows abound in its course, but small steamers may sail up to Uschinor for 200 kilometers, while launches may go up to Stiba and boats up to the gold mine district of Ekitsitsian. The river freezes any time from the middle of October to the beginning of May.

(d) The Tomi River. Another effluent of the Zeya is the Tomi which flows through the vast plain on the Russian side of the middle stream of the Heilungkiang from the east to the west and empties into the Zeya at a point 50 kilometers west of Bochikareu Station. The width measures 200 meters at its mouth, 180 meters at the said station, the depth averaging 3-4 feet. The land along the stream is mostly moorish, and the roads are flooded over in the rainy season, stopping traffic on most of them. On the contrary, traffic is free in winter time on the frozen roads and river.

(e) The Bureya River. This river springs at the western slope of the small Hsinganling and in the Bureyensky mountain range. The mountains which form the watershed of the Bureya are cone-shaped with bare rocks on the tops. The watershed is a plateau of 200-300 meters above sea-level, and its gorges are precipitous, granite cropping up at the slopes. As the mountain brooks approach to the main stream, the height of the banks becomes lower, surrounded by round hills. In the district north of Chekunda flat openings are seen in the forests, and many small streams flow through it forming pools at various points. The Niman, an effluent of the Bureya is actually larger than the main stream near the confluence. The length of the Bureya is 675 kilometers, but it hardly allows a safe passage of vessels, unless guided by experienced pilots of the "Yakute" or Korean race. Gold miners are often drowned in its torrents.

#### The River Ussuri

The Ussuri is the next great tributary of the Heilungkiang. It combines two rivers of the Daubi (275 km.) and the Ura (55 km.) which start from the southern arm of the Shikhota Alin

mountain range. It runs northward to the point where it joins the Sungachaho, another tributary, and continues its course along the 134th meridian of east longitude, forming the border line between Manchoukuo and Soviet Russia, until it discharges itself into the Heilungkiang at Khabarovsk. It carries a great volume of water, draining approximately 100,000 square kilometers of area.

The first effluent of the Ussuri is the Sungachaho. Starting at a point east of Lake Hsingkaihu, it runs into the lake from the west, and, emerging out of it, pushes eastward to meet the Ussuri. It has a length of 288 kilometers, and is 2.5-3.5 meters deep, and 38-53 meters wide. The district along the river is low and moorish, with many pools and rivulets, while dry lands are covered with grasses good for hay.

The second tributary is the Mulingho which runs by Mulin and has a length of 435 kilometers. Rafts may be floated on the stream in the high-water season. The basin is covered with shrubs, although some good lumber trees are seen standing occasionally. The third is the Naoliho which runs over 400 kilometers and empties into the Ussuri at a point south of Tunganehen. There are two other effluents in Soviet Russia, i.e. the Khor and Bikin, 400 km. and 450 km. respectively; the former is well known as a fishery of salmon.

#### Facilities and Riparian Works in the Waterway of the Heilungkiang

**Facilities for the Safety of Navigation.** As mentioned in the foregoing paragraphs, the Heilungkiang has a length of 4,426 kilometers measured from its headwaters, and is the second largest river in the Far East, the largest being the Yangtze River. The main stream is wide enough for the sailing of steamers up to Kialin. The principal section for navigation is 1,600 kilometers between Moho and Tungkiang where it allows the passage of a steamer of 600 tons, with the minimum width of 50 meters and the maximum over 2 kilometers, while the depth measures 10 meters in the deepest place. In the long course, however, there are many places where sediments from shallows, including the shoal of Ekaterinonikorsk, 25 Russian miles in length.

In order to execute riparian works to ensure navigation, the



Russian Government established the Amur Navigation Administration Bureau at Blagovyeshensk in 1917, just before the outbreak of the Revolution. In 1918, when Chinese vessels began to undertake the navigation enterprise on the river, the Russian Government proposed to the Chinese authorities a scheme of co-operation, requesting the latter to bear half of the expenses for riparian works and supply boats and material for operation. On June 27, 1922, the first agreement on the waterway was concluded between the interested parties, and the improvement work for the section of 1,865 kilometers between the confluence of the Shilka and the Argun and Kazakevich where the Ussuri and the Heilungkiang meet was commenced by a joint waterway commission. The agreement has been revised several times since. But the joint commission was after all dissolved, and China organized her own commission to bear a fixed sum of expenses on her part and entrust Russians with the work of erecting beacons and light-houses along the Heilungkiang.

In order to obtain funds for the river improvement works under the first agreement, the Chinese Government set up a custom house and imposed customs duties on the trade goods and passengers passing the Heilungkiang. On the founding of Manchoukuo, the custom house was transferred to the new State and on July 1, 1933, the business of the custom house was taken over by the Navigation Bureau of the Government of Manchoukuo, and, at present, it is carried on by the Harbin River Transportation Bureau.

Between 1922 and 1931, there were erected 1,574 beacons and 1,338 pharos along the Heilungkiang.

**Watercourse Agreement between Manchoukuo and Soviet Russia.** Negotiations for the conclusion of an agreement on the watercourse of the Heilungkiang between Manchoukuo and the Soviet Union were commenced, on June 28, 1934, between the Manchoukuo delegate Kuei Hung-ping, Consul at Blagovyeshensk and the Russian delegate Meteritssar, director of the Amur Shipping Bureau. They met 15 times and at last succeeded in signing a new agreement between the two countries on September 4, 1934. Two days after, the Foreign Department of Manchoukuo issued the following statement in connection with the agreement: "The Harbin River Transportation Bureau of Manchoukuo and the Amur Shipping Bureau of Soviet Russia concluded the following

agreement with the purpose of improving cooperatively conditions for navigation on the rivers of Argun, Heilungkiang, Ussuri and Sungacha, and Lake Hsingkaihu, in accordance with the provisions of the agreement."

#### The Agreement on Waterways between Manchoukuo and the U.S.S.R.

**Article I.** The sailing of vessels of the contracting parties on the rivers and lake mentioned above shall be free according to the courses directed by the beacons jointly erected on the rivers and in strict observance of the table affixed and regulations sanctioned by the contracting parties.

**Article II.** In order to maintain the best possible conditions of navigation on the watercourses stated in Article I and to jointly carry works for the maintenance and erection of necessary beacons, for digging, dredging, etc. the contracting parties agree to organize a joint commission of engineering composed of 8 members and represented by even number, one of whom being chosen as chairman for each. Regulations for the organization of the joint commission of engineering will be prescribed separately.

**Article III.** The joint commission of engineering shall draw plans and make estimates of expenditure for the execution of the above stated works, supervise the works and settle the accounts.

**Article IV.** The expenses for the members of the joint commission of engineering and technicians in employment shall be borne on each side for their own men.

**Article V.** The contracting parties will conduct and supervise separately the work of erecting beacons on their own bank, but dredging, digging or similar works in the watercourses shall be conducted jointly.

**Article VI.** When any question arises in regard to the application of the provisions of the agreement or the regulations of the joint commission of engineering, the solution of such question shall be made by a special committee. The special committee will consist of 4 members, chosen by each contracting party in equal number. The decision of the special committee is final.

**Article VII.** The contracting parties will help each other, in case of need, for the execution of riparian works stated in Article II.

**Article VIII.** The contracting parties shall take necessary measures for the protection of facilities for navigation stated in Article II.

**Article IX.** The agreement shall enter into operation on the day of signing and remain in force for two years, after which either of the contracting parties shall have the right to terminate it separately at any time on giving three months' notice to that effect.

Upon such notice, the contracting parties shall call a conference for the conclusion of a new agreement.

**Article X.** The agreement is done in duplicate and signed by each contracting party, and two copies are kept in the custody of each contracting party.



On April 20, 1936, committees of both parties were called to a conference for the formation of the regulations of the joint commission of engineering and practical plans of riparian works on the Heilungkiang.

#### Conditions of Traffic

**Term for Navigation.** It is the freezing of the river that mostly disturbs the watercourse of the Heilungkiang and limits its term for navigation. The length of the ice-bound season varies according to years. It is approximately 200 days on the average, between the last ten days of October and the middle of May, leaving only 165 days for safe voyage of vessels on the stream. The duration of the term open for navigation as observed at Heiho in 1933, 1934, and 1935 was as follows:

Table 4. DURATION OF NAVIGATION ON HEILUNGKIANG

	Opening of the River	Beginning of Drifting of Ice	No. of Navi- gable Days
1933 .....	May 12	October 30	171
1934 .....	May 13	October 25	165
1935 .....	May 11	October 25	167

The volume of water carried is greatest at the time of thaw, and decreases in June and July, specially in the upper stream. In the rainy season of August and September, it again rises to flood, and then begins to recede toward the end of October when navigation on the upper stream closes.

**Sections of Navigation and Vessels.** As mentioned in the Section on the Sungari, the shipping business on the Heilungkiang comes under the jurisdiction of the North Manchuria River Transportation Bureau. The sections of services on the river are as follows:

Table 5. NAVIGABLE SECTIONS

Sections	Distance in km.	No. of Steamers under Service
Harbin-Heiho .....	1,418	5
Fuchin-Heiho .....	795	2
Heiho-Moho .....	827	2
Moho-Kilalin .....	499	2
Harbin-Huton .....	1,285	5
Fuchin-Huton .....	663	2
Hutou-Mishan .....	335	1

The steamers used are of 600-1,000 tons, being either passenger boats or passenger-cargo boats, running with water-wheels affixed at the sides or the stern peculiar to North Manchoukuo.

**The Future of Navigation on the Heilungkiang.** Navigation on the Heilungkiang is yet undeveloped. The transportation business carried on this side of the river was commenced by the Shutung Shipping Corporation of the Chinese in 1918 and has had hard experience, conducted as it were, by the prevailing governments or private companies with no visible progress. The causes of the failure may be found in the fact that the opened term is but 165 days in a year, in the imposition of high duties on the goods shipped from Harbin, in the central market city in North Manchuria, and in the breach of agreement on the part of Russians. But the fundamental reasons must be sought in the undeveloped economic conditions and naive civilization among the inhabitants in the drainage basin of the Heilungkiang, which lacked power to promote modern industries in the area, and in the suspension of trade with the Soviet Union.

The unreasonable taxes and duties formerly imposed by Chinese governments on the goods shipped in North Manchuria were adjusted by the North Manchuria River Transportation Bureau. But the future of the shipping business on the Heilungkiang largely depends on the cessation of illegal actions on the part of Russians, the recovery of trade between Manchoukuo and Soviet Russia and the restoration of peace in the region. In recent years, the natural resources preserved in the districts along the upper stream of the Heilungkiang have called the attention of enterprisers who are actually making efforts for their exploitation, and the Manchoukuo-Russian trade will eventually be restored to normal conditions in the near future.

The Peian-Heiho railway line which was completed on December 25, 1934, and connects the upper drainage basin of the Heilungkiang with Harbin may have some effect against the shipping business on the river. Since this railway, however, was opened for promoting exploitation of natural resources in the northernmost frontier of Manchoukuo, it will prove advantageous rather than harmful to the transportation business on the river, because the land and water transportations have their own merits or specialities and may help each other to make contributions for better



traffic in North Manchoukuo.

Goods shipped from North Manchoukuo are of voluminous articles, such as cereals or timber, and watercourses are better utilized than railways for their transportation. Moreover, the construction work of Heiho wharves was completed in the autumn of 1935. The wharves are directly connected with the terminal station of Heiho by rails to enable a complete connection of land and water transportations in the district. The future of shipping business on the Heilungkiang is therefore highly hopeful.

### Sungari River

**The Main Stream and Effluents.** The main stream of the River Sungari starts from Lake Changpai. This lake is situated on Mt. Changpai which stands high on the boundary between Manchoukuo and Chosen. The stream joins the Erhtaokiang and running north-west through the gorge of the Changpaishan mountain range, absorbs the waters of many small tributaries and reaches Kirin, from whence it advances into the valley of North Manchuria. At a point east of Hsinking it takes in the stream of the Itungho, and unites with the River Nunkiang, the largest tributary, at a point a few miles north of Fuyu where it suddenly turns its course north-east. There it forms the boundary between Kirin and Pinkiang province. After passing through the city of Harbin and gathering the waters of the Mutankiang and other tributaries on the way, it reaches the town of Tungkiang, where it finally joins the River Amur.

The length of the Sungari is 1,927 kilometers, excluding tributaries. The Sungari forms the main artery of trade by water in North Manchoukuo, the total area of its valleys reaching 523,000 square kilometers, or one-fourth of the total area of the country, in the bosom of which rich stores of agricultural, forestry and mining products lie in abundance and the principal marts such as Kirin, Kuyushu, Hsincheng, Fuyu, Chaochow, Harbin, Hulan, Moulán, Chiamussu, Fuchín and Tungkiang are located.

It is one of the two important rivers in Manchoukuo, the other being the River Liaoho in South Manchuria. Its larger tributaries are the Nunkiang, the Lalinho, the Ashihho, the Hulanho and the Mutankiang.

### Natural Conditions

**Climate in the Valleys of the Sungari.** Temperature widely fluctuates according to seasons; frost occurs at the end of September and thin ice covers the surface in October. One degree below zero persists through the six months from November to April, during which the streams of the Sungari are ice-bound, allowing no navigation. In June the temperature abruptly rises, the maximum heat being 35° C. in July and August.

The rain and snowfalls, which feed the streams, amount to an annual average of 1,000 mm., the bulk of which falls during the summer months of July and August. It generally begins to snow at the latter part of October and ends in the middle of April, the thickness being about one foot on the plains and from two to four feet in the mountainous regions.

**Rise and Fall of Water.** The River Sungari is fed by rain springs, and the rise and fall of the stream is precipitous. The water is shallow in general, falling below two feet at low water. One often hears of heavily loaded boats being held up for many days by an unexpected appearance of shallow-water in places. The water rises in spring when the snows on the mountains melt, as well as during the rainy season of summer.

**Term of Navigation.** The term of navigation extends for six months from May to October; the ice begins, as a rule, to bind the stream some time between October 27 and the end of November and to free it sometime between April 1-24.

The ice melts between March 26—April 3 at Kirin, and at the end of April at Tungkiang, at the mouth of the Sungari. The average for the past five years indicates that the river at Harbin is ice-free for 230 days a year, the shortest being 221 days and the longest 240 days. As there is the danger of drift-ice in the days of freezing or thaw, however, it may be safe to say that the river is open for traffic at Harbin for no more than 200 days in a year.

**Nature of the Bed and Banks.** The river bed of the Sungari is entirely composed of sand or clay, containing no rocks. The sand, thrown down from the banks and carried down by its effluents, buries the bed of the main stream, forming shallow-waters at various points to hinder the free passage of vessels, especially in the low-water season. Some shoals allow passage in a zigzag



way, but ships often run aground. To make the matter worse, the high shoals at Fuyu often change position by the effect of the streams of the Itungho and the Yinmaho, which empty large quantities of sand into the Sungari.

The banks of the Sungari are of earth or the layer of sand, and are very low, making the demarcation between the land and water altogether uncertain. At places, there is actually no bank, the stream flowing as wide as it likes. Most of the banks are left natural, with no riparian works. The high-water or floods, therefore, freely carry and heap sands. Riparian works are completed in the sections at Harbin, Kirin and Lienkiangkou, but in other sections, the banks may fall easy victims to floods.

**Navigable Length.** The navigable length of the Sungari for steam boats reaches 1,662 kilometers consisting of,

Table 6. NAVIGABLE LENGTH OF SUNGARI

Harbin —Chiengchiao .....	508 km.
Harbin —The junction of the Sungari and the Amur	696 km.
Sanchakou—Kirin .....	458 km.
Total .....	1,662 km.

No investigation has yet been made on the length of the river navigable for junks, but it is estimated at over 2,000 kilometers, including the tributaries.

**Depth of the Stream According to Sections.** (A) From the fountainhead to Kirin. The length in this section comprises 595 kilometers. Navigation is impossible because of the rapids in the mountains, except for casual voyages by steamers of light tonnage.

(B) From Kirin to Sungari Station. The length is 219 kilometers; the depth in the high-water season is from 5 to 15 feet, and in the low-water season from 2.7 to 8 feet; the width is from 15 meters to 800 meters, differing according to seasons; and the speed of the current is from 40 to 90 meters per minute.

(C) From Sungari Station to the confluence of the Sungari and the Nunkiang. The navigable length extends to 194 kilometers; the depth being from 4 to 8 feet in the high-water season and as low as 2 feet in the low-water season; the width is from 350 to 2,200 meters; the speed is 35-55 meters per minute.

(D) From the said confluence to Harbin. The length 324 kilometers; the depth 5-8 feet and below 2 feet; the width 370-2,000 meters; and the speed 37-90 meters per minute.

(E) From Harbin to Tungkiang. In the section from Harbin to Sanhsing which extends over 27 kilometers with a depth of 3-4 feet, dredge work has been carried out in recent years to effect safe navigation. The section from Sanhsing to Tungkiang has a length of 685 kilometers; the depth 7-30 feet with shallow-waters at various points; the width about 375 meters; and the current is very slow.

**Conditions of Main Tributaries.** (A) **The Nunkiang.** The Nunkiang takes its rise at the southern base of Mt. Hlohulishan, and flows a length of 1,090 kilometers till it meets the Sungari at a point north of Fuyu. The width is 150-420 meters in the upper stream and 380-900 meters in the lower stream, affording navigation up to the town of Nunkiang. The depth is from 2 feet in the low-water season to 30 feet in the maximum in the high-water season; the current is very speedy with two big waterfalls in the upper stream, allowing no navigation; a little navigation is possible down to Tsitsihar, but the lower stream allows the passage of steamers of light tonnage.

(B) **The Mutankiang.** The source of the river is at Mt. Mutanshan of the Changpaishan range, and the stream runs north-east over 670 kilometers down to Sanhsing where it joins the Sungari. It is about 150 feet wide at Ningan and 720 feet wide at its mouth. Under normal conditions the depth measures 3-5 feet, the deepest point measuring 35 feet.

(C) **The Hulanho.** The Hulanho starts at the southern slope of Mt. Fohunshan and runs due south over 410 kilometers till its water is received by the Sungari at a point 23 kilometers below Harbin. The width is from 125 to 160 meters in the low-water season in the section from Hulan to its mouth. The depth is from one to 10 meters.

(D) **The Lalinho.** It starts at Mt. Lanlingshan and flows over 360 kilometers to empty finally into the Sungari.

(E) **The Ashihho starts in the hills near Pin-hsien of Kirin.** The length is 188 kilometers, and navigable only for junks for 50 kilometers, the depth being 2 feet under normal conditions.

#### Navigation on the Sungari

The Sungari River is navigable to the length of 1,332 kilometers from its mouth up to Kirin, the lower stream being navi-



gable by steamboats. The middle stream is also navigable in the daytime, but navigation at night is rather dangerous owing to lack of facilities. The upper stream is almost unnavigable, being too shallow in the section where it flows through the plains. In the mountainous region navigation is possible to some extent, there being deep places here and there. The best section for navigation is the lower stream which has a width of 200-300 meters, although there are some places where it is less than 100 meters. In the high-water, steamers can sail freely all through the unfrozen season; in the low-water, even vessels drawing 4 to 5 feet may sail for three-fourths of the unfrozen season. The current flows slow in this section with a speed of 3-5 kilometers per hour. Facilities for navigation are complete for a safe voyage of steamers and larger junks.

#### Historical Survey of the Sungari

**Navigation on the Sungari by the Russians.** The first historical record of navigation on the Sungari is for July, 1858, when Count Murabijov Mamurvsky, the Russian Governor-General of the Far East, on his way back from his mission after concluding the Aigun treaty, voyaged on the Sungari to a distance of 21 kilometers up from Tungkiang, then to Sanhsing to make an investigation of the water course. Since that time several surveys were conducted by the Russian Government along the water courses in North Manchuria, and rich natural resources in the area exploited. The Russian influence gradually made itself felt along the Sungari valleys. When the construction of the Siberian Railway was commenced, the Russian Government found it convenient to obtain wheat produced in the valley for its workers and soldiers, and in 1897 opened a course on the river with steamers of the Heilungkiang Steamship Company and others. On July 2, 1898, Russia succeeded in obtaining the rights of navigation on the Sungari from the Chinese Government for the purpose of conveying materials for laying the Chinese Eastern Railway in the district. When the Boxer Uprising broke out in 1900, the Russians invaded North Manchuria and the valleys of the Sungari and its tributaries were completely occupied by the Russian Army. A regular service on the Sungari was opened by the Russians in 1908 for both passengers and goods.

**Navigation by the Chinese.** The aggressive actions of the Russians in North Manchuria aroused the attention of the Chinese Government, and, in 1907, Hsu Shih-chang, the Governor-General of the Three Eastern Provinces of China, made a trial to compete with the Russians on the Sungari with a number of steamers, but in vain. Measures were taken by the Chinese Government for the recovery of the traffic rights on the river, but they all failed. The Chinese Government had a chance to retrieve them in 1917, when the Tsarist Government was overthrown by the Soviet Revolution. Russian shipowners began to sell their vessels to the Chinese, while steamship companies of Japan and other countries were not slow to seize the opportunity. Many Chinese steamship companies were established and the Chinese power on the Sungari became strengthened. The Chinese Government prohibited shipping by Russians on the Sungari in the section between Kirin and Laohsiaokow in June, 1920, and then closed the whole length of the river against navigation by foreign vessels. The Russian power on the river was completely expelled in August, 1926, when the Chinese Government compulsorily recovered quays and vessels belonging to the Shipping Department of the Chinese Eastern Railway of Russia from the Soviet. But the Chinese have had hard experience since. The Jung-Tung Corporation was established immediately after the Russian Revolution of 1917, and was declared insolvent in 1927. Then there followed the establishment of the North-Eastern Shipping Board which was also stagnant. In December, 1926, a syndicate was organized by various shipping companies in the name of the North-Eastern United Shipping Board in order to unify the traffic business on the Sungari. The number of vessels in the possession of the syndicate reached 140, including 53 steamers. The purpose of unification, however, was unaccomplished and in the spring of 1931 the syndicate was enlarged, as a result of a conference of 36 shipowners and the said board. This syndicate met with unsurmountable difficulties; for soya beans, the main article of trade on the river, found their way to Khabarovsk on account of a raising of freight rates by the syndicate. It was dissolved in August, 1931, after having existed for only several months. During the years 1931-1933, services were done by private companies and the government, but, in 1932, private shipping companies were compelled to stop their services on account



of political disturbances in North Manchuria. Later, a temporary Sungari Transportation Commission was formed under the auspices of the Japanese Army. In July, 1932, the Commission was dissolved and its work was taken over by the South Manchuria Railway Company.

#### Present Status

With the founding of the new State of Manchoukuo in 1932, the inland water transportation underwent a radical change. The activities of commercial ships began to flourish, with Harbin as their center.

On February 9, 1934, the Government of Manchoukuo entrusted the South Manchuria Railway Company with the sole management of the governmental shipping business in the country, together with the supervision of railways and ports. On March 1, the South Manchuria Railway Company established the General Directorate of Railways at Mukden and the office commenced shipping services on the rivers in North Manchoukuo with government vessels entrusted. On April 12, a syndicate of shipowners was formed under the name of the Harbin Federation of Shipowners and it was recognized by the Government. The syndicate consisted of all public and private shipping enterprisers who possessed large numbers of steamers and lighters, and the old office building of the North-Eastern Shipping Board in Harbin was made the headquarters of the Federation. The annual volume of water transportation carried by the Federation reached 900,000 metric tons of goods and 600,000 passengers.

In the meantime, the State control of all branches of transportation has been strengthened for national defence and for a quick exploitation of forests and natural resources under the Five Year Industrial Plan, and the complete control of river transportation by the State was necessitated along with that of transportation by railways and automobiles. Whereupon, the South Manchuria Railway Company established the North Manchuria River Transportation Bureau which commenced its business in April, 1939, taking over the works done formerly by the Federation mentioned above, together with its workers, and purchasing all vessels owned by private shipowners who were members of the old Federation. Since the commencement of traffic business on the Sungari by the new Bureau, shippers are enjoying its good services,

on account of simplified process, lower freight rates and through transportation by trains and vessels.

Besides, the Sungari Sailing-vessels Association was organized on February 15, 1940, by the amalgamation of three sailing-vessel associations at Harbin, Fuchin and Sanhsing, with the purpose of extending control of transportation on the Sungari to the business carried on by some 800 sailing-vessels.

The transportation business on the Sungari, which has been carried on from the time of Russian predominance, through the period of Chinese control, to the present period, is placed under complete State control through the working of the North Manchuria River Transportation Bureau and the Sungari Sailing-vessels Association.

**Equipment and Facilities for Navigation.** The lower stream of the Sungari has 334 beacons, 129 special beacons at narrower points with white ones on the left bank and red ones on the right bank, 146 fairway buoys and a number of light-houses at dangerous places. The upper stream, or West Sungari River, has 129 beacons and 419 special beacons up to the mouth of the Nunkiang, while the Second Sungari has 39 beacons and 10 special beacons. At a point a little up from the iron bridge in Harbin, a testing pole is erected for measuring the speed of ships.

Vessels afloat on the Sungari consist of steamers, lighters, junks and gun boats, over 800 in number with about 7,600 sailors. Of the total, 310 are owned by the North Manchuria River Transportation Bureau, consisting of 113 steamers, 130 lighters and 67 sailing-vessels. The size of these ships is from 700 tons to 1,000 tons, and sail by water-wheels affixed at the sides or the stern, peculiar to the vessels on the rivers in North Manchuria. The fuel they use is either coal from Hokang in Sankiang Province or fuelwood supplied from nearby districts.

There was a dockyard at Harbin established by the Chinese Eastern Railway, which was later taken over by the Mukden government, but was left to decay after the flood of 1932. It was reconstructed recently by the North Manchuria River Transportation Bureau, and produced over ten speedy vessels since, besides operating repairing works with 800-1,200 working hands in the early months of the year when vessels cannot sail on the river. The Harbin Dockyard is the sole representative of this enterprise in



Manchoukuo, and the "greyhounds" now plying on the Sungari are the products of this establishment.

**Traffic on the Sungari.** The passenger traffic is busiest in May when laborers converge in groups into North Manchuria. The number of travellers in Manchoukuo is on the yearly increase along with the general development of the country. They consist of laborers, government officials, surveyers, railway men, enterprisers and staffs of companies, many of them taking ships on the lower stream of the Sungari.

The regular services of the North Manchuria River Transportation Bureau on the Sungari, the Heilungiang and the Ussuri are as follows:—

Table 7. REGULAR SERVICE ROUTE

Line	Length (In km.)	Passage (In yen)
Harbin-Chiamussu .....	451	4.10
Harbin-Fuchin .....	623	5.70
Harbin-Hulan .....	49	0.50
Harbin-Heiho .....	1,418	10.40
Harbin-Sanhsing .....	341	3.10
Harbin-Talai-Fuyu		
Harbin-Talai .....	288	2.90
Harbin-Fuyu .....	285	3.60
Chiamussu-Heiho .....	967	6.95
Chiamussu-Hutou .....	835	6.80
Heiho-Chikote .....	154	1.20
Heiho-Mobo .....	827	5.60
Argun .....	499	6.50
Hutou-Lungwangmiao .....	272	5.60

The Bureau is planning to open services on 8 new lines in 1940 for the convenience of increasing travellers by water in Tunggan and other provinces through which the streams of the Sungari flow.

Along with the increase in the number of over-land travellers, transportation by water has also steadily increased in North Manchuria. In 1931 it was 102,000. This increased to 326,000 in 1933, to over 500,000 in 1935, and then went up to 712,882 in 1937 and 709,403 in 1938.\* Of the total for 1938, 536,812 or 67 per cent were passengers between Harbin and Tungkiang. The shrinkage by 3,000 in 1938 from 1937 was due not so much to the decrease of travellers in general, as to the low-water in the spring of that year.

The city of Harbin, which has a population of 460,000, is the center of the movement of cargoes in North Manchoukuo, distributing cereals and goods to the towns and villages along the water courses and consuming their products in considerable amounts. The opening of the railway between Tumen and Chiamussu had been considered to affect water transportation on the Sungari, but the actual results proved that the completion of the railway line accelerated shipment of products in North Manchuria in general and the utilization of water courses has correspondingly increased, while the shippers who have had head offices in Harbin for many years past continue to send in cargo to the vessels on the Sungari, as indicated by the following figures:—

Table 8. MOVEMENT OF CARGO ON THE SUNGARI

Year	Tonnage (In metric tons)	Freightage (In yen)
1933 .....	663,166	4,938,130
1934 .....	820,856	6,484,447
1935 .....	755,045	6,146,119
1936 .....	846,256	6,439,456
1937 .....	803,090	6,421,507
1938 .....	884,883	—

Principal articles of merchandise which are sent to Harbin are soya beans, wheat, cereals, coal and timber. Soya beans come from the districts along the lower-stream of the Sungari, such as Ilan and Chiamussu, the annual amount of cereals and soya beans shipped into the city reaching 335,000 metric tons. Coal comes from Leinkiangkou, and timber from Ilan and Heiho.

Important goods shipped out are general merchandise and wheat-flour, reaching 60,000 metric tons in aggregate amount.

Calamities or damages on the traffic on the Sungari are very rare, especially in the case of steamers. Banditry which once infested the area has been completely subdued.

### The Yalu River (Oryokko)

**The Main Stream and Its Tributaries.** The Oryokko, or Yalu River, which forms the border between Manchoukuo and Chosen starts in the Changpaishan mountain range, and flowing from north-east to south-west through 790 kilometers of the valley finally empties itself into the Yellow Sea at a point near Hsintao.



The important effluents are the Hunkiang, the Pushihkiang, and the Aiho in Manchoukuo and the Kisenko, the Choshinko and the Toraiko in Chosen.

The drainage basin of the Yalu is almost entirely composed of mountains, and the formation of the streams in the basin is simpler than that of rivers in the plains of Manchoukuo, much resembling the rivers in Japan Proper. On account of the mountainous country, the area of the basin is comparatively small for the length of the stream, comprising but 62,634 square kilometers.

**The Main Stream.** The main stream of the Yalu springs at the western base of Mt. Changpai. It joins the Kisenko at Keisauchin in Kankyonando province of Chosen, then flows southward, and gathering the waters of the Choshinko and other small rivulets, continues its course to the south-west to meet the Hunkiang. The volume of water suddenly increases by absorbing the Hunkiang. The river joins the Aiho at a point above Gishu, where it is divided into three streams by sand-bars, the middle stream being largest with a width of 400 meters. The three streams merge into one at Shahoehen. The Yalu now assumes the appearance of a giant river. Pushing through in between the two cities of Antung and Shingishu to the south, it empties into the Yellow Sea, forming a delta at its mouth. The part of the stream above Antung is utilized for the traffic of passenger and goods in the valley, while below the city it makes a good harbor, playing an important rôle in foreign trade.

**The Hunkiang.** This tributary of the Yalu River starts at the foot of the mountain pass of Roya in the Changpaishan range, and runs south-west to reach Tunghua-hsien, then, passing around the town at its south, continues its course to Hunkiangkow where it joins with the main stream of the Yalu. It runs for 432 kilometers and commands a drainage basin of 14,324 square kilometers. Most of the basin is composed of mountains and valleys, making the Hunkiang a simple mountain river. The width is 100-140 meters at the widest point near Huanjen-hsien and the volume of water differs greatly according to seasons: it is possible to ford the river at places in the low-water season. The districts along the river are well developed, containing the rich fields and big forest lands of Tunghua and Huanjen, so that the goods and passengers conveyed on the stream comprise one-half of the entire

volume of traffic of the Yalu above the city of Antung. In this point, the tributary Hunkiang surpasses the main stream of the Yalu. Small boats may paddle up to Pataokou, and the construction work of a hydro-electric plant on the river is under way along with the development program of the Tungpientao region. On its completion, the economic value of the Hunkiang will be greatly increased.

**The Aiho.** The Aiho River is the next largest among the effluents of the Yalu on the side of Manchoukuo. Its starts at Nanpo in the watershed 40 kilometers north of Kuantien-hsien and runs south-west till it turns at a right angle south-eastwards at Fenghuangcheng to join the main stream of the Yalu at a point opposite to Gishu of Chosen. It has a length of 197 kilometers; the upper stream is a real mountain river, fording being possible at Shihtaochen. After it joins the Pataoho and the Tsaoho, an increase is noted in both the volume and width of the stream and the speed of the river also increases. The drainage basin is rich and produces timber in quantities, and transportation on the stream is prosperous.

#### Navigation Sections and Conditions of the Watercourse

**Navigation Sections and their Conditions.** The part of the Yalu suitable for navigation may be divided into two major sections with Antung city as the dividing point. The section below Antung may be described as a harbor rather than a stream, while the section above the city is a real river transportation section. The upper major section may be again divided into three sections, according to the nature of the stream, i.e. the sections of Antung-Chushan, Chushan-Chungkiang and Chungkiang-Hsinchiapo.

The section between Antung and Chushan has some 30 rapids, but none of them exceeds one mile. The river bed is of pebbles, containing some rocks, the tops of which are defaced and give little harm to boats. The volume of water is large at all times, the shallowest place having a depth of over 2 feet, and the stream is wide and slow in general.

The second section between Chushan and Chungkiang is full of dangerous rocks which stands in a row one mile long at certain points, while rapids number approximately 100. The banks be-



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come precipitous and the current flows with greater speeds. The river gradually narrows, and rocks make their appearance out of the surface of the water. The boats begin to lighten their load in the low-water season of October to stop the whole navigation toward the end of the year.

The third section between Chungkiang and Hsinchiapo has a rocky bed. There are some 80 rapids hard to pass. The stream becomes still narrower and meanders in torrents. The navigation is gradually closed from Hsinchiapo down to Chungkiang, beginning in October. Battling against the torrential stream, experienced steersmen lead their boats up and down dexterously between rocks, guided by the waves and the color of the water.

In the upper stream navigation by small boats is possible from April to June. But in the rainy months of July and August the water runs over the banks, then recedes in September to normal condition. In October it begins to be unnavigable.

The section below Antung is rather an estuary harbor as mentioned above, and the condition of the watercourse entirely differs from the sections above the city. The distance from Antung to the mouth of the river is approximately 40 miles, and the width reaches one kilometer. Flowing slowly down, it enters into the Yellow Sea. At the delta it forms, the stream is divided into two, the one on the side of Manchoukuo being called the West Channel and the other on the side of Chosen the East Channel. The East Channel above Tashito is too shallow for ocean liners, and the ships sailing into anchorages other than Tashito pass through the West Channel. Near the mouth of the river, shoals are heaped up by the alluvial action of the current, and place obstacles before the vessels plying. Frequent changes of the conditions of the river bed also occur. But nowadays steamships of 2,000-2,500 tons come alongside the berth of Santaolangtou. It was but recently discovered that Chaotzekou is better than Santaolangtou as an anchorage. There is no place for safe anchorage above Santaolangtou, and all ocean liners stop sailing at this point.

**Riparian Works and Beacons.** The natural port of Antung had many defects for navigation. The South Manchuria Railway Company, entrusted with the mission of developing Manchuria after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904 and 1905, made trials for removing shoals at the mouth of the port, employing a number

of dredgers in 1910 and 1911, but in vain. This was due to the voluminous amount of sand carried down by the Yalu. In the meantime, the two cities of Antung and Shingishu developed yearly and sea-going vessels entered the port in increasing numbers. Whereupon, the Antung Shipping Administration Bureau of the Manchoukuo Government proposed the execution of a complete survey by experts on harbors, on the actual conditions of the port of Antung at the hydrographic conference of Manchoukuo held at Hsinking in March, 1934. In June of the same year, the South Manchuria Railway Company conducted a strict survey, in compliance with the proposal, on the actual conditions of the mouth of the Yalu below Antung in cooperation with experts other than its own. And it was decided that the watercourse for navigation should be improved by a thorough riparian work and necessary economic and technical examinations should be continued for the future development of the port of Antung. But when a large-scale exploitation plan was mapped out in 1936 for the excavation by the Government of important underground resources in the Tungpientao region, a new proposition for constructing a big harbor at Tashito began to gain ground. The old plan for improving the port of Antung was finally shelved when the Manchoukuo Government gave orders to construct the new harbor of Daito in June, 1939. The appearance of the new ports of Tashito and Daito in the near future by the joint efforts of Manchoukuo and Japan will help the development of the old ports of Antung and the city, and the mouth of the Yalu River is expected to become a busy entrepot.

Riparian works and erection of beacons along the watercourse of the Yalu River have hitherto been carried on almost entirely by the Government-General of Chosen. But it has become necessary that these works be carried on in cooperation and under the joint supervision of Manchoukuo and Chosen for the convenience and promotion of transportation. In March, 1935, therefore, a hydrographic agreement was concluded between the two governments, and in March of the following year, a *mémoire* on the erection of beacons along the lower stream of the Yalu was signed by the contracting parties. Since then, the two governments have been working in close cooperation for the improvement of the channels of the river, setting, for example, 3 light buoys at points



below Tatungkou for the safety of ships coming in and out of the anchorages in the mouth of the Yalu.

At present, the Antung Shipping Administration Bureau have, under its supervision, one lightship, one signal, 6 beacons, one guide-post and 42 buoys in the main stream and in the east and west channels. Since December, 1935, the work of improving banks by breaking rocks has been going on. In accordance with the agreement, a joint commission of engineering was organized. The first meeting of the commission, held in the Government-General Office in Keijo in January, 1937, discussed the subjects of investigations on the upper watercourse of the Yalu, the possible change in the watercourse when a dam is constructed for hydro-electricity, the number and conditions of cargo boats on the stream, the relation of the river with its hinterland and the improvement of the channels below Antung, etc. At the second meeting held at Hsinking at the end of March of the same year, the commission deliberated on the material plans for the construction of the port of Tashito and the improvement of channels at Antung, in accordance with valuable reports brought in on both sides of Manchoukuo and Chosen in regard to their spot investigations and future possibilities.

Thus, preparations are being made by the cooperation of Manchoukuo and Chosen for the economic development of the drainage basin of the Yalu. The same commission is also entrusted with the improvement work of the Tumenkiang River which forms the north-eastern section of the boundary between the two countries.

**Term for Navigation.** The term for navigation on the Yalu extends from the thaw in spring and the freezing in early winter. The duration depends on the weather conditions in the year, but, at Antung, the main watercourse is freed from ice in the last days of March, at Chungkiang in the middle of April and at Hsinchiapo in the last days of April. The ice-bound season commences in the upper valley, the Hsinchiapo region entering into it at the end of October. In the beginning of November, the banks in the valley near Chungkiang start to be covered with ice and rudder and suction pumps of the ships on the stream are frozen. In the latter half of November, similar conditions persist in the valley near Antung, and vessels are landed to hibernate, leaving

no boat afloat on the stream. The ice approaches in quick steps, and it is not rare that, once particles of ice are seen in the stream, the entire surface of the Yalu River becomes ice-bound within several hours by an instantaneous fall of temperature, and vessels are compelled to seek shelter at the spot for the winter.

Table 9. PRINCIPAL RIVER SYSTEMS

River	Navigable length (Kms.)	Sources	Tributaries	Emptying into
Heilungkiang (Amur) (4,400 kms.)	3,040	Onon, Ingoda, Silka, Kolulienho, & Ehlukonoho Rivers	Zeya, Bureya, Sungari, Ussuri & Argun Rivers	Japan Sea
Sunghuakiang (Sungari) (2,120 kms.)	1,330 (from Kirin)	Toutaokiang, Sayinnoin, Liangtakiang, Nenukiang (Nonni) Rivers.	Lafaho, Changyenho, Huifaho, Itungho, Lalinho, Hulanho, Ashihho, Fuikutoho, Moyenho, Muanho, Wokengho Rivers	R. Amur
Nenkiang (Nonni) (800 kms.)	—	Hsinginganling, Ilihuri Mts.	Yaloho & Chuoloho Rivers	R. Sungari
Taoerho	—	Eastern Skirts of Hsinginganling Mts.	Keiliuho & Chiaoliuho Rivers	R. Sungari
Ussuri (1,312 kms.)	—	Daubihe, Sandagou, Urahe & Iman Rivers	Sungachaho, Mulingho & Naoliho Rivers	R. Amur
Tasuifenho	—	Tumen Mountain, Northern Skirts of Mukotehhsiang Mts.	Huputoho & Fuyehkouho Rivers	Japan Sea
Tumenkiang (2,000 kms.)	95	Southern Skirts of Changpaishan Range	Kayaho, Choshinko, & Hunho Rivers	Japan Sea
Yalu (790 kms.)	160	Western Skirts of Paitoushan, Kyosenko, Choshinko, Hunho & Aiho Rivers	Hunho, Tapushihho & Aiho Rivers	Yellow Sea
Liaoho (1,900 kms.)	880	Silamulunho, Laohaho & Tung (East) Liaoho Rivers	Silamulunho, Laohaho, Tungliaoho, Hunho, Shaosuhuangho, Liangtzuho, Chingho, Tsaiho, Hunho, Sutzuhoh, & Taitzuho Rivers	Liaotung Bay
Luanho (400 kms.)	—	Haintontokulushan, Mongolia	Isunho, Jeho & Paoho Rivers	Pohai Bay
Talingho (425 kms.)	100	Kienpin-hsien, Jehol	—	Liaotung Bay
Hsiaolingho	—	Minganshan Mts. Skirts, Chaoyang-hsien, Chinchow, Juerhho & Haihutuho Rivers	—	Liaotung Bay



## LAKES IN MANCHOUKUO

## Lake Dalainor

**Water courses around Lake Dalainor.** On the map, Lake Dalainor seems to be connected with the Argun River, one of the headwaters of the Heilungkiang. According to the recent discovery of surveyers at the spot, however, the lake is disconnected with the Argun at present. On the contrary, the water of the Hailar River flows into the lake from the north through the Mutonaya watercourse in the season of flood. Lake Dalainor is a natural reservoir in the center of the drainage basin formed by the lake itself, Lake Buirnor, the River Wuerhshunho which connects the two lakes, the Harha which empties into Lake Buirnor and the Kerulen which enters into Lake Dalainor.

**Position of Lake Dalainor.** The lake lies in the district under the Hsinpa-chi, in the western part of North Hsingan province, and is located at a point approximately 35 kilometers south of Manchuli, and 935 kilometers to the north-west from Harbin.

**Dimensions and Topography.** Lake Dalainor measures 57-70 kilometers in length, 28-30 kilometers in width and approximately 200 kilometers in circumference, and comprises an area of from 1,300 to 1,600 square kilometers.

On the north, hills proceed to the brink of the lake being backed by higher mountains which spread to the north-west to the border line between Manchoukuo and Soviet Russia. On the north-east and south-west, lands are flat around this great expanse of water. The mountains run parallel to the north-west shore, clifty but indented. On the south-west hills recede far from the lake and leave a vast low swampy land in between. Small hills erect their heads in the swamps in the land, south-west of the mouth of the Wuerhshunho, which partially forms a steppe. The bed of the rivers in the drainage basin is of muddy sand, and the shoal extends to a distance, the banks curving moderately.

**Change of the Area and Watercourses.** There is a record written in the 13th century which mentions that a flood of the Kerulen created a great lake several hundred miles round. Whether it speaks of the origin of Lake Dalainor, it is impossible to ascertain, but the fact remains that the ancient record clearly refers to the conditions of this lake at that time.

Other historical records show that in the 18th century the lake received the water of the Hailar and drained its own waters into the Argun River, that at the end of the 19th century when Russians made advances into the Hulunpeierh region, Lake Dalainor was a small swamp surrounded by low damp grounds where reeds grew higher than horses or men, and that, in 1904, the lake measured 20 kilometers in length and 10 kilometers in width, the depth being one meter. Later, the Hailar River turned its course to the north to empty into the Argun and unlinked itself from the lake. Formerly, the Wuerhshunho joined the Starargun River and did not directly empty itself into Lake Dalainor. Thus, the lake seems to have been connected only with the Kerulen and remained a small swamp in the early years of the present century. The Starargun ran east of the present Muton River. As a result of the construction of the Chinese Eastern Railway, the courses of this river and the Wuerhshunho were obstructed and the latter has continued to cleave its way to the basin of Dalainor, while the former was compelled to vanish underground.

The volume of water in Lake Dalainor began to increase when the Wuerhshunho commenced to empty directly into it the whole water which the river received from Lake Buirnor. According to the Russians, Lake Dalainor seems to have assumed the present state at the end of 1907. After 1917, a spell of dry weather visited the Harha region for some time. As a natural consequence, the rivers and lakes in the region were reduced, in 1918, to shallows where men and horses freely crossed on foot, but they recovered normal conditions by 1922. During the years 1928-32, the water of the lake was much deeper, the present depth prevailing since 1935. The lake is now without mouth and salt is thickening in its waters, so that it is feared that this lake may diminish and divide itself into small salt lakes.

**Fishing in the Lake and its Rivers.** Fishing is available in the stream of the Wuerhshunho in spring, at the mouths of rivers and the north-western beach of the lake in summer and autumn, and the shores of the lake and all the streams in winter time.

The fishes abounding in the lake and its rivers are the carp, crusian carp, catfish, loach, and the like, while the salmon and trout inhabit the Harha and the Buirnor Lake. Shrimps and swan-mussel are also found in Lake Dalainor.



### Lake Buirnor

The oblong Lake of Buirnor lies in the southern part of the Hulunpuir region, touching the boundary of Outer Mongolia. It is 50 kilometers in length and 30 kilometers in breadth, and comprises an area of 500-700 square kilometers. Its depth averages 9 meters, the deepest point measuring 50 meters. The bottom is of pebbles and the water is clear in general, containing some salt. The lake became better known on account of the battles engaged between the air forces of Outer Mongolia and the combined air forces of Japan and Manchoukuo in June and July, 1939.

### Lakes and Swamps at Kanchumiao

There are numerous small salt lakes and swamps in the low grounds of the sand tableland which extends between Kanchumiao and Huiho, such as Elonor, Puerhtnor, Kukunor, Sumernor, Hala-hu, etc. But they are comparatively small in dimensions and do not contain a very large volume of water.

### Lakes and Swamps South-West of Hailar

There lie a number of lakes and swamps in the district southwest of Hailar. The largest is the Puyulinoerh salt lake 8 kilometers round. It is very shallow. The bottom is of muddy clay, giving a gray color to the waters. It contains much salt, and natural soda is collected by the lake.

### Lake Chingpo

Lake Chingpo is located in the mountains 28 kilometers southwest of Tungkingcheng of Ningan-hsien in Mutankiang Province.

The lake is actually a part of the watercourse of the Mutankiang which starts in Mt. Mutanling in Kirin Province. The stream of the Mutankiang River was evidently obstructed by the flow of basaltic lava at a point near Ssukitung and the natural dam created there is the Chingpo Lake. It is 339 meters above sea-level, and its area covers 79.4 square kilometers under normal conditions. The waters of the lake plunge over the lava walls from the waterfall, Tiaoshuilou, which is 20 meters high and form the

main stream of the Mutankiang. The principle part of the lake is called South Lake while the other part, consisting of a narrow stretch of water in gorges is named West Lake.

**Fishery.** Fishery is principally undertaken in South Lake and has a long history. The ruins of a castle built on the bank of the lake in the old days of the Pohai Kingdom are still to be observed. It is presumable that fishing thus was early developed. At the time of the Manchu Dynasty, the Suns who lived at South Lake had hereditary rights of fishing in Chingpo Lake and in the section of the Mutankiang nearest to the lake. It is said that the annual catches reached 3,000 piculs. But later, free fishing almost exhausted the fishes of this district, and the catches decreased by 90% in the days of the Suns.

In 1924, a Chinese fishery company was established to monopolize the fishing industry in this region, but it was dissolved at the time of the Manchurian Incident of 1931.

In 1936, the Chingpo Institute took the initiative in organizing a fishery association of about 30 fishing families on the lake. Then, in 1939, experienced fishermen were called from Japan to conduct a systematic fishery industry here, and the value of the annual catches at present is roughly ¥20,000. The said fishery association was merged into the fishery association of Ningan-hsien in 1938.

Fishes caught here are carp, crucian carp, catfish, dace, black fish, etc., with a small number of salmon or trout. The best are crucian carp which are big and so delicious that they were sent to the Court of the Manchu Dynasty as a tribute. Chingpo Lake is really a haven of carp and crucian carp. Cultivation of fish now carried on in the lake will quickly increase its economic value, together with the construction of a hydro-electric plant at the lake.

The region around Lake Chingpo was recently designated as one of the national parks of Manchoukuo to make the people enjoy the beautiful scenery of green mountains and clear water. The Chingpo Institute has played an important rôle in the improvement of its valleys through many hardships. Their efforts will be fully repaid when the valleys are draped in woodlands in the near future.



### Lake Hsingkai

Lake Hsingkaiho or Lake Hinka is located on the boundary between Mishan-hsien and the maritime province of the Soviet Union. It is about 60 meters above sea-level, and with an area of 4,500 square kilometers it is one of the large lakes in East Asia. It is divided into the Great Hinka and Small Hinka, or Topaho.

**The Great Hinka Lake.** It is generally shallow, averaging 2-5 meters, the deepest point being 10 meters. The bottom is composed of pebbles and muddy sand. When disturbed by strong winds, therefore, the waters become turbid and yellowish brown, with a transparency of 60 mm.

All the rivers emptying into the lake come from the Russian territory. They are the "Sintuha," "Mo" and "Frey" and run into the lake from the west or the south. The only river that drains the waters of the lake is the Sungachaho which is 50 meters wide and 5 meters deep. The river runs over 185 kilometers and ultimately joins the Ussuri. On the north of the lake hills may be seen, while a part of the beach forms a long sand bank covered with pines as common at the seashore of Japanese islands. The lands around the lake are mostly marshy and suitable for waterfowls. In recent years, a part of them was transformed into rice-fields.

**The Small Hinka Lake.** The Small Hinka, or Topaho, is a great swamp, the boundaries of which are hard to mark and the area widely varies according to seasons. Roughly speaking, it measures 25 kilometers in length and 11 kilometers in breadth, the depth being 1.30 meters on the average. The bottom is of black mud, and the reed, the cattail and other aquatic plants grow there luxuriantly.

Fishing in Lake Chingpo is best in May and June, where a netting will catch tens of thousands of whitebait. The lake begins to be ice-bound in the beginning of November and thaws toward the end of April, the thickness of the ice reaching approximately one meter.

Table 10. PRINCIPAL LAKES

Lake	Location	Dimensions (Kms.)	Circumference
Hingkai (Hanka)	At the border of Pinkiang Province and Soviet Territory	S. to N. 90 E. to W. 50	252
Tapaho (Hsiaohingkai)	North to Hingkai Lake	S. to N. 40	120
Pirton (Kingpo)	Southwest to Niangan, Pinkiang	E. to W. 8	40
Dalainer (Hulun)	West to Hailar	S. to N. 20 E. to W. 10	—
Buirnor (Salt)	South to Hulun	S. to N. 25	—
Yuehliangpao	Jalaid Banner, Hsingan	E. to W. 35	10
Tabusunor	West Uchumuchin Banner, Mongolia	—	—
Talinor	Northwest to Keshikten Banner, Hsingan	S. to N. 3 E. to W. 65	120
Talakannor	West Jarod Banner, Hsingan	—	85

### CLIMATE AND METEOROLOGY

For meteorological service and statistics Manchoukuo in the past owed almost entirely to the Japanese observatories in the Kwantung Leased Territory and railway zone and to those under Russian management in the Chinese Eastern Railway zone now called the North Manchuria Railway zone. Manchoukuo, however, as early as 1932 set about establishment of its own meteorological service, deciding on the expenditure of 5,600,000 yuan for the same purpose. This plan called for a central observatory at Hsinking and 11 observatory stations within the country.

#### Climate

Forming a part of the Asiatic mainland and only its southwest coming directly under the influence of sea currents, Manchoukuo's climate is continental and marked by extremes of heat and cold, although the country itself lies within the same parallels of latitude as England and Germany. The meteorological conditions of Manchoukuo are mostly influenced by the proximity of the Mongolian desert in the west. Intensely cold and late winters are almost alternated by equally intensely hot summers, spring and autumn being very short. Rain and snow are not abundant; excessive dryness is met in most parts of the country.

June, July and August are the hottest and November, December, January, February and March are the coldest months. Greater



variations in temperature are seen as one proceeds northward from Hsinking. In many localities the glass ranges from 40° centigrade to as many degrees below zero. The highest temperature on record is 42°.6 centigrade at Chalantun (July 23, 1919), while the lowest is 50°.1 below zero at Mientuho (January 16, 1922). The extreme cold of winter, however is greatly moderated or made even bearable by a succession of warm days, almost at regular intervals. This is popularly known as a cycle of "three cold and four warm days", a meteorological condition common to Manchuria, Korea and North China. This change in weather takes place as the result of regular passages of the colder air from the tableland of Mangolia to the lower regions to the east.

Table 11. MEAN TEMPERATURE IN MANCHOUKUO

(Centigrade)

	January			July			Whole Year		
	High-est	Low-est	Ave- rage	High-est	Low-est	Ave- rage	High-est	Low-est	Ave- rage
Heiho .....	-17.9	-28.4	-23.5	27.3	16.6	21.6	6.0	5.2	0.1
Manchouli ...	-20.3	-30.8	-25.7	26.6	14.1	20.9	4.1	8.4	1.8
Hailar .....	-22.1	-34.2	-28.3	27.2	13.9	21.0	3.9	9.2	2.5
Hsingan ....	-24.6	-31.0	-28.0	21.2	12.2	16.4	0.8	8.5	4.0
Koshan .....	-17.9	-31.5	-25.3	26.0	15.7	20.7	6.5	6.6	0.0
Tsitsihar ....	-12.9	-26.4	-20.2	28.4	18.1	22.5	9.2	3.5	2.4
Fuchin .....	-16.3	-26.4	-12.8	26.3	17.0	21.4	7.2	3.3	1.7
Solun .....	-10.7	-23.0	-17.6	28.4	14.6	21.4	8.9	4.7	2.0
Harbin .....	-14.1	-25.9	-20.2	28.6	18.1	23.2	9.1	2.7	3.1
Mishan .....	-13.2	-26.9	-19.9	27.6	15.8	21.5	8.1	4.4	2.0
Taonan .....	-10.0	-23.6	-17.0	29.4	18.5	23.7	12.6	1.8	4.3
Mutankiang ..	-12.6	-27.5	-20.4	27.5	16.1	21.9	9.3	4.3	2.4
Suifenho ....	-13.5	-22.1	-18.4	25.6	15.3	20.1	7.7	2.7	2.1
Hsinking ....	-10.8	-22.8	-16.9	28.9	18.6	23.5	11.0	1.2	4.7
Yenki .....	- 8.0	-23.9	-15.9	31.3	18.3	24.2	12.1	1.9	5.0
Chifeng .....	- 6.2	-22.1	-14.4	31.3	17.5	24.2	13.5	1.4	6.0
Mukden .....	- 6.4	-18.8	-13.0	30.3	20.2	24.8	13.6	1.5	7.2
Jehol .....	- 3.2	-14.8	- 9.6	31.8	20.0	25.5	15.4	3.5	9.2
Yingkow ....	- 4.2	-15.6	- 9.8	29.1	20.6	24.9	13.7	3.2	8.5

Table 12. TEMPERATURE COMPARED WITH JAPAN

## (a) Mean Temperature

	Hailar	Hsinking	Nemuro	Kobe	Taihoku
January .....	-28.7	-16.9	- 4.9	4.4	15.2
February .....	-23.4	-12.5	- 5.5	4.5	14.8
March .....	-13.7	- 4.1	- 2.4	7.4	16.9
April .....	1.4	6.5	2.8	13.2	20.6
May .....	9.6	14.5	6.5	17.7	24.1
June .....	17.2	20.1	9.9	21.5	26.6
July .....	20.6	23.4	14.2	25.6	28.2
August .....	18.3	21.9	17.2	27.0	27.9
September .....	10.6	14.9	15.2	23.2	26.2
October .....	1.1	6.7	10.7	17.3	22.9
November .....	-14.4	- 4.3	4.6	11.9	19.8
December .....	-25.2	-13.7	- 1.4	6.9	16.8
Average .....	- 2.2	4.7	5.6	15.1	21.7

## (b) Lowest Temperature

	Hsinking (Jan.)	Hailar (Jan.)	Nemuro (Feb.)	Kobe (Jan.)	Taihoku (Feb.)
Yearly Ave. ....	-16.9	-28.7	- 5.5	4.4	14.8
High ave. ....	-10.7	-21.6	- 2.2	8.6	19.0
Low ave. ....	-22.7	-34.2	- 9.6	0.9	12.3
Lowest .....	-36.0	-46.0	-22.9	-5.9	-0.2

## (c) Highest Temperature

	Hsinking (July)	Hailar (July)	Nemuro (Aug.)	Kobe (Aug.)	Taihoku (July)
Yearly ave. ....	23.5	20.6	17.2	27.0	28.2
High ave. ....	28.9	26.7	20.9	31.8	33.2
Low ave. ....	18.5	14.8	14.1	23.5	24.3
Highest .....	39.5	36.1	32.1	37.6	38.6

## Rainfall

The annual average rainfall is from 500 to 700 millimeters, one-third the amount for Japan proper. More abundant rain is seen to the area closer to the northern border of Korea and less in the northwest. In point of distribution of precipitation, the area along the South Manchuria Railway, particularly between Dairen and Mukden, forms a dividing line. The area to the east of this line has a rainfall ranging around 600 millimeters per year. There is less precipitation as one proceeds westward. The average



for the area along the Ping-Chi Railway line is around 400 millimeters and the rainfall at Manchuli less than 300 millimeters. With a fall less than 400 millimeters a year, agriculture becomes impossible. The plains in the west, therefore, are good only as pasture.

From the agricultural point of view, the falls during July and August give an adequate volume of rain for the growing season through the central grain belt of the country. For instance, the rainfall of Mukden between the beginning of May and the end of October is given at 602 millimeters comparing with 558 millimeters for the towns of Sapporo and Niigata in Japan for the corresponding season of the year.

Table 13. PRECIPITATION, SNOW AND FROST

	Precipitation (mm)		Snow Season		Frost Season	
	July	whole year	1st	last	1st	last
			(month & day)		(month & day)	
Heiho	150.2	515.1	X 5 -	V 5	IX 23 -	V 17
Manchouli	83.0	272.2	X 5 -	IV 23	IX 14 -	V 21
Hailar	88.1	322.8	X 5 -	V 6	IX 16 -	V 24
Hsingan	167.3	532.4	IX 24 -	V 26	VIII 24 -	VI 2
Koshan	205.1	532.7	X 9 -	IV 28	IX 29 -	V 2
Tsitsihar	137.2	464.0	X 18 -	IV 22	X 1 -	V 4
Fuchin	168.8	581.7	X 10 -	IV 27	X 7 -	V 1
Solun	73.7	293.3	IX 21 -	V 6	IX 16 -	V 5
Harbin	165.7	577.3	X 18 -	IV 18	X 4 -	V 4
Mishan	117.7	645.9	X 9 -	IV 21	X 29 -	V 15
Taonan	132.2	426.1	X 13 -	IV 13	X 11 -	IV 14
Mutankiang	122.9	533.2	X 20 -	IV 21	IX 24 -	V 13
Suifenho	126.9	627.7	X 5 -	V 13	X 3 -	V 30
Hsinking	177.7	660.9	X 18 -	IV 21	IX 26 -	V 3
Yenki	57.6	323.7	X 16 -	IV 7	IX 28 -	V 8
Chifeng	54.8	284.0	XI 1 -	IV 5	IX 26 -	IV 25
Mukden	158.2	678.4	X 27 -	IV 10	X 3 -	V 3
Jehol	101.7	506.1	XI 17 -	III 24	IX 27 -	IV 17
Yingkow	172.7	659.9	XI 2 -	III 31	X 12 -	IV 13

Table 14. MONTHLY PRECIPITATION COMPARED WITH JAPAN

\*(Unit: m.m.)

	Hailar	Hsinking	Nemuro	Kobe	Taihoku
January	3.2	6.4	37.3	45.9	88.0
February	4.6	6.3	27.1	53.5	132.7
March	2.0	15.8	56.3	88.6	181.7

(Continued)

	Hailar	Hsinking	Nemuro	Kobe	Taihoku
April	19.2	20.5	77.9	125.0	168.5
May	22.5	56.3	93.2	118.9	222.5
June	42.0	115.0	92.0	196.3	288.9
July	86.5	181.9	99.4	153.6	235.1
August	80.9	132.4	108.1	124.6	299.8
September	33.6	55.4	144.1	193.7	238.5
October	13.6	38.8	103.1	122.1	120.3
November	7.3	14.9	87.2	73.1	66.1
December	3.0	6.8	57.1	49.0	73.0
Total	318.7	650.3	982.7	1,343.3	2,114.7

Wet and Clear Days

Because of low precipitation and the short rainy season in summer, there are few places in Manchuria which experience more than 100 wet days in the year, at some places the number of wet days being only 70. The wet days at Dairen, Mukden, and Hsinking are given at 78, 92, 107 respectively. The continuation of fair weather provides very favorable conditions for agriculture, particularly for crops of rapid growth, and for the farmers during the harvesting time.

Table 15. SUNRISE AND SUNSET

	Winter Solstice		Summer Solstice	
	Sunrise (a.m.)	Sunset (p.m.)	Sunrise (a.m.)	Sunset (p.m.)
Hsinking	8.10	5.04	4.56	8.24
Harbin	8.12	4.52	4.43	8.27
Dairen	8.09	5.35	5.28	8.22
Heiho	8.28	4.30	4.19	8.44
Suifenho	7.49	4.39	4.31	8.04
Jehol	8.30	5.44	5.37	8.44
Hailar	8.54	5.05	4.55	9.10

Table 16. VERTICAL RADIANT HEAT

(gram calory/cm<sup>2</sup>)

	Koshan	Hsinking	Chiamussu	Tungan	Tokyo	Morioka	Otomari
January	129	318	—	—	289	286	—
February	228	428	—	—	407	264	—
March	412	518	264	—	333	409	—
April	486	581	621	518	552	488	—
May	545	510	700	568	528	517	—
June	591	499	659	667	408	541	625



(Continued)

	Koshan	Hsinking	Chiamussu	Tungan	Tokyo	Morioka	Otomari
July .....	578	411	718	616	458	486	584
August ....	509	363	491	436	456	555	514
September ..	430	338	445	390	333	438	407
October ....	313	312	386	344	291	352	351
November ..	194	224	305	250	293	296	208
December ..	114	212	256	220	214	268	164

### Evaporation

On account of small precipitation and low mean temperature, and the strong winds prevailing, evaporation in Manchuria ranges from 1,400 to 1,600 millimeters a year, approximately twice the mean figure for Japan proper. The highest rate of evaporation is for May when the monthly average is upward of 200 millimeters. The lowest rate is for January when the monthly average falls below 50 millimeters.

### Frost and Snow

The non-frost season in South Manchuria is from 150 to 200 days in the year, around Taonan 160 or more days and in North Manchuria, around Tsitsihar, some 140 days. These months, free from frost, provide abundant time for the summer crops.

The frost comes in the early or middle part of September in the area west of the Hsingan mountains, and in the opening part of October around the region of Harbin, Anta and Sansing, in North Manchuria. The middle part of the country, embracing Hsinking, Imienpo, Kungchuling, Kaiyuan, Taonan, sees the first frost in late September, while South Manchuria or places like Mukden and Yinkow follow about a week or ten days later, as a rule. The end of frost is in the south toward the end of April and in the north generally between the close of April and the middle of the following month.

Snow begins to fall in the north about the end of September and in the south one month later. But on the whole the first snow is seldom seen in the country before the closing part of October. The snowy season in the north closes around May 10 and in the south around April 10, there being a difference of one full month also. The depth of snow is generally less than 10 centimeters.

### Winds

Through the winter a north or a northwest wind prevails over Manchuria. This prevailing wind is due to the high barometrical pressure originating around Lake Baikal. When this pressure declines there sets in a southerly wind to temper the cold. In the summer the ascending currents of air over the sandy deserts of Mongolia and Central Asia draw in a current from the sea, the prevailing wind being south or southeast.

In spring and autumn the prevailing wind blows west, this wind often rising to a fresh gale in spring. The farmers regard these strong winds as a sign of good crops. The wind-borne sand is carried sometimes as far as the western shores of Japan.

The main features of the climate of Manchuria may be summarized as follows. It is continental, with a wide range of seasonal as well as diurnal variation in temperature. The long winter makes up one half of the year, spring and autumn being brief. The summer is short but the high temperature is favorable to farm crops. The intense cold of winter is tempered by the "cycle of three cold and four warm days". July and August form the rainy season in which 80 percent of the annual rainfall is experienced. The volume of rainfall is as a rule one quarter of that in Japan. There are many clear days but because the dry air is dusty, the climate is hardly healthy.

Table 17. DIRECTION OF THE WIND

Name of District	Most Usual Direction of the Wind		Average Velocity (metres per Second)		Number of Stormy Days
	January	July	January	July	
Manchouli	Southwesterly	Easterly	2.3 metres	2.7 metres	7
Hailar	Westerly	Westerly	1.1	2.0	3
Mientuho	Westerly	Easterly	1.1	2.0	16
Pukotu	Northwesterly	Easterly & Southeasterly	3.7	2.2	19
Chalantun	Northwesterly	Northerly	3.2	2.3	0
Angangki	Northwesterly	Southwesterly	3.9	4.8	27
Anta	Westerly	Southerly	3.6	3.6	9
Harbin	Westerly	Southerly	5.3	5.2	13
Yaomen	Southwesterly & Westerly	Southwesterly	2.3	3.2	34
Imienpo	Southwesterly	Southwesterly	3.5	2.8	11
Mutankiang	Southwesterly	Southwesterly	2.3	2.4	15 or less



(Continued)

	Koshan	Hsinking	Chiamussu	Tungan	Tokyo	Morioka	Otomari
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(Continued)

Name of District	Most Usual Direction of the Wind		Average Velocity (metres per Second)		Number of Stormy Days
	January	July	January	July	
	Taipingling	Northerly	Southeasterly	4.5	
Yenki	Westerly	Northwesterly	3.1	1.4	16
Sanhsing	Southeasterly	Southwesterly	3.6	2.1	9
Hsinking	Southwesterly	Southeasterly	2.7	2.2	21
Mukden	Northerly	Southerly	2.1	1.9	6
Dairen	Northerly	Southerly	5.2	4.9	121
Vladivostok	Southwesterly	Southwesterly	8.4	7.2	93

### Climatic Effect on Agriculture

On account of low precipitation, high rate of evaporation, and dryness of air, Manchurian agriculture follows methods as of Europe's dry agriculture. Rain water is preserved to give moisture to the soil in the dry season. On account of the conditions of weather such as mentioned above, the crops are mostly cultivated on dry lands. The species of crops grown are those suitable to dry weather such as soya beans, kaoliang and millet. Because of the high temperature of summer, rice may be cultivated up to the 47th parallel of latitude north. In South Manchuria cotton is grown.

Wheat, unlike in Japan, is sown in spring and harvested in autumn. The short growing season permits only a single crop a year. Because spring and autumn are short, all farm labor is concentrated in the summer, there being heavy demands for labor on the fields in this time of the year. It is because of this condition of agriculture that there is always a seasonal movement of labor to Manchuria from Shantung and Hupei before the agricultural season opens.

### GEOLOGY

Much still remains to be explored as to the geological formation of Manchoukuo. What little light that has been thrown on the subject is either fragmentary or local. But from the extensive investigations now going on in the country under the direction of Japanese engineers and exploring parties a fairly complete picture may be expected in due course of time.

Outstanding features of the geological condition of Manchou-

kuo are sequences of rocky formations of very ancient periods occurring in many parts of the country side by side with the rocky layers of recent origin, and the conspicuous absence of strata of intervening periods. It is characteristic that rocks of ancient geological eras are marine in nature and strata of recent periods are generally terrestrial. Another point of importance to be noted is the horizontal conditions of strata, except in some limited areas, showing that the land of Manchuria and Mongolia has been subject relatively to small warping movements. The accompany tables of geological survey mainly based on Murakami of Japan for Manchuria and on that of Berkey, Morris and Grabau, for Mongolia give a fairly comprehensive picture of the geology of the country.

**Geological Conditions of Manchuria.** Manchuria in many places presents granite and other rocks of high antiquity. The geological formation of the land over many ages is shown by a wide distribution of granites and extensive exposures of rocky beds of very early periods. In contrast, any formation of periods ranging from Silurian, Devonian, sub-carboniferous, Triassic times, is absent. It is also a characteristic of the land that volcanism has played little part in the geologic history of the country, volcanic intrusion being noticeable only in exposures of recent rocky formations over limited areas.

From the tectonic viewpoint, the Hsingan mountain range in the west and the Changpaishan range in the east are important. The former range presents long rocky folds, the western side of which is covered by sand and the eastern side marked by precipitous declivities. The latter mountain range forms the eastern ridge of the central plains lying between the two ranges.

The Sungling mountain range lying generally between Fengtien and Jehol Provinces is of considerable geologic interest. In the northern section the range runs northeast as far as Tiehling on the main line of the South Manchuria Railway, and from that point on takes an easterly course as far as Paitoushan (Hakutsan) on the Korean border. The area south of this range presents formations of Cambrian, Ordovician and even earlier periods. Considerable deposits of fireproof clays, magnesite, and haematite are known to occur there. The area north of this mountain range is marked by conspicuous absence of any such ancient strata, gran-



ite and gneiss layers being generally found under the Mesozoic formations. Along the whole mountain range are found distinct overthrusts of Palaeozoic origin.

North of the latitude of Peking the prevailing direction of the mountains and the strike of strata become northeast. From the Nankou range north of Peking begin the Mongolian plateau, the basement of which is chiefly constituted by Archaen gneiss overlaid by in some parts by later sediments. A wide area is also covered by Tertiary basaltic flows. This vast plain is cut by vertical faults or flexures which form the origin of the Tatsing (or Ouratou) and the Great Hsingan mountains, the great steps by which the Mongolian plateau descends to Ordos in one direction and to Manchuria in the other.

#### Loess

Loess is a geologic feature common to North China and to no small portion of South Manchuria. This yellow soil consists mainly of clay, carbonate of lime and sand. Its origin is generally explained by the joint action of wind and rain. The dust and sand of the central Asian steppes have been mixed with countless generations of decaying plants. Rain is at once absorbed by it, and streams cut their way through it to the sub-soil, leaving a vertical wall on each side, often hundreds of feet in height. Loess soil bears excellent crops; but because irrigation is impossible, the country where it occurs is dependent entirely on a favorable rainfall. Loess in places attains a thickness of 2,000 feet, and is found at altitudes of from 6,000 to 8,000 feet.

The fossils found in the loess consist of *Helicidae* shells, Ostrich eggs (*Struthiodithus chersonensis*) and tusk and molars of an elephant closely related with *Elephas namadicus* which was first found from Narbada valley of India.

**Geological Conditions of Mongolia.** The land of Mongolia, or rather Inner Mongolia more strictly speaking, naturally shares many geological features with Manchuria, with which it forms the territory of Manchoukuo. But there are two distinct characteristic features of the geology of Mongolia. First, the lower areas are under desert sand, seldom exposing rocky formations, but the mountainous areas present rocks of considerable antiquity. Secondly, there is a clear-cut distinction between rocky formations of

Table 18. GEOLOGIC FORMATION OF MANCHURIA

Chiefly based on the report by Professor Murakami

Geological Period	Principal Rocks	Principal Fossils
Cainozoic Era:		
Quaternary Period	Sands, gravels, clays loess, basalts	Mammoth, bison, deer, reindeer elks, rhinoceros
Tertiary Period	Shales, sandstones, tuffs, basalts, trachyte, andesite	Ferns, sago-palms, Glyptostrobus, Comtoriphyllum, Populus, insects, spiders, tortoise, fresh-water fishes, etc.
Mesozoic Era:		
Cretaceous Period	Sandstones, shales	Eggs of sea-turtles, fresh-water fishes, etc.
Jurassic Period	Sandstones, shales, marls, conglomerates, coals, granite-porphry, quartz-porphry, liparite	Ferns, sago-palms, gingo-trees, conifers, bivalves, primordial mammals, etc.
Triassic Period	(Wanting)	
Palaeozoic Era:		
Permian Period	Limestone, sandstones, shales, coals	Lepidodendron, Sphenopteris, cordaites, Fusulia japonica, erinoids, corals, etc.
Sub-carboniferous Period	} (Wanting)	
Silurian Period		
Devonian Period		
Ordovician Period		
Cambrian Period	Limestone, shales, clay-slates, marls, sandstones	Cephalopods (orthoceras, etc.), gasteropods (maelurea, etc.), brachiopods (Obolus, etc.), trilobites (Ptychasyis), fucoids.
	Limestone, marls, shales, clay-slates, sandstones, conglomerates, gabbro, Granites, porphyrites	Brachiopods (obolus, obolleta, etc.), pteropods, lamelli branchia, gasteropods (more than 70 species), trilobites, etc.
Protozoic Era	Crystalline schists, -silica, clay-slates, Lydian stone, limestone, dolomite, iron-stones, Granites, gabbro	Fucoids
Archaean Era	Gneisses, crystalline schists, silica, crystalline limestone, granites	



Table 19. GEOLOGIC FORMATION OF MONGOLIA

Geological Period	Principal Rocks	Thickness in meters	Principal Fossils	
<b>Cainozoic Era:</b>				
Quaternary Period	Alluvium	Sands, Gravels, Clays, Lacustrine deposits, Loess	1-30	
	Diluvium	Sands, Clays, Gravels, Loess, Volcanic products	30-300	Elephas antiquus, horses, rhinoceros, etc.
Tertiary Period	Clay, Silt, Sands, Gravels, Shales, Basalts	1,200	Elephas antiquus, rhinoceros, boars, hipparion, serriidentius, boluchitherium, Menodus, Protitanotherium, Teilhardia, Eudonoceras, Schlosseaia, Paleostylops	
<b>Mesozoic Era:</b>				
Cretaceous Period	Granular red sandstone, Clays, Sands, Shales, Granites, Phosphories, etc.	300-600	Protoceratops, Iguanodontia, Prodeinodon, Protiguanodon, fresh-water shells, etc.	
Jurassic Period	Conglomerates, Sandstones, Shales, Marls, Coals, Eruptive blocks, granites, Porphyries, etc.	150-3,000	Small fragmentary botanical fossils	
<b>Palaeozoic Era:</b>				
Permian Period	Conglomerates, Sandstones, Shales, Limestones, Marls, Granites, etc.	15-600	Productus, Orthotychina, Martinia, Lyttonia, Spirifer, Spiriferella, Streptorhynchus, Camaraphoria, Hemiptychina, Enteleles, Marginifera, etc.	
Dinantian Period	Conglomerates, Sandstones, Clay-slates, Limestones, Dolomites, Batholites of Granite, Intrusive Rocks, etc.	15-300	?	
<b>Protozoic Era:</b>				
Older (Huanhai System)	Grits, Clay-slates, Igneous Rocks, Veins & Stocks	3,000-6,000	?	
Newer (Wutai System)	Crystalline-schists, Phylites, Limestones, Dolomites, Quartzite, Greenstones, Intrusive Igneous Rocks, etc.	?		
<b>Archaean Era:</b>				
(Taishan System)	Crystalline, Limestone, Crystalline-schists, Gneisses, Intrusive Igneous Rocks, etc.	?		

Jurassic origin and those of Cretaceous and later periods.

The stratified layers of Jurassic period are marked with frequent faults caused under the pressure of upheavals. The mountains bear marks of severe destructive work of weathering. The rocks of Cretaceous and later periods show perfect conformability, although they have unquestionably been under warping movements on large scales at one time and another of history.

Jurassic formations which A. W. Grabau has termed the Mongolian geosyncline are marine in character and probably of palaeozoic period. They are widely distributed and often occur in thin layers. The rocks have gone through heavy metamorphic processes caused by igneous intrusions. But the Cretaceous and later rocks have been subject to strong warping movements, but free from marks of igneous activity.

The altitude of the mountains of Inner Mongolia seems to have been determined anytime around the Cretaceous or Tertiary period. The strike of the mountain ranges in the country generally take directions in conformity with the basins. It is therefore said that the Hsingan mountains, like some others, were upheaved by the subsidence of the Mongolian basins. The geognostic and stratigraphic line of distinction thus drawn through the middle part of the Mesozoic era is explained by the heavy volcanic activity of the period preceding it and the total subsidence of igneous action in the period following.



## CHAPTER II

### HISTORY

The history of the country marked off by the long stream of the "Black Dragon"—the Amur—on the north, by the far-flung range of Great Hsingan Mountains on the west, the "Long White Peaks"—Chang Pai Shan—on the east running from the Korean border up northward almost parallel with the coastline of the Maritime Province, and in the south vaguely merging in Chinese territory around the basin of the Liao River, had seldom been traced except as part of the history of China till the birth of Manchoukuo in 1932. Clio whom Chinese historians knew how to woo always faced southward. The tribes and races that moved across the grassy plains of Manchuria were many and some of them who made their abode there were not without achievements of their own. They were perhaps as deserving of attention as any racial elements emerging in the grey light of early history of east Asia, but they had no historian to chronicle their life or their doings. Kingdoms and dynasties rose and had their heroes of war but none versed in letters. Peoples who had little inclination to write about themselves left their histories for others to write.

The Chinese historians can never be said to have paid over-much attention to what is now known as Manchuria or its inhabitants through historical periods. The peoples who lived beyond the palisades or the walls were grouped under the generic title of "barbarians". They were noticed only so far as they intruded upon the domain or the life that flourished within the Middle Kingdom. But those who now would take up the history of Manchuria should adopt another attitude, if their purpose is to be at all worth while. The new country which has been brought forth as an independent sovereign state "independent and inseparably bound" with its eastern neighbor, Japan, demands a new and different approach. Its history should be reviewed only in the light of racial achievements forming the foundation for what was to follow and destined to be greater.

### ANCIENT MANCHURIA

At the dawn of history the land of Manchuria was inhabited in the east by the Tunguses who were called by different names such as Suchen and Suimai, and in the west by the Mongols, called Tunghu. The eastern and the western race were as often brought in contact as in conflict over the intervening grassy plains. Sometimes some of them overflowed across the River Yalu into the Korean peninsula and some others crossed the Great Wall into the Middle Plain of Cathay. Here they mingled and mixed with the Han or Chinese. Racial as well as territorial fusion took place in the east and in the south. In fact, it was often difficult to tell where northern Korea began or where southeastern Manchuria ended.

Speaking generally, the indigenous tribes of Manchuria were nomadic and achieved no civilization of their own. Kingdoms rose in Manchuria, and some of them were mighty enough to invade China and set up their rule there, but they were all content to accept Chinese culture, and even lose their own identity in the higher level of cultural life that had developed beyond the Great Wall. This process of cultural change also took place when streams of Han people infiltrated Manchuria.

Movements of tribes and races were often animated by war-like purposes and in such cases, it should be noted, the races that moved into China always first turned their attention to the east, to Korea. Either friendship or complete subjugation of the eastern provinces was necessary to secure the rear or the flank of the outgoing expedition. On the other hand, whenever the Han race moved northward to conquer, its attention was first given to Manchuria, thus securing its flank on the eastern side. The security of Manchuria has since ancient times been a determinative factor of the peace of east Asiatic peoples, even as it is today.

#### Ancient Races

**Sushen.** The oldest indigenous race of Manchuria was known as Sushen which was established around the region of Kirin when history dawned. This race, most probably of Tunguse origin, is now represented in the main by the tribes known as Gorido and Orochin. The Gorido, called the "Marten Tribe" by the Chinese,



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are now found on the lower course of the Sungari River and in the area around the rivers Ussuri and Horha. The Orochin, called "Fish-skin weavers" and "Reindeer Tribe" by the Chinese, are now found in the area extending from Honchun to the Ussuri River.

**Yilou.** In ancient China the Manchurian race was more commonly known as Yilou, the name Sushen being only recorded in literature as an ancient survival. According to the account given in the "Shin Shu", one of the earliest chronicles of China, this racial group seems to have lived in the area from the east of the Sungari River to the Maritime Province, with Sansing Cheng and Ningkuta as the center.

**Wuzhi and Moho.** The Yilou were called Wuzhi (Matkat) in the dynasty of Second Wei and Moho (Mathat) in the dynasties of Sui and Tang. These tribes assumed the name of Nuchen in the dynasties of Sung, Yuan (Mongol) and Ming.

**Fuyu and Sumai.** The name Sumai seems at times to have been applied to the tribes inhabiting near, or in Korea east of the Kaima Range. The Sumai spoke a dialect allied to Kaokouli. They were found under Han control in the Lolang Province in the First Han Dynasty, but attained an autonomous form of rule in the Second Han.

The Fuyu of whom more accounts are preserved seem to have attained the highest level of civilization among all indigenous races of Manchuria. They "lived to the west of the Yilou", that is, over the extensive plains of what was marked by towns like Nungan, Taonan and later Changchun (Hsingking). This tribe, chiefly engaged in agriculture, according to the "Wei Chih", built granaries and prisons. The land they cultivated yielded plenty of corn. The men, though largely built and brave by nature, were orderly in conduct and never looted. Under the king there were local chieftains for whom men worked as slaves. They lived on beans. They observed ceremony at meetings. At New Year's time they assembled and feasted and danced for days. When in their own country they wore white garments but when traveling abroad, they wore more gaudy clothes, men often using fox and marten skins and decorating their headgear with gold and silver. The laws were strictly observed. Homicides were executed and their families reduced to slavery. Those who stole

had to return twelve-fold. Men and women guilty of adultery were executed. Over-jealous women were likewise punished. When an elder male in the family died his younger brother married his wife. They bred many cattle, horses, martens, long-tailed apes. They fought with bows and arrows, swords, and spears. Each household stored spikes which were put up around the house against an emergency. Whenever there was to be an armed contest, they held a religious service and sacrificed an ox. From its hoofs omens were sought and divined. Funerals were conducted in elaborate manners, those close to the deceased often sacrificing themselves.

**Kaokouli.** This tribe, of the same origin as the Fuyu, were more warlike. In many respects they attained the same level of civilization as the Fuyu. They lived in the basin of the river Tungchia (Fuliu Shui), a tributary to the Yalu. They spoke the same language as the Fuyu but their mode of dressing was different, according to an ancient account. Because they lived in mountainous regions and their land failed to provide sufficient food they seem to have made frequent incursions into other tribal settlements. The country was divided in five units one of which provided the ruler. The men were good fighters.

**East Mochu.**—This tribe lived in the northeastern part of the Korean peninsula, between Mount Hakutosan (Changpaishan) and the Japan Sea, east of Kaokouli. These people were tributary to Kaokouli with whom they were affiliated in many respects.

**Tungbu.** This tribe, which was recorded as inhabiting the region to the east of the Mongols, north of the kingdom of Yen, seems to have made its abode on the upper reaches of the River Liao. Its ethnic origins may be traced to Manchuria and Mongolia. Tsin Kai, a military leader banished from Yen, found shelter among these people and later turned against them and led a successful campaign. The king of Yen established five provinces in the basin of the Liao and Talingho rivers and built a long wall around them against the Manchurian tribe. This was the first instance in history of the Han people invading Manchuria.

**Chitzu or Count of Chi.** Of this legendary founder of Chao-sien or Korea there are many doubtful points. This ruler of ancient Korea was most probably of Fuyu or Kaokouli origin and ruled the tribe inhabiting the southeastern part of Manchuria and



the northern part of the peninsula. After Tsin Kai invaded the area to the west of Korea, they seem to have withdrawn eastward, making their abode around Heijo (Phyonggyang).

#### Tsin Dynasty and Great Wall

When the Tsin Dynasty was set up in 230-221 B.C. the First Emperor, Tsin Shih Hwangti, lost little time to have the Great Wall built against the Mongols in the north, which was replaced in most part by the present wall in the Ming Dynasty. This extensive line of defense originated at Lintiao in the west and running to the south of the Gobi was said to have terminated at Lia-tung in the east. But there are doubts as to the terminal point of the wall. One school of historians hold that the wall came to an end in the neighborhood of the Liao River, while another school is of the opinion that the wall reached out as far as the area from the northeast of Kaiyung to the upper reaches of the Yalu and finally ran in a southeasterly direction to the headwaters of the Daidoko (Daidonggang) in Korea.

The First Emperor divided the southern part of Manchuria in two administrative units; namely, Liaosi, comprising roughly the eastern extremity of what is at present Hupei and Fengtien west of the Liao River; and Liaotung, representing the central and eastern parts of what is now Fengtien Province. Archaeological remains excavated in recent years in the area of Tashihchiao, Liaoyang and Port Arthur bear witness to the presence of Chinese in this part of the country, but their number was unmistakably negligible, the main purpose of the Tsin administration being creation of a safety zone against the menace of the northeastern tribe.

That the Chinese regime in that part of Manchuria was far from secure may be seen from the fact that Lu Kuan who had been appointed as Prince of Yen by Emperor Kao-chu revolted and cast his lot with the Mongols. When the kingdom of Yen fell, one of Lu Kuan's followers, Wei Man, fled to Chaosien with his associates and usurped the domain of Chichun, a descendant of the Count of Chi, the mythical founder of Korea. This was the beginning of the Wei regime in Chaosien. This change of rule may be regarded as the first instance of the racial struggle which was to go on for ages between the inhabitants of the peninsula and those who invaded their country from the west.

#### Chinese Administration

Emperor Kao-chu of Han who had his hands full in dealing with the Mongols in the north, now grown strong under an able leader, tried to maintain friendly relations with Wei Man. But his grandson, Yuchu, later came to clash with Wu Ti, one of the mightiest emperors of ancient China, whose dynasty of First Han was to run from 140 to 87 B.C. Yuchan, betrayed by his own men, lost the field and the ruling house founded by Wei Man in Chaosien came to an end in 109 B.C.

Emperor Wu set up his rule dividing the southern part of Manchuria and the northern and western parts of Korea into four administrative units. They were namely Lolang, Lintun, Hsuentu, and Chenpan.

**Loyang.** This district included what are now Kokai and Keiki provinces, with the seat of government near Heijo (Hyonggyang). The inhabitants were Sumai, Han (Chinese) and some earlier tribe settled in the peninsula.

**Lintun.** Roughly placed in the area now known as Kogen province or the region east of the Kaima Range. The inhabitants were chiefly Sumai.

**Hsuentu.** Historians are at variance as to its exact location. In any case, this administrative district was either in the basin of the Yalu River in the south or in northern Korea known as the south and north provinces of Kankyo. The inhabitants were Wochu.

**Chenpan.** The location of this administrative unit is also disputed. Those who would place it northward believe that it extended from the middle course of the Yalu and ran northward into Manchuria, even extending as far as south of Kirin. A divergent view is held by those who would place it in that part of Korea which is now known as Chusei and North Jenra Provinces. The dominant racial elements was Kaokouli.

#### Chinese Influence in Manchuria

Emperor Wu's influence in these directions was not strong enough to maintain these administrative divisions for more than 27 years. They were then reduced to two units by combining Lolang with Lintun and Hsuentu with Chenfan. In other words,



most part of the domain was abandoned to indigenous rule. Chinese influence remained more or less noticeable only in Lolang, the area of Hsuentu being completely over-run by the East Wochu tribe.

It is evident that Chinese influence infiltrated the northern and northwestern parts of Korea from Manchuria through Chinese officials sent out to rule and through Chinese settlers seeking opportunity there. But the Chinese rule thus established in time fell in decay as the fortune of the Han dynasty itself sank. The Chinese had prepared the way for the new kingdom of Kaokouli.

#### Chinese Administration in Manchuria

The administrative system set up for Manchuria in the Tsin dynasty was largely followed by the succeeding regime. There were three geographic units, namely, You Peiping, Liaosi and Liaotung.

You (Right) Peiping, comprising 16 districts, covered a good part of Jehol Province. In the east it reached as far as Hsifengkou, in the west embraced the area to the south of Chengte (Jehol) and as far as the seacoast in the southeast. In the north it seems to have been bound by Pingchuan.

Liaosi, comprising 14 districts, was bound by the river Talingho in the east, the lower course of the Lanho in the west, and the Sungling range in the north, its southeastern part reaching as far down as the sea. The seat of the government was supposed to have been at Chaoyang.

Liaotung, comprising 18 districts, extended from the left side of the Talingho in the west to the east of Kaiyuan, Fushun and Fengfancheng. In the south it crossed the Yalu to the neighborhood of Lolang and in the southwest bordered on the sea of Pohai, the seat of the government being in Liaoyang.

Many archaeological relics have been excavated throughout these areas in Manchuria and northern Korea. From ancient tombs and elsewhere varieties of pottery, copper and iron instruments, coins, have been recovered. Though in smaller numbers, stones, instruments made of stone, glass, bone and lacquerware, have been excavated. These ancient relics show that their workmanship was generally inferior to the level attained in China in

the corresponding periods of history. It may be surmised that Chinese influence was limited in scope or scale, hardly discernible in areas where the Chinese administration remained less in practice than in name. The highest level of cultural life seems to have been attained only in Lolang according to an ancient tomb excavated in South Heian Province. Some of the works of art found there show that Chinese influence was dominant there from the first to the second dynasty of Han (200 B.C. to 219 A.D.).

#### KAOKOULI

The racial element known as Kaokouli whose origins are lost in mythical obscurity was a branch of the Fuyus, adopting the name Kaokouli only after they had settled down in the basin of the river Tungchiakiang (Fuliushui), a tributary to the Yalu, originating to the south of Kirin. According to the generally accepted version, the Kaokouli tribe set up their own kingdom in 37 B.C., by defeating the Fuyus. The warlike policy of the Kaokouli was directed for successive generations against the Chinese territory of Liaotung and Liaosi, with varying fortunes of war.

#### Chinese Territory in Manchuria in Second Han Dynasty

The Chinese territory in Manchuria remained only in small part in the dynasty of Second Han: Liaotung Province which had comprised 10 districts and a population of 272,539 in the time of First Han had lost half its former land and two-thirds of its inhabitants. Liaosi Province which had in the former dynasty 14 local units and a population of 352,325 accounted now only for five districts with a total population of 81,714. The province of You Peiping likewise shrank from 16 districts to 4 and from 320,780 to 56,475 in population. The loss of Liaosi and You Peiping was in large part due to the invasions of "barbarians beyond palisades" such as Sienpi and Wuhuan. Their power grew so much in the Second Han period that the Chinese rulers at a time were able only to guard and maintain the lines of communication between Shanhaikwan or Hsifengkou and Liaotung.

Against Kaokouli uprisings and invasions Chinese generals, Ssumayi and Wuchiu Chien, were sent out after the establishment



of the Wei dynasty. Especially the latter's name is frequently mentioned in the mostly successful campaigns led against the Kaokouli. But when it is known that, when Wuchiu Chien was to lead an expedition against Kungsun Yuan, the last of the house that ruled Liaotung on an independent basis, many inhabitants fled from Liaotung to Shantung Province, creating there three new districts, and the military power of the Wei dynasty seems to have asserted itself only over a limited area of south Manchuria. It was not surprising that the Kaokouli repeatedly assailed Liaotung and Liaosi, although their own position was often menaced by the growth of non-Chinese tribes known as Sienpi and Wuhuan under a leader like Muyung Kwei.

**Kaokouli's Expansion.** Kaokouli's territory and influence grew after Hao Tai ascended to power in 392 A.D. His forces invaded Liaotung and in 402 A.D. captured Liaoyang, establishing Kaokouli influence over that part of south Manchuria and also over the area around Fengtien and Kaiyuang. In the east Kaokouli extended its territory as far as the Japan Sea and in the south to the region now marked by Keijo (Seoul). King Chang Shou (413-490 A.D.) who next ruled sought friendly protection of Sung and North Wei, the two rival dynasties in China, and extended his dominion as far as the Han River in the Korean peninsula. Kaokouli's invasion would no doubt have continued further southward but for Japan supporting Peche. In short, Kaokouli at its height ruled two-thirds of the whole peninsula and a good part of South Manchuria.

In the last quarter of the sixth century the Kaokouli ruler, employing 1.8 million laborers, built a long wall over a distance of more than 900 Li from Hsiakou, to the north of Yuchow and to Hengechow. In the year following, it is told, this wall was extended as far as the seacoast, making its total length more than three thousand Li. It is presumable that the great wall was completed from Chuyungkwan to Shanhaikwan or its neighborhood, thereby making the former provinces of You Peiping and Liaosi an extra-mural area. Thus the Chinese court abandoned Liaosi and the neighboring part of Manchuria to incursions of the Khitans and Tartars who had been gaining in power.

**Kaokouli's Downfall.** In 642 A.D. Kaokouli, forming an alliance with Peche, began to invade Silla which appealed for help

to Emperor Tai-tsung of the Tang. The Emperor's advice sent to Kaokouli being ignored, he resolved on a punitive expedition, which was undertaken two years later. His forces, a hundred thousand strong, were sent forth by land and sea, he himself leading them in Liaotung. The expedition, however, was only partially successful. At the beginning of the year 647 Emperor Tai-tsung led the second expedition against Kaokouli but again failed to advance beyond the area around the Tatzuho river. His military undertaking was resumed by his successor, Kao-tsung, who began to assail the eastern enemy in 655 A.D., but it was not till 668 that Kaokouli was subjugated. The kingdom of Kaokouli thus came to an end after its existence of 705 years, there being 28 kings in power. Its domain, comprising 176 castle-towns and 697,000 households, and lying to the east of the Liao River, was divided in 9 Tufu, 42 Chow, and 100 Hsien, with the seat of the protectorate government at Phyongyang (Heijo). This government offered many offices to natives in order to appease them, but after the death of the first governor in 679 A.D., there were incessant disturbances in one part of the peninsula or another. In less than a score of years Ta Chuyung, a native of the Sumo division of the Moho tribe was to set up his own regime as king of Pohai.

#### Cultural Life of Kaokouli

There is but little literature throwing light on Kaokouli's cultural activity. Chinese civilization became dominant in the time of the 24th ruler, Yang Yuang, who reigned from 545 to 558 A.D. The native inhabitants observed a form of ancestor worship and a polytheistic religion based on nature worship. The study of Chinese classics became general with the introduction of Buddhism in 372 A.D. In the following year a "university" was founded for the education of the younger generation. In the following year the laws were codified and put in force. In 374 A.D. Buddhist monasteries were built for the two priests come from China. In 392 A.D. the king ordered nine monasteries to be built in Phyongyang. Kaokouli, although it adopted Buddhism earlier than either of the two other kingdom of Chaosien, lagged in other branches of learning. For its history was not set down in writing before 600 A.D. when an ancient chronicle consisting of 100 volumes was newly compiled in five sections. In 624 the teaching of Lao Tzu



was introduced from China to replace Buddhism to an increasing extent.

Artistic attainments of Kaokouli are to be seen in a number of ancient tombs found in its old site. These tombs are distributed in the area of which Phyongyang is the center, around Hai-cheng in Fengtien Province, and around Chian and Fengwang-cheng in Antung Province. Of the ancient tombs which are in most cases built with stone 14 have mural paintings, bearing testimony to artistic attainments of no mean order, although Chinese influence is apparent in all cases.

#### Kingdom of Pohai

In 696 A.D. the Chinese garrison at Yingchow, in Liaotung, was defeated and the Chinese government under the Antung "Protectorate" virtually came to an end, having withdrawn to Yuyangcheng, northeast of Peking. The fall of Chinese political influence was also due to the expansion of Silla which had now annexed Kaokouli's territory to its own.

Ta Chuyung, the founder of the kingdom of Pohai, was a sub-officer of the Chinese garrison when Yingchow was assailed by the Khitans, and fled eastward to the old home of Yilou, with the remnants of Kaokouli. On this account he is considered to have been of Kaokouli origin. In another version he is traced to the Sumo division of the Moho tribe. In either case he was of non-Chinese stock.

The Tang ruler sent out an expedition which Ta Chuyung met at Tienmenling and defeated. He set up his own kingdom which he called Chen Kuo (Eastern Kingdom). Although different dates are ascribed to the foundation of his kingdom, it is known that Emperor Chung Tsung (684-709), the 4th ruler of Tang, had reason to seek friendly relations with this eastern neighbor, appointing its ruler "Prince of Pohai and Governor of Hukhan Province". For a period of 121 years under the rule of 9 successive kings Pohai, although it paid tribute to Tang, remained an independent state often following an expansionist policy.

**Pohai Territory.** From 794 to 830 Pohai enjoyed a peaceful reign, maintaining friendly relations with Tang and Japan. At the time of its 10th ruler, Hsuan (820-830), its territory extended from the northeastern part of the Korean peninsula northward to

the Sungari and the Amur, taking in the area of Kaiyung, Changchun, Nungan and as far as the Japan Sea on the east. A system of administration largely on the Chinese model was introduced over the country which was divided in 5 "king", 12 "fu", and 62 "chow". The central government itself was organized on the Chinese pattern, with divisions and sub-divisions under the chief executive.

In the second quarter of the 9th century Pohai was found on the decline. Its history, mostly lost in confusion and obscurity, was woven with that of Tang in its last days. The fall of Pohai is explained by the corrupting and enervating effects of the cultural life copied from China. In 924 the country began to be torn up. Two years later Yalu Apochi, a leader of the Khitans, captured Pohai's capital, Hukhan, and reduced the country to a tributary renaming it Tungtankuo.

**Life and Culture.** Pohai first took over the cultural life of Kaokouli and next turned to Tang. Toward its declining period it had rather close intercourse with Japan. There is also reason to think in the light of recent archaeological discoveries that it had relations with the Tartars of Karakorum.

Historians of Wei and Sui tell that the people of Pohai lived in caves dug underground. The men wore animal skins and the women clothes of woven material. Men hunted with arrow-heads made of stone and raised livestock. "Being brave and clever," writes an historian, "three men of Pohai would be equal to a tiger." They observed, unlike the Khitans and the Nuchens, a strictly monogamous rule. After coming in contact with the Chinese, the upper class of society adopted polite letters and easier life which were to have a ruinous effect upon their morale. For religion they, like many other Tunguse tribes, seem to have followed Shamanism which is seen in relics excavated from the ruins of the Kin period.

**Intercourse with Japan.** Pohai sent its first mission to Japan in 727 and the last in 892. Its purpose was trade, but the commissioners from Pohai were often treated as guests of state. The list of articles brought over from Pohai includes skins and furs of animals such as tiger, marten, bear, leopard; ginseng; honey. In return Japan sent out silk and cotton goods, gold and silver, lacquer, etc. This trade, however, was found so unprofitable from



the Japanese standpoint that it was later restricted to one exchange of missions in twelve years.

**Remains of Ancient Capital.** Hukhan, the capital of Pohai, has been traced to the neighborhood of Shalantien, some 15 miles to the southwest of Ningkuta, in the district of Ningan in the province of Pinkiang. The ruins of the ancient walled town lie on a plain bordering on the Sungari River. The ancient site extended 4.6 kilometers east to west and 3.3 kilometers north to south. The remains of the imperial palace are found near the center of the ruined town, taking up a space 580 meters east to west, 840 meters north to south. A broad way, running through the middle of the town suggests that the town was planned on the model of the ancient Chinese capital at Changan. Painted, lettered, and patterned tiles and other relics found on the spot bear witness to the level of artistic workmanship of the Pohai period.

#### Manchuria of Liao Period

The Khitans who subdued Pohai are first mentioned in the "Weishu". In the history of Tang they are placed in the ancient home land of the Sienpi to the south of the Shiramuren river. Ethnically, they seem to have been closely allied with the Mongols. They were chiefly hunters, having no settled homes. The largest section of the tribe was Taho, which was divided into 8 divisions. The chief of each division was called Tajen. From these chieftains was chosen the king. Their customs were very similar to those of the Tartars of Mongolia.

Originally nomads, the Khitans were slower in evolving from a tribe to a state. In the Tang dynasty their territory, with Chao-yang as its center, extended eastward and westward covering a total area of 2,000 square "Li". In the time of the "Five Dynasties", they freed themselves from Chinese rule to an increasing extent and their territory further expanded in area. And their racial activity became even more striking with the coming to the fore of their chieftain Yalu Apochi at the beginning of the 10th century.

Yalu Apochi (Yelu Apoki) became the tribal chieftain in 907 and, having killed all those who might dispute his position, he declared himself king in 916 A.D. setting up his capital at Linhuang which is now Boro Hotun of Palin League of Inner

Mongolia. He led his military expedition first against the tribes in the north, next against those in the west, and lastly against Pohai in the east, as already mentioned. After the fall of this eastern kingdom, he turned homeward but died on his way. His second son, Yalu Tekuang, who succeeded him, turned his attention southward to China, defeating the forces of Second Tang in Chihli and Shansi.

Khitans at this time ruled from the Ordos in the west to Ninguta on the Ussuri, and from Peking to the Sungari. He adopted for his kingdom the name of Tai Liao or Great Liao. Ching Tang, one of his generals, was appointed Emperor of Second Chin and rewarded with "16 northern provinces", taking in the northern parts of what are now Hupei and Shansi. He was to make an annual tribute of 300,000 pieces of cloth to the Liao court.

The second Khitans chieftain died soon after the establishment of his state. Under the reign of the three following kings the fortune of Liao sank and remained low. But Sheng Tsung, the 6th ruler, was able to extend the Khitans domain at the expense of China under Sung and other races. He was often engaged not only in the south but also with Kaoli which had arisen in Korea since 918. In the latter direction, however, he was not always successful. Although at the height of his power his domain extended over Manchuria and the northern part of Korea as far as the Japan Sea, it was doubtful if he was able actually to enforce his rule very far in those directions.

Liao which chiefly turned to China for the cultural leadership freely adopted the administrative and other systems of Tang. The country was opened to Chinese immigration. Many public offices were offered to Chinese. But their influence proved ruinous in the end. In the 4th year of the ninth ruler, Tien Tsu, the Nuchens of Manchuria rose to power and, together with Sung, defeated Liao. Thus, after a reign of 210 years the Khitans kingdom came to an end in 1125 A.D.

**Liao's Cultural Life.** Khitans had hardly any form of cultural life that it would claim as of its own. Its government was modelled on the Chinese pattern. Towns were planned and fields were cultivated by Chinese. Except in the army the Chinese were given the same position and treatment as the Khitans.

One of the noteworthy achievements was the development of



the Khitan letters, supposedly three thousand in number, though they are preserved only in fragments. For religion they seem to have followed Buddhism, Shamanism and Nestorianism which had been introduced to China in the Tang dynasty. A number of Buddhist temples remain to date testifying to the influence of the faith. Some of the paintings found in ancient tombs show that this ancient race produced artists of no mean order, although they were mostly pupils in the school of China and sometimes evincing the influence of Arabic art. It is also known from historical accounts that the learning and arts transplanted from Liao chiefly flourished under the aegis of courtly circles.

#### Manchuria of Chin Period

The Nuchens or "Golden Tatars" who overthrew Liao and later set up the kingdom of Chin or Gold were a division of the Moho tribe and originally called the "Black River Moho". When Liao rose to power the Mohos living to the southwest of the Sungari acknowledged its suzerainty, but those of the tribe who lived to the northeast of the river remained free from Liao control. These Mohos called themselves Nuchens, and a division of this tribe called Wanyen began to develop its area around Huining under its first leader, Han Pu, who was about contemporaneous with Yalu Apochi, the founder of Liao. In the time of this tribal leader, the Nuchens seem to have turned from nomadic to agricultural life.

The external expansion of the tribe began under Wukuai who was born in 1021. His forces first conquered the area bordering the Tumehiang river and next the country close on the Japan Sea, thus ruling the area fringing the eastern sector of the kingdom of Liao. The Nuchens were also brought into conflict with the rising kingdom of Kaoli in the Korean peninsula. The southern coast of Kaoli was frequently plundered by the Nuchen pirates who in 1019 had invaded the Japanese islands of Iki and Tsushima and the northwestern coast of Kyushu.

The Nuchens had an able leader in Akuda, one of the greatest heroic figures in the history of Chin. Massing his forces at the Lalin in 1114, he defeated the Liao armies on the northern side of the Sungari and conquered the area from Kirin to Hsienhsing. The decisive battle won by the Nuchens is inscribed on the monument erected on the old battleground in the 25th year of the fifth

king of Chin (1115 A.D.) and brought to light in 1933 by a Japanese archaeologist. In the year following this battle (1115) Akuda proclaimed himself emperor and his country Chin or Gold. Of the origin of the name "Chin" there are various interpretations which, however, are of little importance.

In 1118 Akuda who had taken the imperial title of Tai-tsung led his army into the "eight provinces" of Changehun and Liao-tung and captured the capital of Liao. In the following year the Sung court was ready to form an alliance with the rising Nuchens even on condition of surrendering 16 provinces of "Yen-yun" and paying an annual tribute. But, in pursuit of the last emperor of Liao and his army in rout, the Nuchens in 1127 entered the town of Kaifeng.

The last two emperors of Sung, with prisoners of war numbering some 1,200, were taken back to Manchuria. These emperors were first kept at Pamiencheng, south of Changehun, and later at Wukuocheng in the neighborhood of Sansingcheng, where they stayed till their death.

**Kingdom of Chin.** The kingdom of Chin reached its height in the time of Hsi-tsung, the second emperor. Peace was concluded with Southern Sung in his 7th year (1141). Sung, declaring itself a vassal state to Chin, agreed to pay tribute each year and set its northern border on the line from the Huaishui river in the east to Tasankwan in the west. With the annexation of Sung territory, the domain of Chin included not only the part of Manchuria taken from Liao and the whole of Inner Mongolia, but in addition all of the area now represented by the six provinces of Kansu, Shensi, Honan, Shansi, Shantung, Hopei, together with some part of Hupeh, Anchi and Kiangsu.

For the rule of this extensive land Chinese administrative systems, chiefly of the Tang dynasty, were adopted. The study of Chinese classics and poetry was encouraged by the emperor who himself was glad to have a shrine built to the memory of Confucius. His civil administration would have led to a higher order of cultural life had he not taken to loose life and debauchery. He was killed by his own cousin in 1149. Liang, the usurper, was an unscrupulous despot whose tyrannical reign might have proved fatal but for his able successor, Shih-tsung, who ruled peacefully. He dealt leniently with the court of Southern Sung which had



purchased peace, reducing its heavy annual tribute to 200,000 taels of silver and 200,000 pieces of silken goods.

**Combating Chinese Influence.** One of the most important features of the reign of this wise emperor was seen in his policy for preservation of the racial customs and tradition. This policy was stressed in view of the process of sinicization to which all races invading China had succumbed, and his own proved no exception. In his 13th year (1173) he ordered all the younger generation to be sent back to Huining, the birth place of the Nuchens, so that they should learn the way of their own people. He ordered Nuchen music to be introduced to replace the rage of Han music. All rulers of principalities who failed to use the Nuchen language were dismissed from office. In 1183 Chinese classics were translated into the native tongue.

His grandson, Chang-tsung, who next ruled also adhered to the nationalist policy. In his seventh year (1196) he prohibited all his people to wear Chinese garments and adopt Chinese surnames. Confucius himself fell in disgrace. The "History of Chin", paying high tribute to the enlightened reign of this emperor, says: "Peace reigns long in the country. The Government and learning have been put in proper shape. The laws have been arranged. Official systems have been set up. It is a glorious reign leading to material and spiritual welfare." But the emperor failed to rule with a strong enough hand. Signs of unrest began to appear in the country.

**Downfall of Chin Kingdom.** In the time of his successor, Wei Shao, the situation went from bad to worse, with frequent political disturbances in the country and many soldiers deserting to flee out of the country. The Mongols under the leadership of Jenghis Khan in 1211 invaded the area within Chuyungkwan, the barrier north of Peking. Three years later the Mongols besieged Yenking or what is now Peking. Chin's capital was transferred to Kaifeng. In the year following, the Mongols, having captured the former Chin capital, advanced their forces southward. The Chin forces were only able to stem the advancing hordes along the Yellow River and at Tungkwan while Jenghis Khan's attention was engaged further west, Chin came to terms with Southern Sung.

**End of Chin Kingdom.** After Jenghis Khan's death in 1227,

his third son Ogdai was chosen as Khan. With Yeh-lu Tsu-tsai and Tu-le as his chief lieutenants, he resumed the campaign against Chin in 1230. Breaking through the strong defenses at Tungkwan, his forces lay siege to Kaifeng and next Ju-ning in Hunan province, where the capital had been removed. Upon the fall of the former town, a number of Chin princes and princesses and their vassals, numbering 500, were captured and sent to Karakorum. When the latter town fell in 1234 the last emperor of Chin dispatched himself and the "Golden" dynasty of 9 emperors and 120 years came to an end.

When Chin proclaimed itself an independent state by overthrowing Liao, it established five principal cities of which Huining was the capital until the fourth emperor transferred the capital to Yengking (Peking). The ruins of the ancient castle of Huining have been found to the south of Arshihka station of the North Manchuria Railway (former Chinese Eastern Railway). The place was investigated in 1907 by Kurakichi Shiratori, Japanese historian, who found relics proving the identity of the ancient ruins. The city of Yenking which the fourth emperor seems to have built by reconstructing and extending what had been left from the Liao dynasty was, according to an ancient account, surrounded by walls 75 "Li" long. The northeastern section of these ancient walls forms part of the present inner castle wall of Peking.

#### Manchuria Under Chin

As the cradle of the imperial race, Manchuria was regarded and ruled as a special administrative unit. What is at present Manchuria comprised 5 Lu (Road) out of the 19 of which the whole domain of Chin consisted. These administrative divisions comprised the local units which may be identified with the modern geography of the country as follows:

1. Shang King Lu (Upper City Area): Heilung Province, part of Heilungkiang Province, Kirin Province, Pinkiang Province, Sankiang Province, Chientao Province; administrative center, Huining (near Fangcheng in Sankiang Province).

2. Hsien Ping Lu. Fengtien Province, northern sector of Antung Province, Kirin Province; administrative center, Hsienping Fu (near Kaiyuan, in Fengtien Province).

3. Tung King Lu (Eastern City Area): Fengtien Province,



and southern section of Antung Province (east of the Liao River); administrative center, Liaoyang Fu, Fengtien Province).

4. Pei King Lu (Northern City Area). Chinchow Province, Chahar Province, the greater part of Jehol Province; administrative center, Tatung Fu (near Lingyuan, in Jehol Province).

5. Hsi King Lu (Western City Area). Part of Jehol Province, Suiyuan Province, northern section of Shansi Province; administrative center, Tatung Fu (Tatung in Shansi Province).

Each "Lu" was further divided into "Fu, Chow, Chun, Cheng and Hsien". Each "Fu" was under the jurisdiction of a lieutenant-governor. In the Upper City and the Western City Area, representing the birthplace of the Chin race, there were additional "Lu's" chiefly providing for the welfare of the native population.

#### Economy and Culture of Chin

Chin, according to its historians, retained in circulation the coins of Sung and Liao until the fourth emperor had copper coins minted by mobilizing copper resources in his domain. But there being varieties of bad private currencies in circulation, the same emperor in 1154 ordered paper money to be issued in order to adjust the chaotic condition of currency. This system was an imitation of the "Chiao-tzu" notes of the Sung dynasty. The paper notes were issued without term of redemption but with a promise for replacement with new notes when torn and worn beyond use. The circulation of paper money went on increasing with the result of forcing out of circulation all metal coinage of better quality. The excessively inflated circulation of paper money may be regarded as one of the causes for Chin's downfall.

The Nuchens had no letters of their own. The Khitan letters were commonly used until its first emperor in 1119 had the Nuchen letters devised by one of his scholarly vassals. These letters were called the "Large Nuchen Letters" to be distinguished from the "Small Nuchen Letters" which were devised in the fourth year (1138) of the reign of the third emperor. These two forms of letters were used in common with the Khitan and Chinese.

The Nuchens were originally unlettered people but their imperial rulers were sedulous scholars in Chinese classics. Under their patronage Chinese scholars were invited to their country and

charged with the popularization of scholarly pursuits. The modern Chinese drama assumed its form in Chin. Printing of books was done in the southwestern part of Shansi Province.

The Nuchens' manners and customs are fully described in the "Ta Chin Kuo Chih" (History of Great Chin). They were agricultural and good hunters. The men were brave and good riders and often warlike. Their houses were mostly made in mountains and valleys. Homes were enclosed with trees and covered with pieces of board and bark. The floor on which people sat and slept was made of mud and heated from under in winter. People mostly favored white garments and wore queues, hanging them long on their backs. The custom of wearing queues was enforced on the Chinese in the seventh year (1129) of the second emperor. There being no medical knowledge, the patients were attended on only by magicians.

Several forms of religion seem to have been followed, Shamanism perhaps being the oldest to be adopted. Nestorianism was also not unknown. Buddhism, though placed at times under imperial patronage, seems to have fared worse than under the Liao dynasty, there being even instances of prohibiting its practice.

Chin, unlike Liao and Pohai, had little intercourse with Japan. The existent records only show that in ancient times Nuchens invaded the northern shore of the mainland and some part of Kyushu, and that shipwrecked men sometimes drifted to this side of the sea.

#### Manchuria of Yuen (Mongol) Period

Under the reign of the Mongol emperors (1205-1367) Manchuria remained more or less detached from the current of events that marked the history of China, Mongolia, Korea and central Asia. Manchuria was through this period the homeland of various races, namely, Chinese, Khitans, Nuchens, Mongols. There were uprisings and attempts at revolt, but none of them had any serious effect on the main current of the time. The peace and order of Manchuria, however, was a matter of importance to the Mongol throne as it conducted campaigns in the south, in the west and in the east. The Mongol rulers, from this standpoint, seem to have adopted, if anything, an appeasement policy with regard to the tribes and races inhabiting the plains of Manchuria.



## THE MONGOLS

The first of the tribes known by the common name of Mongols had its original home in the area to the northeast of both Lake Dalai-nor and the river Argun. From these places they gradually drifted westward. In the reign of Liao and in the earlier part of Chin they were content to live as nomads on the plains bordering the upper reaches of the rivers Onon and Kelulien in the northeastern part of Outer Mongolia. Their ethnic origin is generally traced to branches of the Tatars. The Mongols, however, never called themselves Tatars (Tartars).

When the eighth emperor of Chin, Hsuan-tsung, ascended to power in 1214, there were two independent kingdoms in Manchuria. The northern kingdom, with its capital at Kaiyung, was called Liao and founded by Yenlu Liuko, a Khitan soldier, who had revolted against Chin. The southern kingdom whose capital was at Liaoyang was called Ta Chin (Greater Chin), its founder being a Nuchen general named Puhsien Wannu or Bugannu as given in the "History of Jhengis Khan". He had been sent out by the Chin emperor in charge of an expedition against Liuko but rebelled after an unsuccessful encounter with this Chin leader. Meanwhile, the Mongols having established themselves in Liaosi, the influence of the Chin dynasty had virtually been driven out of Manchuria. The two kingdoms of Manchuria above mentioned were in turn driven off to the eastern part of Manchuria as the Mongols extended their rule practically all over the country. However, a large part of the Khitans who had been expelled from Manchuria made their way into Korea and came into clash with Kaoli.

Ogdai who had led his army into China against Chin also sent an army against Kaoli in 1230. The Mongol expeditions against the peninsular kingdom were repeated six times until Kublai Khan ascended the throne in 1259. The Korean kingdom was subjected to complete vassalage in the following year.

**Conditions in Manchuria.** Jenghis Khan placed the administration of Manchuria in the hands of his younger brother, Uchigen, and other members of his family. But they became in time rebellious so that Kublai Khan himself in 1287 led his army into South Manchuria. In the following year both Manchuria and East

Mongolia were under his complete control.

The Mongol court directly ruled China proper, Manchuria, Mongolia, Tibet, Chinghai, while Kaoli and Annan were treated as protectorates. China, Manchuria, and Mongolia, taken as an administrative unit, were divided into 11 provinces and these provinces, in turn, into 186 Lu (Road). Manchuria and a part of Mongolia were placed under the jurisdiction of the central administrative office at Liaoyang.

In the dynasty of Luen at Peking the Mongols were given first place in society and the "western border people" second place, while the Chinese who had been under the rule of Khitan, Nuchen and Chin as well as the Kaolians were all grouped under the name Han and accorded third place. The Mongol rulers placed the least faith in the Chinese who had been under the rule of Sung, these being called the "southern people". This section of the Chinese was treated more harshly than the former subjects of Liao and Chin. It may be assumed that the Manchus under Mongol rule had little cause for discontent or unrest. In fact, there is no instance of any race of Manchurian origin rising in revolt against the Mongol rulers.

**Remains of Mongol Rule.** There are few vestiges of the cultural life achieved in the period of the Mongol regime, so far as Manchuria is concerned. Next to nothing has been reclaimed of Mongol tombs or architecture. The heritage achieved in the Mongol dynasty was in no small part bequeathed to the periods of Ming and Ching (Manchu), but it underwent so complete change in those succeeding ages that it is hardly possible to recognize its original characteristics.

The most noteworthy relic of Buddhism in Manchuria is now seen in the Tibetan letters inscribed on the gate at Chuyungkwan, north of Peking, forming an entrance to Manchuria by way of Jehol. It is set down there that Buddhism was introduced to Manchuria for the benefit of its people through Kumd-Gaha-Rgyalm-Tshan. This priest who was also known as Phagspa was invited from Tibet to engage in his religious mission in Manchuria. It was this Tibetan priest that developed the Mongol letters. Whatever may have been his success in the religious field, Lamaism was most popular then as it is with the Mongols at present.



It may be no exaggeration to say that this degenerate form of Buddhism contributed much to the ruin of the Mongols or their dynasty.

#### Manchuria of Ming Period

The Chinese regime that replaced the Mongol was to continue for three centuries under the title of Ming. A successful military campaign carried into Manchuria in the earlier part of the dynasty brought the country under its control. Chinese systems of civil and military, mostly military, government were instituted as Chinese influence became increasingly dominant. The indigenous tribes which divided the country among them accepted the supremacy of Chinese arms, and adopted many features of the higher order of cultural life brought in from the south, but at the same time gathered their own strength and abode their time. One of them was able to become so powerful as to overthrow the Chinese dynasty and ascend the throne at Peking to proclaim its rule over China. The achievements of Chinese rule in Manchuria through this period, despite its long duration, may be reckoned mostly in terms of miao or shrines dedicated to the memories of ancient masters of arms and letters and in those of temples built for various beliefs brought in from outside, "in accordance with the infinite thoughtfulness of the rulers who would bring purity and rapture to the minds of their people", as runs the historic inscription on the wall of Chuyungkwan.

**Return of Chinese Rule.** When the fortune of the Mongol regime sank low, it had to yield the central plain of China to its own people. Shun-ti (1333-1368), the last to ascend the Mongol throne, was a ruler "in whom were summed up the vices and faults of his predecessors." Revolts broke out and finally this descendant of Genghis Khan was compelled to fly before Chu Yuen-chang, the son of a Chinese laborer. In 1367 this Chinese proclaimed himself Duke of Wu in Nanking, but it was not till thirteen years later that he was willing to declare himself emperor.

**Manchuria and Korea.** The last Mongol emperor, Shun-ti, pursued by two Chinese generals, Hsu Ta and Chang Yu-chun, first fled to Peking and next to Kaiping. In the following year he was again assailed by the Ming armies and compelled to move to Ying-chang, near Dali-nor, and met his end. His son Aiyu Shihlitala sought refuge at Karakorum and, declaring himself a great

Khan, tried to recover the Mongol domain but died without success in 1378. His son Togusu-timur took up the same ambitious undertaking but in 1387 was defeated by the Ming army and later killed by one of his own followers. After that the Mongols were torn up with internecine strife and known to the Chinese as the Tatar section in the following years.

The first emperor of Ming, while extending his rule over the Mongol area in the north, had to be on the guard against Manchuria which was then the homeland of a section of the Mongols and those who had been their followers. To the southeast was Kaoli of the peninsula which had been in friendly relations with the Mongol court. The area around Liaoyang was frequently a scene of hostilities among opposed interests. It was not until the 12th year of his rule that a state of security was seen in this part of the Ming kingdom. The position of Kaoli remained uncertain still longer, its ruler being recognized as king of Chaosien only in 1401.

The Nanking court of Ming, according to the "Ming Shih" (History of Ming), set up a form of military regime in the southern part of Manchuria over which it had a control. Quite unlike other parts of its domain, here was instituted no civil administrative system. The section of Fengtien Province lying to the south of Kaiyuang, Antung Province, and the Liaosi area were taken as a unit and placed under the rule of the Tussu of Liaotung (military commander). This country was guarded by 25 "Wei" or garrison bases. The districts guarded by these military posts correspond to the following modern places: Liaoyang, Haicheng, Kaiping, Fuchow, Kinchow, Kwangning, Ichow, Chinchow, Ningyuan, Fengtien, Tiehling, Kaiyuang. In addition, the southeastern section of Jehol was placed under the Tussu of Wanchuan. For the administration of the non-Chinese tribes "beyond the palisades" the Ming rulers appointed Nurgan Tussu in charge of 384 Wei or guards, but these outside elements were left under the administration of their own tribal chieftains as far as possible.

**External Expansion of Ming.** The third emperor of Ming, Cheng-tsu, who ascended to power at the beginning of the 15th century, took an aggressively expansionist policy. His attention was first directed to the north. His generals carried arms far into northern Manchuria, but, according to an ancient Manchu histo-



rian, it is doubtful if the emperor himself had any previous knowledge of the land he had set out to conquer. Nevertheless, there is evidence that he succeeded in extending his domain far in this direction. For instance, according to the stone monument erected in 1433 at Tyr on the lower course of the river Amur, which corresponds to Telin, and now preserved at the Vladivostok museum, Chinese arms were successfully carried on as far as "Ku-i or Ku-yuan of the sea", which is Saghalien. It is also recorded that the Nuchens of the far north often paid tribute to the Ming court.

Far less successful was this aggressive emperor of Ming in the Mongol area. He was repeatedly compelled to send expeditions against the recalcitrant tribes in the north, he himself leading his army in the 14th year of his rule. But while his attention was engaged outside, he took pains to put his own country in shape. The Ming dynasty reached its height in his time and its supremacy was maintained by his successors. But in the time of the 5th emperor (1436-1449) the power of Ming was already on the decline, the emperor himself being made prisoner by a Mongol chief one time.

The more conservative and cautious policy adopted by the Ming government may be seen in the completion of a system of palisades, 700 "Li" long, from Kwangning to Kaiyuan, in the time of the third emperor. Thus, the extensive plains in the Liao valley was placed outside the protected area. The ancient wall now existent at Chuantou, lying between Kaiyuan and Ssuping-kai, still gives an idea of the defensive works built in those Ming days.

**Chienchow Nuchens.** The Nuchens who were called Nuchih in the Ming period were divided in three groups, namely, Chienchow Nuchens, Haisi Nuchens and Yehjen Nuchens. Chienchow in the Mongol and Ming dynasties meant the area around the town of Kirin. Chienchow Nuchen had its center in all likelihood where Sansing now stands. Chienchow Wei which was to be one of the three divisions that the Chienchow Nuchens were later to comprise and which first appeared in the history of Ming in 1408 lay probably further southward nearer the Korean border, or around the area of which the town of Chutzukai is the center.

These Nuchens made frequent inroads on Korea. They seldom ceased to be a source of disturbance to Ming which pursued an

appeasement policy but contrived to keep them from achieving an internal union. In 1467 Ming had to send an army of 50,000 strong to subdue Chienchow. Ten years later Chienchow Nuchen, forming an alliance with Haisi Nuchen which had arisen on the west side of the Sungari, invaded the whole land from Fengtien to Liaoyang. Ming's northern frontiers were exposed to a new menace when the Mongols became powerful under their leader Andan in the second quarter of the 16th century. In 1550 the Mongols poured into China by way of Kupeikou and entered Peking setting it on fire. Through these years the so-called Japanese piracy which had begun soon after the Mongol raids on Kyushu became very active. The marauders from Japan who were reinforced by native pirates descended almost on the entire coast of China. The two Japanese military expeditions sent out into Korea by Hideyoshi also went far toward striking at the foundation of the Ming dynasty.

**The Rise of Nuchens and Nurhachi.** Ming never succeeded in gaining complete control over either Chienchow or Haisi Nuchen. Li Cheng-liang, military commander of Liaotung, was kept quite busy. From the frequent clashes between the Nuchens and the Chinese garrison emerged an outstanding figure in Nurhachi, grandson on the maternal side of Wang Kao, who had been commander of the Chienchow Right Division until he unsuccessfully revolted against the Chinese in 1573. Ten years later Nurhachi, a young man of 25 years of age, entered on his career which was to alter the course of Chinese history again by killing the man who had murdered both his grandfather and father. In the following year (1587) he built a castle at Hulanhada, south of Mt. Yentung lying to the west of Hsingching (100 miles east of Mukden). While Ming was invaded from the west in 1590, and from the south by Burma in the following year, and Korea was swept by the Japanese forces in the next year, Nurhachi went on extending his domain over the area outside the palisade. In 1616 he declared himself Khan and took for his kingdom the title of Second Chin (Gold) and for his dynasty that of Tien Ming—heavenly will. In the following year he declared war against Ming on the ground that his ancestors had been murdered for no reason. With his forces of Eight Banners, he invaded Liaotung in 1618 and at once proceeded to capture Fushun-cheng and Chingho-cheng.



Ming appointed Yang Kai, general of long border experiences, as commander of the Liatung army which, however, because of numerous deserters in those times, had to be reinforced by mobilizing forces from Fukien, Chekiang, Szechuan, and Kansu, to the total strength of anywhere from 200,000 to 400,000. In addition, Chaosien (Korea) rallied under the Ming standard with an army of 13,000 strong. These combined forces were met and completely defeated at Saruhusan (Saerh-hushan), a mountain close to the southern border of Kirin Province. This decisive battle virtually led to the downfall of the Ming dynasty. In 1621 Nurhachi took possession of Shenyang (Mukden) and Liaoyang, establishing control practically over the whole area east of the Liao river. In the following year he carried his arms beyond the Liao river reducing many towns and three years later set up his capital at what is now Fengtien (Mukden) naming it Shengching. The next year he again led his forces against the Chinese garrison at Ningyuan where he was wounded by a cannon ball, which proved fatal. He was 68 years of age when he died, and his remains were honored at what is now known as Fuliang or the eastern mausoleum of Mukden.

**From Second Chin to Tsing.** Upon Nurhachi's death his eight son, Huangtaichi, became khan and lost little time to send an expedition into Korea. He exacted from the Korean court a pledge of non-aggression and provision supplies. On the other hand, he opened his campaign against Ming and in his third year crossed the Great Wall and besieged Peking. In 1632 he set up his rule throughout Inner Mongolia and two years later assumed the title of emperor, discarding that of khan, and the national name of Tai Tsing or Great Pure instead of Second Chin. The land whence the Nuchens had originated was called Manju (Manchu), which seems to have been adopted at a much earlier time to designate either the Nuchens ancestors or their birthplace.

In the same year (1636) the history of the first emperor was completed in the Manchu letters which had been developed as early as 1594. This chronicle of Nurhachi, written in both Chinese and Manchu letters, is a monumental work consisting of 3,801 sections and covering the history of the first emperor and his ancestors over a period of three centuries. In civil administration many institutions were introduced at the same time.

**Manchu Court to Peking.** In 1636 the Manchu emperor, Taitsun, attacked Chaosien (Korea) which had been a constant menace and brought it under effective control. Next he was ready to launch his campaign against Ming. In 1638 one of his generals was sent out to Chihli; and three years later the emperor himself advanced to Liasi to direct his armies and drove the Chinese forces out of Chihli (Hupei) in 1643. In the same year the Manchu emperor whose health had been failing for some time succumbed to his illness and his ninth son, Fulin, ascended to power in his sixth year of age.

In China Li Tzu-cheng who had steadily gained power by rallying discontented elements under his standard proclaimed himself emperor at Sian and assailed Peking, driving the last emperor of Ming out of the capital and to death. Li Tzu-cheng, in turn, was expelled from Peking by the Manchu forces. In September 1644 the Manchu court was transferred from Panyang (Mukden) to Peking and proclaimed its rule over all China.

**Ming Influence in Manchuria.** When Ming rose to power and extended its influence over Manchuria, Confucianism, Taoism and Buddhism found their way into the country. A number of Miao or shrines dedicated to the memory of Confucius and now found in the country may be traced in most instances to the Ming dynasty, the most typical being that at Haicheng. Many shrines dedicated to the memories of Kwan-yu, Yo-fei, the Chinese farm deity, and those of Taoism now seen in the form of Niangniang-miao, are ascribed to one period or another of the Ming dynasty. The following of Buddhism is seen in a number of temples found in all parts of the country, especially in South Manchuria. Those at Chienshan (Thousand Hills) are best known for the scenery of which they form part. With regard to the castles and town walls the remains of which are found in the country it may be noted that those built with stones and tiles are traced to the Ming or some later period. Until toward the end of the Yuan or Mongol dynasty such defensive works were made only of earth or palisades.

#### Manchuria of Tsing (Manchu) Dynasty

The history of Manchuria in the dynasty of Tsing (Ching) when its own sons sat on the dragon throne of Peking synchroniz-



ed in large part with the eastward penetration of Russian influence, leading to its domination over Siberia and at a time over some part of Manchuria. The tide of European imperialism that began to sweep over East Asia in the last quarter of the 16th century was to reach Manchuria as it did China, but only from another direction. A band of Cossacks crossed the Urals about three score years after the Portuguese arrived at Canton in 1517, marking the beginning of China's intercourse with Europe. This small Cossack expedition led to the movement of Russian influence which was to cast its shadow over Manchuria for many years. Toward the close of the 19th century Manchuria had turned into an international battleground. The fate of the country itself hung in the balance until the course of its destiny had to be shaped by decisions of international moment, decisions forced on the countries which had come to take vital interests in Manchuria.

Manchuria under its own rulers languished from the standpoint of its racial activity. The Manchus and the Mongols proved themselves incapable of holding their own against the Chinese coming in from the south, as they did against the Russian descending from the north at a later period. The indigenous tribes had to yield their ground wherever Chinese farmers came to settle. Those natives were as unresisting against the inroad of Chinese culture. With the process of sinicization they lost much of their racial identity as well as virility. They, like many another race that had come to rule over the Hanjen or Chinese, had succumbed to its enervating influence. When the northern frontier was threatened by the aggressive Russians, the Manchu rulers had to defend it, not with its own men, but mostly with forces mobilized in central and southern China. The fortune of the races who made light of their own heritages, who had forgotten to fight as their early ancestors, and, lastly, who had proved themselves less capable economists than their thrifty neighbors, was not destined to rise very high. But even while Manchuria paused on the threshold of a modern era, the Far Eastern situation prepared itself for yet greater changes to come.

**Manchurian Administration.** The Tsing regime, after its conquest of China, always regarded Manchuria as its own native land and ruled it on an independent basis, setting up there a special system of administration and racial protection. The palisades

that had been erected in the Ming dynasty for the defense of the Han race in Liatung were taken over by the Manchu rulers and used for the safeguarding of their own native country, by extending them in many directions. In the Tsing dynasty these defensive works ran in a straight line from north of Kwangning. (now Peichen-hsien, in Fengtien) to Kaiyuang by way of Fakumen, taking in the Liao valley, the oft disputed ground in the Ming period. From Kaiyuang the line of defense extended, on one hand, in a northeasterly direction and enclosed the area of the town of Kirin and Ningkuta, and, on the other, in a southeasterly direction from Kaiyuang to Hsingching and Fengfang-cheng.

The third Manchu ruler, upon transferring his capital to Peking, appointed a military commander over 8 Banners of Fengtien. In the time of Emperor Kang-hi the areas of Ningkuta, Archuka, Petna, Mergen, Tsitsihar, were likewise placed under military commanders. In the reign of the next ruler, Kien-lung, Manchuria was divided into Shengking (Fengtien), Kirin and Heilungkiang, which were called the Three Eastern Provinces.

The first named province, as the homeland of the Manchu race, was ruled by 5 administrative offices of households, ceremony, war justice and industry. The higher officers were appointed only from the Manchus, only Chinese of special qualifications being appointed by the emperor in exceptional cases. These administrative organs also took charge of the entire Mongol territory which was held under the direct rule of the imperial court. The area outside Shengking was under a military regime, with high commanders for Fengtien, Kirin and Heilungkiang. The Chinese in Manchuria and the Mongols were dealt with as separate units but were always held under the control of Manchu officers.

**Colonization and Chinese Immigration.** With the removal of the Manchu capital to Peking a large number of Manchus migrated to China. The immigration of Chinese farmers to the depopulated areas of Manchuria was officially encouraged. The Manchus, as a privileged people, were given lands for security of life; but since they mostly entered the military and civil services, their lands were left for the Chinese to till. The Chinese farmers were attracted by guarantees of living until the first harvest, in addition to cattle given free of charge.

Since this policy was adopted primarily to support the native



population, Chinese immigration was placed under restriction when the countryside was sufficiently populated. The peculiar economic situation that developed through Chinese immigration also called for restrictive measures. The Manchus became land owners when Chinese came in to cultivate lands for them. When the Manchus took to easy life, many refusing to work, their property often passed to Chinese ownership. At the beginning of the 19th century orders were issued prohibiting the Chinese to live in the Three Eastern Provinces. But in face of the chaotic conditions developing in China the inflow of Chinese population persisted. Moreover, when the northern border region was exposed to Russian aggression, Chinese immigration had to be again encouraged to increase the rural population for defense purposes.

**Russian Aggression.** A Cossack band under Yermack Timofevitch which crossed the Urals around the year 1580 and advanced eastward failed to make progress very far into Siberia, but prepared the way for other parties of explorers. Another Cossack band which was sent out on the Siberian trip fifty-five years later was the first to learn of the Amur river. One section of them was able to come out as far as the Okhotsk Sea in 1640. Ten years later the enterprising Khabarov was exploring the Amur. By defeating the Soluns at the confluence of the rivers Silka and Argun, he took possession of Yakosa or Albazin, some 50 miles northeast of Hailar, fortifying it as a base for further advances into the east. In 1652 he made his way from the mouth of the Sungari to the river Ussuri. Six years later a Russian expedition under the leadership of Governor Pashkov reached the mouth of the river Nertcha and built there a fort which was later to develop into the town of Nertchinsk.

The Manchu government in the same year sent troops to subdue the Russians plundering the area along the Amur. Three years later a shipbuilding yard was established at Kirin to strengthen China's river fleet against the aggressors. At some places the Manchus scored victory, but the tide of Russian influence was hard to stem except in the years when the war with Poland and next with Turkey diverted the attention of the Tzar elsewhere. But when Emperor Kang-hi was wholly taken up with internal disturbances in the period 1673-1681, the Russians not only held their fortified town of Albazin but advanced further

to build their outposts at many places. The Manchus in 1685 assaulted Albazin which was burned down. The conflict between the Russians and the Manchus went on with varying fortunes until Peter the Great sent an embassy to Peking in 1686 proposing peace. The Nertchinsk treaty that followed, the first foreign treaty ever concluded by China, set the boundary along the Argun in one direction and along the river Kerbetsi and the Stanovoi mountains in the other. The Manchu emperor established a military outpost on the river Zeya, as the northern extremity of his domain.

In 1692 Peter the Great sent another embassy to Peking asking for the right of trade, which Emperor Kang-hi granted to the extent of 200 traders every three years, these men being permitted to stay at Peking for 80 days and trade free of duty. Meanwhile, the town of Kulun or Urga had become an active mart but also a scene of frequent disturbance. In 1727 Catherine sent an embassy to Peking and there followed what is known as the Kiakhta treaty the main object of which was to effect border demarcation between Outer Mongolia and Russian territory and to open trading posts which were fixed at Kiakhta, Selenga and Nertchinsk.

The Tsing dynasty reached the zenith of power around the 15th year (1760) of Emperor Kien-lung's reign through which Chinese immigration into Manchuria seems to have continued with little hindrance. Even the Three Eastern Provinces which had been closed to Chinese settlement were virtually opened to those coming from the southern side of the Shanhaikwan barrier. At the turn of the 19th century Chinese farmers had settled from the Amur in the north close to the Korean border in the south.

**Russian Aggression under Muraviev.** Russia's eastern policy became more aggressive after Count Muraviev was appointed viceroy of Eastern Siberia in 1847. The harbor of Petropavlovk was built two years later. The estuary of the Amur was guarded by fortifying Petrofskoe and Nikolaiefsk. In 1858 the Aigun treaty was concluded. By this treaty Russia acquired an extensive land on the left side of the Amur from the river Zeya to the river Hormoldzin, and the right of free navigation on the Amur, the Ussuri, and the Sungari. In June of the same year Russia concluded the Tientsin treaty providing for opening of trade, open ports, consulates and regular post service between Peking and



Kiakhta. When the allied forces of Britain and France forced their way into Peking in July 1860, Emperor Hien-feng having fled to Jehol, Russian Minister Ignatief took the advantage of the situation and succeeded in acquisition of the Chinese territory east of the Ussuri river which is known as the Maritime Province. This important deal was made by what is called the Peking treaty. But in fact, this treaty was anticipated four months prior to its conclusion when a Russian naval force occupied Vladivostok in April 1860.

**Religions and Cultural Life.** The Nuchens of Manchuria seem originally to have followed Shamanism but later came very much under the influence of the Mongols and Tibetans, as seen in the development of the Manchu letters on the basis of the Mongol letters. Mongol influence was also seen in the encouragement given to Lamaism, which still remains in a number of temples found in all parts of Manchuria and Inner Mongolia. The Tibetan and Chinese types of Lamaist architecture are well represented in many temples.

Mohammedanism which had been introduced to China in the Tang dynasty became more popular in the Tsing regime. Many Mohammedans migrated from the western area to Shensi and Kansu. In 1729 the first Moslem church was built in Peking.

Roman Catholicism flourished in the reign of Emperor Kang-hi who studied mathematics and natural sciences from scholarly Jesuit missionaries among whom the name of Father Bouvet is well known. The emperor in his 47th year (1708) ordered a number of Catholic missionaries to survey many provinces and make their maps. The area from the Great Wall to Inner Mongolia was surveyed the same year by French Jesuit missionaries, Xaverius Ehrenbertus Fridelli and Petrus Jartroux. The Amur region was explored by these men in 1710. In 1718 the maps of China, Manchuria, Korea and Tibet were presented to the emperor and later to Louis XIV. It was also around this time that schools of ancient Chinese philosophy were introduced to France to meet with enthusiastic reception from men like Montesquieu and Voltaire. In Manchuria Roman Catholicism seems to have been adopted by not a few even before the freedom of following the Christian faith was guaranteed by the Chinese government in 1860.

The Chin Luan Palace of Mukden is the most typical of the architecture of the early Tsing period. The summer palace at Jehol the construction of which was begun in 1703 and completed six years later is thought the most picturesque among all palatial structures left from ancient China. The castle walls of Mukden built in most part in the year 1631 is well representative of the castle architecture of the early Manchu period.

#### International Interests in Manchuria

It was not until after the Sino-Japanese war of 1894-5 that Manchuria took a position of international importance. As a result of this war which Japan fought to preserve the independence of Korea and its freedom from the increasing political interference of China as well as to maintain its own position in the peninsula against the aggression of imperialist Russia, China exposed its incapacity and incompetence. The powers that had been undeceived as to China's potential power now sought every chance and pretext to extend their spheres of influence at the expense of the country which had been compared to a sleeping lion. Russia which had been making its way into the country from Siberia was naturally to center its attention on Manchuria.

The Sino-Japanese treaty concluded at Shimonoseki in April 1895 established, with regard to Manchuria, the integrity of that part of Fengtien Province which lies to the south of the line drawn from the the mouth of the river Yalu northward to the mouth of the river Anpingho and thence to Fengwang-cheng, Hai-cheng and curving down to Yinkow; of a number of islands off the eastern shore of Liaotung Bay and off the northern side of the Yellow Sea; and the cession to Japan of forts, arms plants and official establishments in the places mentioned above.

While the peace negotiations were in progress in Japan, Russian warships were concentrated in Far Eastern waters. The military governor of Vladivostok mobilized reservists. French and German war crafts moved eastward. When their combined forces were strong enough there followed the so-called triple intervention with a demand for the retrocession of the Liaotung Peninsula which had been ceded to Japan under the treaty of Shimonoseki. This demand was made on the ground of the "disturbance of the balance of power and the menace to China" which the occupation of



Port Arthur by the Japanese would involve. Japan was in no position to resist the pressure brought to bear upon it. The southern part of Fengtien Province, including the peninsula, which Japan had acquired by treaty rights was returned to China.

#### Russian Diplomacy in Manchuria

Russia and France lost little time to present their claims. The diplomatic parleys conducted at both St. Petersburg and Peking resulted in the conclusion of the so-called "Cassini Convention" which was signed on June 3, 1896, by the Russian Foreign Minister and Li Hung-chang who had gone to Moscow to participate in the imperial coronation.

"Cassini Convention". This pact kept secret for years and only openly acknowledged by China at the Washington Conference of 1922 provided for a military alliance between China and Russia. It was agreed by this pact that should either of the signatories go to war with Japan, the other would aid with military forces and assure the supply of provisions. Another point of importance was that China, in order to facilitate the transport of Russian troops to places exposed to danger, agreed to let Russia construct a railway to Vladivostok by way of Heilungkiang and Kirin Provinces, with an additional understanding that the same railway might be used in time of peace for transportation of Russian troops and munitions.

**Chinese Eastern Railway.** Based on this treaty the Russo-Asiatic Bank was organized in August 1897 as the first step toward financing the proposed railway. By the detailed agreement between this bank and the Chinese authorities the Chinese Eastern Railway Company was created to undertake the construction of the railway, which was to shorten the Trans-Siberian railway by 568 miles.

It was agreed between the Russo-Asiatic Bank and the Chinese government that the lands required for construction, administration and defense of the railway should be provided free of charge, if officially owned, and bought by yearly payment, if privately owned, and that all these lands should be free of taxes and be at the disposal of the railway company for various uses of its own. Russia, for its part, promised to transfer to China without compensation the railway and all appertaining property 80 years

after the railway came into operation.

**Lease of Kwantung Province.** In November 1897 two German missionaries were murdered in Shantung and Germany which had so far hitherto failed to profit by "the generosity of China", as Britain or France had done, at once took possession of the Bay of Kiaochow. In the following month Russia sent its Far Eastern fleet, composed of nine warships, to winter in Port Arthur. This was done on the ostensible ground of the bay of Kiaochow being closed to the Russian fleet which had been wintering there each year. Japan and Britain were informed that the Russian fleet would be at Port Arthur only until some port should be obtained in Shantung Province. But Russia's true object was disclosed in March 1898 when it peremptorily demanded a lease of Port Arthur and the adjoining anchorage of Talienswan which was later to be developed into the port town of Dalny as called by the Russians.

China had no alternative but to acquiesce in the Russian demand. The Russian claim to compensation in compelling the retrocession of the Liaotung peninsula was recognized in the so-called Habrov pact that soon followed. By this agreement China conceded to Russia Port Arthur and Talienswan for a term of twenty-five years which on maturity was to be extended by mutual arrangement; and the exclusive right to fortify this area, closing Port Arthur to all shipping except for that of Russia and China. By the same agreement Russia also secured the right to build a railway from Talienswan northward to connect with the Chinese Eastern Railway in north Manchuria and to provide a neutral zone to the north of the leased area.

**Russian Sphere of Influence.** Around this time China at length decided to build railways with foreign capital and there ensued a keen competition among syndicates of different nationalities, each supported by its own government. In 1899 Britain raised an issue with Russia over the railway from Shanhaikwan to Neuchang. The Muraviev-Scott negotiations at St. Petersburg resulted in the agreement that Britain would present no railway claim north of the Great Wall, while Russia would do likewise with regard to the Yangtze valley, which included all the provinces bordering the great river, together with Chehkiang and Honan. By an additional exchange of notes Russia recognized the contract



that had been concluded between the Chinese government and the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation for construction of the Shanhaikwan-Neuchang railway.

**America's Open Door Policy.** In September 1899 the United States government initiated a correspondence with the European powers and Japan, with a view to establishing its claim to open door and equal opportunity in China. Britain gave a ready assent to the American proposal. Japan, Russia, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy conveyed their agreement by the end of the same year.

The American proposal of the open door policy aimed at the protection of its existing rights and interests in China and at trade free from unfair discrimination in special spheres of influence. Because, however, it embodied no conception of territorial integrity, the European powers were to go on with their aggressive plans as in the past.

While they were engrossed in furtherance of their own interests the reform movement, strongly supported by the intelligent class of Chinese society, and above all by the emperor himself, was fast gathering momentum. A succession of imperial edicts would have led to a revolution in 1898 but for the coup d'état carried out by the empress dowager and the conservatives that followed her. The reactionary tide set afoot continued to rise throughout the following year and gradually assumed the shape of anti-foreign agitations until in 1900 the Boxer trouble broke out to bring about far-reaching changes in the international situation as regards China.

#### Boxer Uprising and Manchuria

Soon after the Boxer movement opened hostilities against the foreigners in Peking and Tientsin, the Chinese government decided to place its soldiers in charge of the railways in Manchuria. In July the Tatar general in Heilungkiang Province demanded the evacuation of all Russians from Manchuria, under the false pretense of having received an imperial order to assume the offensive against the Russian troops. Forces under his command attacked the Russians at Blagovyeschensk. Russian reprisals were proportionately severe, 5,000 Chinese civilians—men, women and children—who were caught by the cossacks at Blagovyeschensk were flung into the Amur. In August the Russian forces had so advanced as

to capture the treaty port of Niuchwang. The Russians virtually overran the whole country, having stationed their forces on the pretext of railway protection, at places like Aigun, Tsitsihar, Harbin, Kirin, Mukden, Fushun, Liaoyang, Chinchow. There was no doubt that Russia was bent on seizing the opportunity for securing a permanent hold on Manchuria.

In face of this situation the British government whose attention was then chiefly engaged by the Boers trouble in Africa concluded an agreement with Germany in October 1900, with a view to prevention of further territorial expansion by any power in China. To this Russia, in common with other countries, gave its approval, although she kept her forces in Manchuria and, while the Powers' negotiations dragged on at Peking for the settlement of the Boxer trouble, Russian diplomats were in diplomatic conversations with Chinese officials at Mukden, Peking and St. Petersburg. In December 1900 a preliminary agreement was made between M. Korostovetz, the Russian administrator-general, and Tseng Chi, the Tatar general at Mukden, by which the civil and military administration of Manchuria was virtually placed under Russian control.

In February of the following year negotiations were opened at St. Petersburg between China and Russia for the conclusion of a convention of a still more comprehensive character. In return for the restoration of a certain measure of civil authority in Manchuria, Russia was to acquire exclusive civil, military and commercial rights, virtually reducing Manchuria to the status of a protectorate. This convention provoked strong opposition in foreign countries as well as among the Chinese themselves, Japan especially displaying her determination by taking strong action. In face of this situation Russia issued a circular note to the Powers in April, stating that, "as the generous intentions of Russia had been misconstrued," the proposed convention would be withdrawn.

Some five months later a peace protocol was signed in Peking in a form that satisfied all the powers that had taken part in the Boxer trouble. In accordance with the terms of the protocol all the foreign troops were withdrawn from Peking and Chihli. Russia removed her troops from this part of China only to consolidate her own position in Manchuria. Two months later (November 1901) the trans-Siberian railway was completed, with the excep-



tion of the part along Lake Baikal. Port Arthur and Talienwan were connected with the northern trunk line at Changehun. Construction of port and city at Talienwan progressed. The Manchu court which returned to Peking from the temporary capital at Sian at once ordered Li Hung-chang to open negotiations with Russia for the restoration of Manchuria, but Russia was firmly determined to hold her newly acquired ground. This situation was met by Japan on February 19th by conclusion of an alliance with Britain which was announced in February 1902.

**Russia's Unfulfilled Pledge.** Two months later Russia and France announced that their alliance would be extended to the Far East. But Britain, Japan and the United States lodged protests against the grant of exclusive rights to Russian subjects in Manchuria. Russia declared her intention to respect the commercial rights of other nations and on April 8, 1902, signed at Peking an agreement for withdrawal of her troops from Manchuria within 18 months from that date: from the southwestern part of Fengtien Province to the Liaohe river within six months; from the remaining part of Fengtien and from Kirin Province within the next months; and, lastly, from Heilungkiang Province before October 8, 1903. The first part of this agreement was carried out faithfully. But it was soon revealed that Russia was determined to keep her hold on Manchuria. She demanded a fourth secret convention with China in exchange for the evacuation of troops promised for the second period. Britain, Japan and the United States protesting, Russia dropped her demand but only shifted her troops from one base to another within the same zone. In April 1903 Russian troops crossed the northern border of Korea and took possession of Ryuganpo. An extensive tract of land was bought for the avowed reason of exploiting the timber resources of the Yalu. Minister Pavlov at Seoul demanded the concession of the land. In May her Far Eastern fleet which had been reinforced from European waters assembled and maneuvered around Port Arthur. Forts at Vladivostok carried out target practice. While these and other demonstrations were being made against Japan, General Kuropatkin, the Russian war minister, went about inspecting conditions in north Manchuria and the Maritime Province. In July he conferred at Port Arthur with the Russian ministers to China and Korea and the governor of Kwantung.

Meanwhile, the Japanese government on June 23 held a special meeting before the throne and decided on its policy toward Russia. On July 28, the Japanese minister at St. Petersburg was instructed to open negotiations with the Russian government concerning Manchuria and Korea. The main points of the terms Japan proposed as a basis for negotiations were maintenance of independence and territorial integrity of China and Korea, securing of equal opportunities in those countries for the commerce and industry of all nations, and recognition of Japan's special position in Korea. However, the Russian government, bent on the annexation of Manchuria, was not disposed to be responsive. Its first note of reply was not given before October 3, 1903, only five days before the day fixed for the complete evacuation of her troops from Manchuria under terms of the 1902 agreement. Through her sustained efforts to reach an amicable understanding, Japan was convinced that Russia would not yield her position in Korea or China except to force. In February of the following year Japan went to war with Russia.

#### Russo-Japanese War and Manchuria

It was characteristic of Chinese policy that the Peking government, upon the outbreak of hostilities between Russia and Japan, proposed to fight on the side of Japan, totally ignoring the "Cassini Convention" in force. Japan, however, advised China to remain out of Manchuria as a neutral, because China was not financially equipped to enter the war and also because her military activity was likely to develop into anti-foreign movements.

The Russo-Japanese war was mostly centered in South Manchuria, with the Liao river marking the border of the war zone. But when the American offer of mediation was accepted by the belligerents in June 1905, the Russians had been forced back to the northern side of the Shaho river. The terms of the Portsmouth treaty signed in September 1905 may be summarized as follows.

1. Russia recognized Japan's predominant position in Korea with regard to political, military and economic affairs; and her right or direction, protection and overseeing of Korea where deemed necessary.
2. Complete withdrawal of Russian and Japanese forces from Manchuria except where the lease of the Liaotung peninsular was



effective; and restoration of the area thus evacuated to the exclusive administration of China.

3. Russia pledged not to hold any special territorial rights or any exclusive concessions in Manchuria.

4. Russia transferred to Japan the lease of Port Arthur and Dalny (Talien) and their neighboring waters and all rights appurtenant thereto; the railway between Changchun and Port Arthur and all branch lines thereof; and all coal mines belonging to the same railway; the southern half (south of the 50th parallel) of Saghalien.

5. Japan and Russia for the protection of their railways in Manchuria each reserved the right of stationing soldiers along the lines of railway within the limit of 15 men for every kilometer.

#### Sino-Japanese Treaty Concerning Manchuria

In December of the same year (1905) Japan concluded with China a treaty concerning Manchuria on the basis of the Portsmouth treaty. This Sino-Japanese treaty which was later to be a basis for diplomatic negotiations on many issues in Manchuria may be summarized as follows:

1. China recognized the Russo-Japanese treaty of Portsmouth with regard to Manchuria. 2. China agreed to open to foreign trade and residence the following towns: Fengwang-cheng, Liaoyang, Sinmintun, Tiehling, Tungkiangtzu, Fakumen, Changchun, Kirin, Harbin, Ningkuta, Sansing, Tsitsihar, Hailar, Aigun, Manchuli. 3. China gave Japan the right to maintain and improve the military railway between Antung and Mukden which had been built during the war by the Japanese, and make it "fit" for the transport of the commercial and industrial goods of all nations. 4. China agreed not to construct any main line of railway in the neighborhood of, and parallel to, the South Manchuria Railway, or any branch line which might be "prejudicial to the interest of the above mentioned railway."

The war from which Japan had emerged victor brought to her but small reward in terms of material interests and privileges. But by the success of her arms Japan established the security of the Far East against western imperialism. She prepared the way for development of Manchuria, maintained the territorial integrity of China and preserved conditions for open door and equal op-

portunity in China. In consequence of this war Japan was brought into special relations with Manchuria. Japan's new position as leader of the Far East was forthwith recognized by countries interested in this part of the world: Britain's renewal of the alliance with Japan in August 1905; Franco-Japanese convention of June 1907; first Russo-Japanese convention of July of the same year; Japanese-American exchange of notes in November of the following year.

#### Japanese Enterprises in Manchuria

The first Japanese enterprises in Manchuria assumed shape in November 1906 when the South Manchuria Railway Company was organized on a semi-official basis, the Japanese Government contributing its share in the form of the railways and appurtenant rights and coal mines that had been taken over from Russia. In the same year the Kwantung Government was instituted for the administration of the leased province.

In July 1907 the first Russo-Japanese convention was concluded guaranteeing the territorial integrity of China and equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations in China. But China whose sovereignty and integrity Japan had defended at heavy cost began to oppose Japanese enterprise in China through her new movement for "recovery of national rights". The first instance of China's nationalist movement was seen in the contract given to a British concern in October 1907 for the construction of a railway between Fakumen and Sinmintun parallel with the existing line of the South Manchuria Railway. This contract, however, was abandoned by the British who found it contrary to the Japanese rights acquired by treaty.

In 1909 China's long delayed agreement was secured to Japan's proposal concerning Manchuria and Chientao, the latter being a long disputed area close to the Korean border. China promised not to construct the Fakumen-Sinmintun railway without Japanese understanding and agreed to recognize Japan's right of working the coal mines at Fushun and Yentai, to borrow half the capital required for the construction of the railway between Changchun and Kirin, and in addition, recognized Japan's right of building a bridge across the Yalu. Japan, for her part, agreed not to object to the extension of the Chinese railway to Mukden.



American interest in Manchuria was first evinced in the proposal made by the railway magnate Harriman for purchase of the railways under Japanese and Russian management. In December of the same year the American Secretary of State Knox put forth a plan for internationalization of the railways in Manchuria. This plan was abandoned, however, when both Japan and Russia were found equally opposed.

**Second Russo-Japanese Convention.** This abortive attempt at development of American and other foreign interests in Manchuria had the result of bringing Japan and Russia closer together. Russia had as much reason as Japan for keeping her enterprises in Manchuria free from foreign interference. Moreover, the power politics in Europe were claiming her attention to an increasing degree. In July 1910 the second Russo-Japanese convention was concluded assuring their respective positions with regard to Chinese integrity and friendly mutual cooperation in management of the railways that the signatories owned in Manchuria. The Russian and Japanese governments also agreed mutually to respect their rights and interests in Korea, north and south Manchuria and Outer Mongolia as defined in the secret convention that had been signed in July 1907. The Russo-Japanese convention of 1910 was soon followed by Japan's annexation of Korea and the expansion of Russian influence in Outer Mongolia.

#### Manchuria Under the Republican Regime

In 1907 Manchuria was divided in three administrative units which were called the Three Eastern Provinces and a series of administrative reforms were attempted as in China proper. But, meanwhile, the revolutionary movement had been gathering momentum. Upon its outbreak in 1911 Governor Chao of the Three Eastern Provinces had to call on Chang Tso-lin who held a high military post at Taonan at the time to subdue the uprisings. Chang Tso-lin of obscure origin who had arisen from the ranks of "mounted marauders of the green woods" had been forging his way to the fore. He had by the end of the Manchu dynasty become a military factor of so much importance that he was appointed commander of the 17th army division at Mukden when the republican regime was set up at Nanking in 1912 and its rule was extended to Manchuria.

**Independence of Outer Mongolia.** Following the revolutionary outbreak the whole country was thrown into turmoil. It seemed that China was on the verge of total collapse. The powers who were bent on extending their influence in China almost scrambled for spoils. The so-called policy of conquest by railroads and banks was pushed on in many directions.

In the first year of the republican regime Russia concluded a treaty with the Living Buddha of Kulun pledging her help in achievement of the independence of Outer Mongolia in return for the grant of special commercial privileges for Russians in Mongolia. In 1913 Russia secured Nanking's agreement to the autonomy of four provinces in Outer Mongolia under the suzerainty of China. When this arrangement was confirmed in the Russo-Chinese treaty signed in June 1915, Outer Mongolia passed almost completely under Russian influence.

**Japanese Contracts for 5 Railways.** Meanwhile, Japan had become increasingly uncertain of her own position in Manchuria, especially with regard to her vested interests which were seen to be not immune from foreign encroachment if any third country was to work in collaboration with Peking or Nanking statesmen. The need was felt of bolstering her position in Manchuria which had become an important factor in maintenance of peace in the Far East, even a vital factor in the security of Japan. On October 5, 1913, by an exchange of notes the Chinese government under President Yuan Shih-kai made an agreement relating to cooperation with Japan with particular reference to loans for constructing five railways in Manchuria and Inner Mongolia. These railways were:

Ssupingkai to Taonan, with a branch line to Paiyintala; Kaiyuan to Hailungcheng; Changchun to Taonan; Taonan to Jehol; Kirin to Hailungcheng.

Construction work on the line from Ssupingkai, via Chengchiatun, to Taonan was commenced in April 1917 by the Chinese government with funds furnished by the South Railway Company and a loan floated by the Yokohama Specie Bank.

#### Peking Treaty of 1915

By the terms of the Anglo-Japanese alliance Japan was brought into the World War in August 1914. The German forces



at Tsingtao surrendered on November 7. But China demanded the withdrawal of the Japanese army from the German railway between Tsingtao and Tsinan. When China unilaterally proclaimed the revocation of the war zone in January 1915, Japan decided to meet the new situation by diplomatic negotiations with the Chinese government. Consequently, negotiations were opened on January 18, 1915, at Peking and the "Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia" was signed on May 25, and by exchanges of notes between the signatories, the Chinese government agreed to the following conditions:

1. Extension of the term of lease of Port Arthur and Dairen and the term of the South Manchuria Railway and the Antung-Mukden Railway to 99 years.

2. Permission for Japanese to lease lands and to enter, travel, and reside in South Manchuria for trade, manufacture and agriculture.

3. Opening of additional towns in Eastern Inner Mongolia to international trade.

4. Recognition of joint enterprises of Japanese and Chinese in agricultural and auxiliary industries in Eastern Inner Mongolia.

5. To call first on Japanese capital, if China should propose to build railways in Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia through foreign loans or to raise foreign loans by mortgage of the taxes in these regions.

6. Opening of 9 mining areas in Manchuria to Japanese enterprise.

7. Preference to be given to Japanese in case China should employ foreign advisers or instructors in political, financial, military and police matters in South Manchuria.

8. To revise the Kirin-Changchun Railway Agreement according to the most-favored nation agreements concluded or to be concluded with other nationals.

These conditions, composed of 21 articles, were commonly known as Japan's Twenty-One Demands among those who would place an aggressive construction thereon.

**Effects of Political Changes on Manchuria.** The years 1915-6 saw rises and falls of political fortunes in China with varying repercussions on Manchuria. When Yuan Shih-kai failed in April

1916 to set up an imperial regime his henchman posted as the General of Mukden was replaced by Chang Tso-lin virtually as military commander of Manchuria. At Peking the retirement of Yuan Shih-kai was followed by the abortive attempt of Chang Hsun to restore the Manchu boy emperor and the consequent flight of President Li Yuanhung from the capital. In his place Feng Kuo-chang assumed office as president and Tuan Chi-jui returned to power as premier for the second time. During his premiership Chang Tso-lin as Military Inspector-General of the Three Eastern Provinces went on laying the foundation for his power in Manchuria.

Following the revolutionary outbreak in Russia in May 1918, Japan and China concluded a military agreement against the eastward extension of hostilities. Japan loaned to China ¥20 million for military expenditure. In the period 1916-8 Japan under the Terauchi Ministry loaned a total of ¥177 million to China for political and industrial purposes. These advances popularly known at the time as the "Nishihara loans" included ¥40 million for railway construction and maintenance in Manchuria and Inner Mongolia. The railway loan agreement signed in September 1918 related to the construction of the following four lines of railway:

From Kirin to Kaiyuan via Hailungheng, 230 miles; from Changchun to Taonan, 180 miles; from Taonan to Jehol, 470 miles; from a point on the Taonan-Jehol line to the seacoast, 220 miles.

These lines altogether covering more than one thousand miles were to cost more than ¥75 million, of which the Japanese banking syndicate advanced ¥20 million. By another railway loan agreement signed in June 1918 the Kirin-Huining (Kainei) line was to be constructed with funds from a Japanese financial group, an advance of ¥10 million being advanced on the signing of the same agreement. This line was to have connected the Kirin-Changchun railway with the Chosen (Korean) railway at Huining in Korea. However, these contemplated railways failed to be realized with the only exception of the line between Ssuping kai and Taonan.

#### Manchuria in the Post-War Period

Through the year following the armistice in Europe China remained in turbulent conditions. The rising Anhui faction in July 1920 came into armed conflict with the Chihli group. General



Chang Tso-lin who had raised issues with the former faction in Inner Mongolia led an expedition across the Great Wall under the pretence of offering mediation and, instead, took sides with the Chihli against the Anchi forces which were defeated. Through the success of his arms Chang Tso-lin now extended his domain to Inner Mongolia.

**Washington Conference and Nine-Power Treaty.** At the conference held at Washington in November 1921—February 1922 for naval limitation and adjustment of Pacific and Far Eastern questions, Japan on whom Anglo-American pressure was brought to bear yielded her reserved rights of making loans for railway construction in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia and of raising loans by mortgage of the taxes in those regions. These rights were transferred to the Four-Power Consortium organized in 1919. Japan also renounced her former agreement concerning the employment of Japanese advisers and instructors in political, financial, military, and police matters in South Manchuria.

In addition, Japan gave her approval to the four basic principles presented by the United States assuring full respect for China's sovereignty, territorial and administrative integrity; affording China full opportunity until she should develop a strong and firm form of government; making effective the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations in all parts of China; and pledging not to secure any exclusive rights prejudicial to the rights of other friendly nations in China. Japan also signed an international agreement concerning the reform of the Chinese customs, abolition of extraterritoriality and consular jurisdiction, restoration of foreign concessions, abolition of foreign postal service, withdrawal of foreign garrisons, purchase of foreign wireless stations in China, etc. Finally, Japan became party to the so-called Nine-Power Treaty agreeing not to conclude any treaty or convention contradictory of the four basic principles mentioned before or prejudicial to the principle of equal commercial and industrial opportunity for all nations in China. The treaty also provided that the signatories should not demand any exclusive or preferential rights in China for economic development or enterprise.

It was evident that the Washington conferences were mainly directed to the end of curbing Japanese expansion on the Asiatic

mainland. It aimed at the maintenance of the status quo in the Pacific area, placing restrictions on the naval power of Japan as an effective means to the end. The facile belief that prevailed in these international councils was that China would develop as a self-governing, orderly state once foreign influences were withdrawn. The treaty was harmful in giving China an impression that Japan would yield to any extent if the United States brought pressure to bear upon her. Japan herself failed at Washington to stress her own position as the most important factor in the maintenance of peace in the Far East. All these mistakes sowed seeds of trouble.

#### Mukden-Chihli Wars and Independence of Manchuria

Meanwhile, storm had been brewing in North China. In the month following the conclusion of the Nine-Power pact at Washington, General Chang Tso-lin sent his troops into Chihli against the armies of Tsao Kun and Wu Pei-fu. The Mukden army was repulsed. But Chang Tso-lin declared the independence of the Three Eastern Provinces. From that time onward Manchuria broke off with the Peking government. However, as the Chihli faction rose to power in North China, its relations with Mukden grew worse until in September of the same year the second clash took place around Shanhaikwan. The Chihli forces were routed when they were unexpectedly attacked from the rear by the troops swooping down from Jehol under the leadership of Feng Yu-hsiang, the "Christian General", who had no love to lose with Wu Pei-fu. From the closing part of 1926 to the beginning of the following year Chang Tso-lin remained at Peking steadily extending his influence over North China, Manchuria and Mongolia.

**After Chang Tso-lin's Death.** In 1928 Chang Tso-lin took the field against the combined forces of Feng Yu-hsiang, Chiang Kai-shek and Yen Hsi-shan and met with reverses. While he was hastening back to his old stronghold at Mukden he was killed. His son, Chang Hsueh-liang, despite Japan's advice to confine his attention to Manchuria, subordinated himself to the Nationalist regime of Nanking. His policy toward Japan took color of the anti-foreign movement which was encouraged and directed by Nanking statesmen. The anti-foreign agitations that were bad enough in 1927 became even worse in the following year. These agitations



continued parallel with the movement for the recovery of national rights. In 1928 Japan became the chief object of Chinese boycotts and agitations of other nature.

**Anti-Japanese Policy in Manchuria.** Chang Hsueh-liang's anti-Japanese policy was laid down along definite lines toward the close of the year 1930 after his visit to Nanking. Chiang Kai-shek invited him there when all the powerful warlords in North China had been disposed of, with the young Marshal of Mukden playing an important role in its final settlement. Chang Hsueh-liang at Nanking agreed to turn over all foreign affairs to the direction of the Nationalist government which was now ready to pursue its policy of undermining all Japanese interests in Manchuria and Inner Mongolia.

The policy of starving out the South Manchuria Railway by building new parallel lines, the policy initiated by the Mukden authorities in 1927, was intensified. The railway between Hailung and Mukden to which Japan had agreed as a feeder to the South Manchuria Railway was charged with transportation of Manchurian produce directly to Chinhwangtao and Tientsin. The railway between Hailung and Kirin, despite Japanese protests, was completed in 1929 through the area lying between the South Manchuria Railway and Korea.

On the western side, the South Manchuria Railway found a strong competitor in the Ta-Tung line which was built by extension to Tungliao of the line between Tahushan, on the Peking-Mukden line, and Pataohao coal mine. The traffic carried by the Taonan-Anganchi and Ssupinkai-Taonan lines were directed to the Ta-Tung line and thence to the Peking-Mukden Railway. The Taonan-Anganchi and Kirin-Tunhua lines, both constructed by the South Manchuria Railway Company under contracts with the Chinese authorities, were never paid for. Loan service on the Taonan-Ssupinkai railway was defaulted.

A comprehensive system of railways having been completed to compete against the South Manchuria Railway, China in 1930 commenced the construction of harbor at Hulutao, the obvious object being diversion of traffic from the port of Dairen. The port facilities at Yinkow were also improved to the same end. The effect of these economic policies systematically directed against the Japanese railways was seen in their declining revenue.

**Japanese Subjects Imperilled.** In 1930 the anti-Japanese movement assumed the most malicious aspects. The Japanese in Fengtien Province were robbed of the right of owning land and houses. Japanese goods were not only boycotted but even confiscated at times and otherwise excluded from the markets. In 1931 an official transport organization was created to concentrate all agricultural produce in its hands. The mining of coal at Fushun was protested against. From the railway workshops at Liao-yang goods were carried off under false pretences.

The Korean farm settlers were subjected to even worse forms of official persecution. Their rice fields were confiscated at many places. Women were carried away by force. The schools compelled to close were more than 120 in number. Near Fushun more than 300 farmers were fired upon by Chinese soldiers. In 1931 what was known as the Wanpaoshan incident occurred when Chinese mobs, directed by Chinese officials, assaulted the Korean colony. At Anganchi Japanese military officers were murdered. On September 13 regular Chinese soldiers fired on Japanese patrols near Kuehiatzu on the Fushun railway. It was evident that the Japanese now had no alternative but to defend themselves and their interest unless they were to abandon all their rights and withdraw from Manchuria. The temper of the Chinese agitations left Japan no longer in doubt as to the course she should take. The protection of their rights and interests acquired by treaties and the security of their position in Manchuria won in consequence of the life or death struggle with Russia, and their responsibility as the only stabilizing factor in Far Eastern peace at length called for supreme decisions which were taken on the night of September 18, 1931, the night of historic importance, which saw the downfall of Chinese influence in Manchuria.

## CHRONOLOGY

of

### IMPORTANT EVENTS

- 1616 Establishment of Ching dynasty.
- 1643 Russian exploring party reaches the upper stream of the Amur.
- 1644 Accession of the Emperor Kanghsi at Peking.
- 1655 Russia sends her first envoy to Peking.



- 1689 "Treaty of Nertchinsk" concluded, fixing the border between Russia and China as a line drawn from the Amur River along the Yablonoï and Stanovoi ranges, north-eastward to the Sea of Okhotsk.
- 1691 The Emperor Kanghsi inspects outer Mongolia.
- 1707 Kamchatka becomes Russian territory.
- 1720 Trading at Kulun is first allowed to Russians.
- 1722 Accession of the Emperor Yungcheng.
- 1736 Accession of the Emperor Chienlung.
- 1740 Immigration of Chinese into Manchuria prohibited.
- 1750 Immigration of Chinese again prohibited.
- 1768 Russians come to Kiakhta for trading.
- 1796 Accession of Emperor Chiayang.
- 1821 Accession of Emperor Taokuang.
- 1842 "Treaty of Nanking," (ending the 'Opium War').
- 1847 Count Muraviev appointed Governor-General of Eastern Siberia.
- 1850-64 Taiping Rebellion.
- 1851 Accession of the Emperor Hsienfeng.
- 1854 Count Muraviev descends the Amur River with one thousand soldiers, without obtaining the permission of China.
- 1856 Great Britain and France declare war against China.
- 1858 The "Treaty of Aigun" signed between Russia and China (May 16/28), recognizing the left bank of the Amur River as Russian, and the territory between the right bank of the Ussuri River and the sea as common territory between the two countries.
- "Tientsin Treaty" concluded between Russia and China (June 13).
- "Tientsin Treaty" between Great Britain and China signed (June 26).
- 1860 British and French troops enter Peking.
- "By 'Peking Treaty' (Nov. 2/14), Russia acquires the territory on the right bank of the Ussuri River.
- 1894-95 Sino-Japanese War.
- 1895 "Treaty of Shimonoseki" concluded between Japan and China (April 17).
- "By intervention of Russia, Germany and France (April 23), Japan obliged to announce retrocession of Liaotung peninsula (July 19).
- "Russo-Chinese Bank established with a capital of 15,000,000 rubles (Dec. 28).
- 1896 Treaty of Alliance between Russia and China ("Li-Lobanov Agreement"). (May 22).
- "Contract for Construction and Operation of Chinese Eastern Railway" signed (Sept. 8), Russia obtains the right of constructing the C.E.R. through Kirin and Heilungkiang Provinces to connect Chita and Vladivostok by a nearly straight railway line.
- "Chinese Eastern Railway Company is established (Dec. 16).
- 1898 Germany acquires the lease of Kiaochow (March 6).
- Russia obtains twenty-five years' lease of Liaotung peninsula (March 27).

- 1898 "Preliminary Loan Agreement for Peking-Newchwang Railway" signed by Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation and China (June 7).
- "Great Britain acquires lease of Weihaiwei (July 1).
- "By the "Agreement concerning Southern Branch of Chinese Eastern Railway" Russia obtains the right to construct a railway which connects the C.E.R. to Liaotung peninsula (July 6). (Construction completed in 1902).
- "Shanhaikwan-Newchwang Railway Loan Agreement" signed by British and Chinese Corporation, Ltd. and China (Oct. 10).
- 1899 Russia and Great Britain exchange "Notes regarding Railway Interests in China" (April 28).
- "Exchange of "Notes between Russia and China with regard to Railways Northward and North-eastward from Peking" (June 17).
- "By an Imperial order Russia announces to create Dalny a free port (August 11).
- "John Hay proposes 'Open Door' in China (Sept.-Nov.).
- 1900 The Boxer Rebellion.
- 1902 Agreement relating to China and Korea reached between Japan and Great Britain (Jan. 30) ("First Anglo-Japanese Alliance").
- "Convention between Russia and China in regard to Manchuria signed (April 8).
- "Re-establishment of Chinese authority in Manchuria and evacuation of Manchuria by Russia agreed. (Russia fails, however, to carry out her promise).
- "Second Anglo-Japanese Alliance concluded (Aug. 12).
- 1904-5 Russo-Japanese War.
- 1905 "Treaty of Portsmouth" concluded between Japan and Russia (Sept. 5).
- (By the Treaty, (1) China's sovereignty in Manchuria was recognized, Russia transferred to Japan, with the consent of China, the lease of Port Arthur, Dairen, and adjacent territory and territory waters, together with all rights, privileges, and concession with or forming part of this lease; (2) Russia transferred to Japan the railway between Changchun and Port Arthur and its branch lines, together with all rights, privileges and properties appertaining thereto.)
- "Japan concluded the "Treaty of Peking" with China in conformity with the terms of the Portsmouth Treaty (Dec. 22), and obtains the consent of China to the transfer by Russia of the lease, privileges, and properties mentioned in the Treaty of Portsmouth, and also the right of maintaining, improving and operating the railway line between Mukden and Antung, which was constructed by Japan during the war.
- "E. H. Harriman proposes to purchase the South Manchuria Railway, but the proposal was rejected by Japan.
- 1906 By an Imperial Ordinance the Organization of the South Manchuria Railway Company proclaimed (June 7).
- "Japan announces the organization of the Kwantung Government-General in the Kwantung Leased Territory (July).



- 1907 "Loan agreement regarding Mukden-Hsinmintun and Changchun-Kirin Railways" concluded between Japan and China (April 15).
- " "Agreement regarding Establishment of Maritime Customs Office at Dairen" signed by Japan and China (May 30).
- " "Political Convention" between Japan and Russia concluded (July 30).
- " Question of 'parallel line' arises regarding China's proposal to build Hsinmintun-Fakumen Railway in co-operation with a British firm of contractors, Pauling & Co. Japan twice protests on the ground that the project contradicts the 'protocol' attached to the Peking Treaty of 1905. (The matter dragged on till 1909, when China dropped the scheme).
- " The United States attempts to acquire the right to establish a Manchurian Bank with a capital of \$10,000,000, with view to financing the railway, connecting Hsinmintun and Aigun. The project, however, fails owing to political changes in China.
- 1908 Agreement reached between Great Britain and China in regard to Shanhaikwan-Hsinmintun section of Peking-Mukden Railway (March 25).
- " "Regulations for Sino-Japanese Joint Stock Lumber Company for Exploitation of Yalu Timber" announced. (Sept. 11).
- " "Supplementary Loan Agreement for Hsinmintun-Mukden and Kirin-Changchun Railways" signed (Nov. 12).
- " "Exchange of Notes declaring Policy in Far East." (So-called "Takahira-Root Agreement") (Nov. 30).
- 1909 Russia and China sign "Preliminary Agreement in regard to Municipal Administration in the C.E.R. Zone" (May 10).
- " "Detailed Agreement regarding Loans for Hsinmintun-Mukden and Changchun-Kirin Railways signed (Aug. 18).
- " Japan and China conclude the "Agreement concerning Mines and Railways in Manchuria," and "Agreement relating to Chientao Region." (Sept. 4). (By the former agreement it was decided that China should previously arrange with Japan in the event of her undertaking to contract a railway between Hsinmintun and Fakumen, that China should recognize the Tashichiao-Yingkow line as a branch line of the S.M.R., that China should recognize the right of Japan to work coal mines of Fushun and Yentai, that all mines along the Antung-Mukden Railway and the main line of the S.M.R., excepting those at Fushun and Yentai, should be exploited as joint enterprises of the Japanese and Chinese, and that Japan should agree to the extension of the Peking-Mukden Railway to the city wall of Mukden. And by the latter agreement the long disputed boundaries between China and Korea was fixed along the Tumen River, and Koreans were given the right to settle freely and own land in the Chientao district.
- " "Preliminary Agreement for Chinchow-Aigun Railway" signed between Pauling & Co. of Great Britain, American group of financiers, and the Chinese Government. (Oct. 2). (Russia opposed the plan and Japan claimed participation. The question was submitted ultimately to the

- New Four-Power Consortium by America).
- " Secretary Knox of the United States proposes to internationalize the railways in Manchuria. (Dec. 4) (Russia and Japan opposing the scheme, sent their replies simultaneously to the United States, rejecting the proposal).
- 1910 "Second Russo-Japanese Convention" concluded (July 4) in view of protecting their common interests in Manchuria against a third Power.
- " Amalgamation of Korea and Japan (Aug. 29).
- " By a preliminary agreement the United States acquires right to loan for currency reform and industrial development in China.
- 1911 "Chinese Currency Reform and Industrial Development Loan Agreement" signed by China and Four Powers' Consortium (April 15), the United States agreeing to give up the right, which she acquired in the preceding year, to the Consortium.
- " Third Anglo-Japanese Alliance concluded (July 13).
- 1911-12 Revolution in China, the Manchu dynasty overthrown and China becomes a Republic.
- 1912 Yuan Shi-kai proclaimed President of China.
- " "Russo-Mongolian Agreement" signed (Nov. 3).
- 1913 Japan and China exchange "Notes regarding Construction of certain Railways in Manchuria" (Oct. 5), and in consequence, Japan acquires the right to loan for the construction of five railways, namely (1) Ssu-ping-kai-Chengchiatun-Taonan, (2) Kaiyuan-Hailung, (3) Changchun-Taonan (4) Taonan-Jehol, and (5) Hailung-Kirin lines. For the first three railways China is to ask loan from Japan and for the last two she is to consult Japanese financiers first.
- " Russia and China issue "Declaration in regard to Outer Mongolia" (Nov. 5).
- 1914-1918 The Great War.
- 1915 "Treaty, and Exchange of Notes, respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia" (May 25). (By this Treaty the term of lease of Port Arthur and Dalny and the terms of the S.M.R. and Antung-Mukden Railway were extended to 99 years, namely, the definite time for the expiration of the terms of lease became 1997 for the Kwantung Leased Territory, 2002 for the S.M.R. and 2007 for the Antung-Mukden Railway. Secondly, the Japanese acquired right to lease land by negotiation in South Manchuria. Thirdly, the Japanese acquired rights to reside and travel freely in South Manchuria and to engage in business and manufacture of any kind, and fourthly the Chinese government agreed to give permission to Japanese and Chinese who desire to undertake agricultural enterprises jointly).
- " Russia, China and Mongolia sign "Tripartite Agreement regarding Outer Mongolia (June 7).
- " Russia and China conclude "Arrangement concerning Situation of Hulunbair (Hailar) (Nov. 6), Russian position in North Manchuria strengthened.
- " Yokohama Specie Bank and China conclude "Loan Agreement for



- Ssupingkai-Chengchiatun Railway (Dec. 27):
- 1916 Chang To-lin becomes Military and Civil Governor of Fengtien Province.
- .. Yuan Shih-kai attempts to restore monarchy.
- .. "Convention in regard to Co-operation in the Far East" concluded between Japan and Russia (July 3).
- .. Chengchiatun Incident.
- 1917 Japan and China exchange "Notes regarding Settlement of Chengchiatun Affair, Employment of Japanese Military Advisers and Instructors, Establishment of Japanese Police Stations in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, and withdrawal of Japanese Troops from between Ssupingkai and Chengchiatun (Jan. 28).
- .. South Manchuria Railway Co. and China sign "Agreement for Kirin-Changchun Railway Loan" (Oct. 12).
- .. Japan and the United States exchange "Identical Notes regarding Mutual Interests relating to China (Ishii-Lansing Agreement)" (Nov. 2), the principle that 'territorial propinquity creates special relations between countries' accepted.
- 1918 "Preliminary Agreement for Kirin-Kainei Railway Loan" concluded between Japanese banks and China (June 18).
- .. "Agreement for Loan for Gold Mining and Forestry in Heilungkiang and Kirin" signed by Japanese banks and China (Aug. 2).
- .. Japan and China exchange "Notes regarding Four Railways in Manchuria and Mongolia" (Sept. 24).
- .. "Contract for Loan for Four Railways in Manchuria and Mongolia" signed by Japanese banks and China (Sept. 28).
- 1918-22 Allied intervention in Siberia.
- 1919 Imperial Ordinance of Japan regarding the Organization of the Government of Kwantung issued (April 12).
- .. Karakhan issues Soviet "Declaration to the Chinese Nation and the Governments of the Southern and Northern China" (July 25).
- 1920 The New Consortium formed (Oct. 15).
- .. "Second Soviet Declaration on policy towards China" (Oct. 27).
- 1921-22 Washington Conference.
- 1922 First Mukden-Chihli War. Declaration of independence of the Three Eastern Provinces.
- .. Japanese delegate to the Washington Conference announces that Japanese capital, which has had the monopoly of loans for construction of railways in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia and of loans having for security the taxes in that region, is willing to forego this monopoly and open the field to the enterprise of the International Financial Consortium, and that Japan has no intention of insisting on a preferential right in the engagement of foreign advisers or instructors by China on political, financial, military, or police matters in South Manchuria (Feb. 2).
- .. "Nine Power Treaty regarding to Principles and Policies to be followed in matters concerning China" signed (Feb. 6).

- Principle of 'Open Door' affirmed formally by the treaty, and the Powers other than China agree: (1) To respect the sovereignty, the independence, and the territorial and administrative integrity in China; (2) To provide the fullest and unembarrassed opportunity to China to develop and maintain for herself an effective and stable government; (3) To use their influence for the purpose of effectually establishing and maintaining the principle of equal opportunity; and (4) To refrain from taking advantage of conditions in China in order to seek special rights or privileges.
- 1923 China requests nullification of the Treaty of 1915, but Japan refuses. (March 10).
- .. Japan and the United States exchange "Note in regard to Cancellation of Ishii-Lansing Agreement" (April 14).
- 1924 "Agreement on General Principles for the Settlement of the Question between the U.S.S.R. and the Republic of China" signed (May 31).
- .. "Agreement for the Provisional Management of the Chinese Eastern Railway" signed (May 31).
- .. Agreement between the Government of the Autonomous Three Eastern Provinces of the Republic of China and the Government of the U.S.S.R., concerning Mutual Rights and Principles" signed at Mukden (Sept. 20). The main features of this Agreement are as follows:
- (1) The Soviet Union recognizes that the C.E.R. is a purely commercial enterprise, (2) In the management of the Railway, the two countries are equally represented, (3) After the expiration of sixty years from August 27, 1896, instead of eighty years, as formerly provided, the railway shall pass by reversion without payment into Chinese possession. China may recover the railway at any time upon paying, with her own capital, the price agreed upon by the two governments. (4) Both parties agree that the future of the C.E.R. shall be determined by the U.S.S.R. and China to the exclusion of any third party or parties. (5) The two governments recognize equal rights of navigation on border rivers, and maintenance of the present border line, and also agree not to engage in propaganda directed against the political and social systems of the other contracting party.
- .. Second Mukden-Chihli War.
- .. Commander-in-Chief of Kwantung Army issues a statement on the attitude of Japanese military authorities in Manchuria in regard to maintenance of peace and order in that region, (Oct. 30).
- 1925 Third Mukden-Chihli War.
- .. Contract for construction of Kirin-Tunhua Railway concluded between the S.M.R. Co. and China, (Oct. 24).
- .. Revolt of Kuo Sung-ling (Nov.-Dec.).
- .. Japan issues announcement on her attitude towards political disturbances caused by the revolt of Kuo Sung-ling, (Dec.).
- 1926 Mukden Forces enter Peking (June).
- .. Hulan-Hailun Railway partly completed (July).
- .. Taonan-Angangki Railway partly opened to traffic (July).



- „ Chiang Kai-shek, Commander-in-Chief of the Nationalist Army issues declaration of 'Northern Expedition' (July 9).
- „ Peking Government demands recall of Soviet Ambassador (Aug. 30).
- „ Chang Tso-lin appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Ankuochun (Dec. 1) and enters Peking (Dec. 27).
- 1926-28 The National Revolution.
- 1927 Nanking occupied by Nationalist Forces (March).
- „ Raid of Soviet Embassy at Peking (April 6).
- „ Contract for construction of Kirin-Tunhwa Railway revised (May 20).
- „ Contract for construction of Taonan-Solun Railway concluded between Japan and Peking government (May 20).
- „ Chang Tso-lin appoints himself Grand Marshal (June 18).
- „ Japan despatches troops to Shantung (June-July).
- „ Mukden-Hailung (Chaoyangchen) Railway completed (Sept.).
- „ Tahushan-Tungliao Railway completed (Oct.).
- 1928 Clash between Japanese and Chinese troops at Tsinan (May).
- „ Contract on construction of four railways, namely: Yenchi-Hailin Tunhwa-Laotoukuo, Laotoukuo-Tumen and Changchun-Talai concluded between Japan and Peking Government (May 13-15).
- „ Japan sends note to Chinese generals and announces her intention to take, if necessary, 'appropriate, effective steps for the maintenance of peace and order in Manchuria' (May 18).
- „ Chang Tso-lin retreats from Peking and meets an unexpected death (June 4). Chang Hsueh-liang succeeds his father.
- „ Construction of Kirin-Tunhwa Railway completed (Aug.).
- „ Independence movement in Barga (Sept.-Oct.).
- „ Construction of Hulan-Hailun Railway completed (Dec.).
- „ Mukden Government orders the Three Eastern Provinces to hoist Nationalist flag (Dec. 29).
- 1929 North-Eastern Political Committee formed, and the Three Eastern Provinces become formally under the authority of Nanking (Jan. 9).
- „ Fengtien province renamed Liaoning province (Feb. 5).
- „ Kirin-Hailung (Chaoyangchen) Railway completed (May).
- „ Sino-Soviet conflict over Chinese Eastern Railway (May-Dec.).
- „ Chinese raid on the Russian consulates at Harbin (May 27).
- „ Chinese arrest the Russian manager of the C.E.R. and others (July 10).
- „ Reminder sent to the U.S.S.R. and China about the Kellogg Pact (Dec.).
- „ Khabarovsk Protocol signed (Dec. 22) re-establishing the 'status quo ante' on the Chinese Eastern Railway.
- 1930 Sino-Soviet conference on the C.E.R. affairs.
- „ War between Yen Hsi-shan and Chiang Kai-shek (Feb.-Sept.).
- „ "Sino-Japanese Customs Tariff Agreement" signed (May 6).
- „ Chang Hsueh-liang intervenes between the Northern Army under Yen Hsi-shan and Feng Yu-hsiang, and National Government (Sept. 18).
- „ The Mukden troops enter Peking (Sept. 21).

- 1931 Clash between Japanese and Chinese soldiers at Liukinokou, and Japanese troops occupy Mukden and Kuanchengtzu. China appeals to the League of Nations for mediation of the Manchurian Incident (Sept.) Chief Secretary Drummond advises Japan and China not to enlarge the situation. The Council of the League of Nations decides to invite observers. Nanking Government demands Japan to evacuate the troops from Manchuria (Oct.) Clash between Japanese and Chinese Armies at Nanking. Briand, Chairman of the League Council, advises Japan and China to stop the disputes. Japanese Army enters Tsitsihar. Nanking Government demand Japan again to evacuate her troops (Nov.) Tsang Shih-Yi appointed Mayor Mukden. Heilungkiang Province declares independence (Dec.).
- 1932 Japanese troops enter Chinchow. New Heilungkiang Provincial Government established. Chang Hai-peng plans to establish a new independent state in Manchuria (Jan.) Japanese Army attacks the Ting Chao troops and enters Harbin.
- The League Commission of Inquiry arrives at Tokyo (Feb.) Proclamation of Independence of Manchoukuo. Pu Yi appointed Chief Executive of Manchoukuo. Changchun made capital of Manchoukuo and name is changed to Hsinking (Mar.) Declaration of Customs Tariff Autonomy of Manchoukuo (June). Ting Chien-hsiu visits Japan as special envoy of Manchoukuo. Ma Chan-shan defeated and escapes (July). General Muto, Japanese Ambassador and Envoy Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo arrives at Mukden (Aug.) Japanese recognition of Manchoukuo. Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed. The Lytton Report released. Japanese Army enters Tunghua (Oct.) Japanese Army enters Chalantun (Nov.) Japanese Embassy located at Hsinking.
- 1933 Manchoukuo protests against Chang Hsueh-liang. Chinese Government issues a project against Japan on the Shanhaikwan Incident (Jan.) Japan-Manchoukuo Army makes expedition to Jehol. Japanese Army occupies Chaoyang (Feb.) Japanese Army occupies Chihfeng and Lingyuan, Luanping and Kupehkou (Mar.) Japan-Manchoukuo Agreement on Leasehold Privileges signed. The Investigation of Manchoukuo Constitutional Law begins. China charges high rate tax on the goods imported from Manchoukuo. Ambassador Muto dies. Manchoukuo's New Currency system (M¥) adopted. (July). The Anniversary of founding of Manchoukuo celebrated (Sept.). Shanhaikwan incorporated in Manchoukuo formally (Nov.).
- 1934 The Imperial Regime adopted. Chang Hsueh-liang appointed Commander of Bandits Suppression Army of Honan, Hupei and Anwei Provinces (Jan.). Pu Yi rises to the throne of the Emperor of Manchoukuo. New Organization Law of Government issued (Mar.). General Hishikari appointed second Japanese Ambassador to Manchoukuo. Pope recognizes Manchoukuo. The Orchid Flower decided upon as the Imperial Crest of Manchoukuo (Apr.). Recognition of Manchoukuo by Salvador (May). H.I.H. Prince Chichibu as Imperial proxy visits Manchoukuo carrying message to the Emperor of Manchoukuo from



the Emperor of Japan.

The negotiation for purchasing the Chinese Eastern Railway reaches a deadlock. The Manchoukuo customs house at Kupehkou opened (July). Russo-Manchoukuo Water Routes Agreement signed (Sept.). Manchoukuo Local Administration system proclaimed. Japanese Administrative Organ in Manchoukuo established (Oct.). General Minami appointed Commander of Kwantung Army. The Circulation of Hsien Tayuan prohibited (Dec.).

1935 The postal routes between Manchoukuo and China reopened (Jan.). Japan-Manchoukuo Customs Tariff Agreement signed (Feb.). Convention for Purchasing the Chinese Eastern Railway signed (Mar.). H.I.H. the Emperor of Manchoukuo visits Japan. State Monopoly Petroleum Law issued. The Message of friendship from the president of Dominican Republic arrives (Apr.). Preparatory Convention between Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia begins at Manchouli (May). Grand Naval Review in commemoration of the enthronement of the Emperor held on the Sungari. Exchange of postal money orders between Manchoukuo and Germany begins. Abolition of extra-territoriality decided upon to be enforced from July of following Year (Nov.).

1936 Abolition of North Manchuria Special District (Jan.). Japanese troops defeat the Outer Mongolian Army invading the frontier and destroy eight airplanes (Mar.). East Hopei Autonomous Government sends a special envoy for friendly relation to Manchoukuo. Manchoukuo undertakes to make research on the East frontier. Major-General Itagaki appointed Chairman of Japan-Manchoukuo Joint Economic Commission. Manchoukuo-Germany Trade Convention signed (Apr.). Soviet-Manchoukuo Water Routes Technical Committee held at Blagoveshensk (May). The Overseas Department of Japan decides to send 5,000 families to Manchoukuo as immigrants from the following year. Japan-Manchoukuo Treaty for Protection of Industrial Properties signed (June). Manchuria Development Company established. The Treaty on Postal Affairs between Japan and Manchoukuo signed (Dec.). Japan-Manchou Social Works Association established (Sept. 12). The Memorial Tower to the Japanese Soldiers at Harbin unveiled (Sept. 23). Sino-Japanese Air Routes Through Traffic Agreement signed (Oct. 17). Dr. Knoll appointed German Trade Representative to Manchoukuo (Nov. 24).

Anniversary of East Hopei Autonomous Government (Nov. 25). Prime Minister Chang Ching-hui issues the statement on the Japan-German Anti-Communist Agreement (Nov. 26). Italian Consulate-General permitted to be located at Mukden (Dec. 1). Japan-Manchoukuo unification of time (Dec. 5). Match Monopoly Law promulgated (Dec. 20). Salt Monopoly Law proclaimed (Dec. 24). The Manchurian Affairs Board of Japan issues the statement on Manchoukuo Industrial Development plan. New Manchoukuo Post Law promulgated (Dec. 26).

1937 Conference of Provincial Governors held (Jan. 22). Imperial Throne

Succession Law promulgated. Lieut-General Tojo succeeds Lieut-General Itagaki and appointed Chief of the Staff of Kwantung Army (Mar. 1). Imperial Property Administration Law proclaimed. Dr. Knoll arrives at Hsinking (Apr. 1). Sino-Japanese Hostilities Break Out at Lukowchiao in the outskirts of Peking (July 7). Agreement reached to entrust heavy industries of Manchoukuo under supervision of the S.M.R. Company to the Nippon Sangyo Company (Manchuria Industrial Development Corporation) (Nov. 1).

1938 Germany extends de jure recognition to Manchoukuo (Feb. 20). National Mobilization Law promulgated (Feb. 26). 5-year industrial plan revised (May 14). Japan-Manchoukuo-Italy Commercial Treaty and Manchoukuo-Italy Commerce & Navigation Treaty concluded (July 5). Manchoukuo-Germany Foreign Trade Agreement concluded (Sept. 14). Manchoukuo declaration of cooperation with Konoe statement in China policy (Dec. 22).

1939 Hungary extends de jure recognition to Manchoukuo (Jan. 10.) Participation in Anti-Comintern Agreement declared by Premier Chang (Jan. 16). Manchoukuo-Hungary Anti-Comintern Pact concluded (Feb. 24). First Nomonhan Incident breaks out (May 11). 2nd Nomonhan Incident breaks out (June 17). Nomonhan Armistice treaty concluded (Sept. 15).

1940 The New National Army Law promulgated (Apr. 11). Revised Japan-Manchoukuo Commercial Pact concluded (June 26). The Emperor pays formal visit to Tokyo (June 26). Establishment of Chienkou Shrine in Imperial Palace (July 15). Provincial Census Registration Act promulgated (Aug. 1.). New Manchoukuo-Reich Trade Agreement signed (Sept. 12). Temporary National Census compilation commenced (Oct. 1).



### CHAPTER III POPULATION AND RACES

The population of Manchoukuo where modern methods of census taking was unknown until the advent of the new regime naturally remained a matter of conjecture, except in the Japanese Leased Territory and Railway Zone. Estimates were difficult to compile since the population in some part was seasonal in movement. The withdrawal of Chang Hsueh-liang's forces in large numbers following the military outbreak of 1931 and the consequent movement of soldiers' families from Manchuria had a considerable effect on the population position of the country.

With regard to the national census investigation, the Statistics Office attached to the Legal Bureau of the State Council was charged in 1933 with the compilation of general statistics by collecting reports from the local governments. At the same time the statistical section of the General Affairs Bureau in each provincial government was charged to gather data with regard to the districts under their respective jurisdiction.

Table 1. YEARLY COMPARISON OF POPULATION

(Unit: 1,000)

	Manchoukuoan		Japanese		Chosenese		Others		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
*1932	16,110	13,009	61.8	54.8	—	—	79.6	58.8	29,969
*1933	16,804	13,621	98.5	80.1	308.5	271.4	51.5	48.3	31,284
*1934	17,818	14,486	137.1	104.7	369.6	321.1	40.8	38.0	33,315
*1935	18,402	15,135	178.2	140.6	415.8	358.9	36.1	36.5	34,702
*1936	18,896	15,619	219.1	173.7	483.0	411.7	34.6	33.4	35,871
1937	19,428	19,105	232.9	185.4	502.7	428.9	33.7	32.6	36,950
1938	20,156	16,823	302.3	219.9	568.7	478.6	33.4	32.3	38,624
1939	20,491	17,090	377.9	264.4	627.6	534.5	34.0	33.7	39,454

Note: \* Inclusive of former S.M.R. zone. The total population of Kwantung Province, which is not included in this table, was 1,225,570, consisting of 189,689 Japanese, 4,496 Chosenese, 1,772 other foreigners and 1,038,613 Manchoukuoans at the end of 1938.

The average population per square kilometer in Manchoukuo in 1939 was approximately 30 or one-sixth as many as compared with that of Japan. The present population of Manchoukuo as compared with the 16,780,000 for the Three Eastern Provinces in 1907 indicates over a two-fold increase. This change in population is due less to natural increase in the country than to the entry of Chinese from Hopei and Shantung Provinces.

Table 2. POPULATION BY PROVINCES

(Dec. 1939)

Province:	No. of Households	Population			Male per 100 female
		Male	Female	Total	
Hsinking	84,166	248,921	166,552	415,473	149.5
Kirin	786,006	2,878,159	2,484,312	5,362,471	115.9
Lungkiang	293,406	993,995	830,577	1,824,572	125.7
Peian	328,016	1,150,620	915,597	2,066,217	119.7
Heiho	16,677	57,889	27,175	85,064	213.0
Sankiang	201,791	695,088	515,857	1,210,945	134.7
Tungan	66,357	194,267	142,545	336,812	136.3
Mutankiang	88,449	263,692	181,693	445,385	145.1
Pinkiang	630,834	2,120,834	1,714,818	3,835,652	123.7
Chientao	135,757	401,743	336,551	738,294	119.4
Tunghua	133,955	507,591	342,099	849,690	148.4
Antung	332,463	1,183,543	1,032,236	2,215,779	114.7
Fengtien	1,562,888	5,309,096	4,486,042	9,795,138	118.3
Chinchow	712,835	2,246,003	2,008,980	4,254,983	111.8
Jehol	754,841	2,268,315	1,947,010	4,215,325	116.5
Hsingan W.	119,674	364,095	294,668	658,763	123.6
Hsingan S.	150,329	504,863	404,413	909,276	124.8
Hsingan E.	25,753	83,025	54,547	137,572	152.2
Hsingan N.	23,397	59,218	37,397	96,615	158.3
Total	6,447,594	21,530,957	17,923,069	39,454,026	120.1

Table 3. CITY POPULATION

(Dec. 1939)

	Manchoukuoan		Japanese			Europeans	White Russians	Total
	Manchus & Hans	Others	Japanese	Chosenese	Others			
Hsinking	301,013	5,363	95,450	12,141	327	94	876	415,264
Kirin	115,811	6,499	11,866	4,592	16	27	99	138,910
Tsitsihar	85,472	2,932	11,281	545	—	23	286	100,539
Chiamussu	82,711	852	7,807	2,473	8	5	104	93,960



(Continued)

	Manchoukuoan		Japanese			Europ- eans	White Rus- sians	Total
	Manchus & Hans	Others	Japan- ese	Chosen- ese	Others			
Harbin ...	433,234	6,257	38,197	6,330	—	5,006	28,103	517,127
Mutankiang ...	65,995	521	18,887	22,017	—	4	532	107,956
Antung ...	180,020	4,146	18,092	17,451	15	43	10	220,587
Mukden ...	710,554	12,287	117,030	22,483	87	366	708	863,515
Fushun ...	202,789	1,058	34,504	6,870	43	24	36	245,329
Liaoyang ..	88,753	1,558	5,863	318	2	26	—	96,523
Anshan ...	153,258	782	39,424	1,663	27	27	2	195,183
Yingkow ..	153,865	4,210	6,335	1,415	29	46	18	165,918
Tiehling ..	46,291	1,570	3,619	1,335	8	6	6	52,835
Ssupingkai .	55,373	149	8,372	1,058	10	40	25	65,027
Chinchow ..	92,249	2,073	11,907	646	—	10	28	106,913

With regard to the distribution of population, by far a greater density is seen in South Manchuria, especially along the South Manchuria Railway, the average population per unit for Fengtien, Chinchow, Antung and Kirin Provinces being in that order 129, 108, 53 and 60. Population density decreases toward the interior of North Manchuria, the lowest figures being 4.2 and 5.1 for Hsingan North and Heiho Provinces respectively.

Table 4. POPULATION CLASSIFIED BY OCCUPATIONS

(December 1937)

	Manchoukuoan		Japanese		Chosenese		Others		Total	
		%		%		%		%		
Agriculture and Forestry ...	21,722,254	60.1	10,098	2.4	527,463	56.5	8,728	13.1	22,268,543	60.2
Aquatic .....	50,053	0.1	235	0.0	5,428	0.6	293	0.4	56,009	0.2
Mining .....	172,773	0.5	25,638	6.0	5,331	0.6	322	0.5	204,064	0.5
Mfg. Ind. ....	1,032,967	2.9	39,910	9.5	30,057	3.2	6,659	10.0	1,109,593	3.0
Commerce ....	1,636,297	4.6	73,134	18.4	40,676	4.3	6,270	9.4	1,756,377	4.5
Transportation .	109,455	0.3	29,194	6.9	5,075	0.6	3,388	5.1	147,112	0.3
Official and Free Occupations .	1,317,560	3.7	78,413	18.7	37,657	4.0	9,322	14.0	1,442,952	3.9
Domestic Work-ers .....	2,838,110	8.0	22,014	5.3	62,882	6.3	12,670	19.2	2,935,676	7.8
Other Occupa-tions .....	1,701,209	4.8	40,876	9.8	55,052	5.9	9,479	14.3	1,806,616	4.9
Without Occupa-tions .....	4,953,053	15.0	98,788	23.0	161,999	17.4	9,190	13.7	5,223,030	14.5
Total ....	35,533,731	100.0	418,300	100.0	931,620	100.0	66,321	100.0	36,949,972	100.0

**Racial Elements.** According to estimates made in 1937, the inhabitants of foreign origin included 931,507 Koreans; 418,300 Japanese; 7,239 Soviet Russians; 1,322 Poles; 393 British; 333 Germans; 322 French; 185 Americans; 30 Italians, and about 1,842 of different European nationalities. There were a total of 30,833 White Russians living in the cities of Manchoukuo in 1939.

The indigenous peoples of Manchuria are the Manchus and the Mongols, although the greater part of the present population are descendants of Chinese settlers who found their way into the country at one period and another of history. Even as early as the time of the Manchu conquest of China in 1644, the Manchu population was said to be about at the ratio of one million against two millions of Chinese in Manchuria. It may be said that the Manchus were able to conquer China only with the help of Mongol and Korean forces raised in Manchuria.

Table 5. MANCHOUKUOANS CLASSIFIED BY RACES

(Dec. 1939)

Province	Manchus & Hans	Mongolians	Mohamme-dans	Total
Hsinking .....	301,078	405	4,958	306,441
Kirin .....	5,156,953	22,919	29,020	5,208,892
Lungkiang .....	1,670,714	123,152	6,241	1,800,807
Peian .....	2,025,016	1,885	3,585	2,030,486
Heiho .....	76,218	18	760	76,996
Sankiang .....	1,159,108	—	2,946	1,162,054
Tungan .....	294,370	—	178	294,548
Mutankiang .....	336,103	13	1,719	337,835
Pinkiang .....	3,685,784	10,942	10,280	3,707,006
Chientao .....	172,936	—	606	173,542
Tunghua .....	757,606	3	3,428	761,037
Antung .....	2,128,962	4	9,131	2,138,097
Fengtien .....	9,349,317	6,909	52,532	9,408,758
Chinchow .....	4,045,238	146,163	15,709	4,207,110
Jehol .....	4,043,431	138,371	24,771	4,206,573
Hsingan W. ....	518,930	134,422	3,601	656,953
Hsingan S. ....	502,296	397,577	2,482	902,355
Hsingan E. ....	110,673	20,622	54	131,349
Hsingan N. ....	38,681	31,420	893	70,994
Total .....	36,373,414	1,035,525	172,894	37,581,833



Table 6. POPULATION BY RACES IN MANCHOUKUO

	(1937)		Total	No. of Households
	Men	Women		
Manchouknoans .....	18,782,004	15,571,998	35,354,002	5,540,108
Mongols .....	538,352	448,128	986,480	172,913
Mohammedans .....	104,356	81,895	186,251	36,020
Others .....	3,703	3,295	6,998	1,725
Japanese .....	232,908	185,392	418,300	112,342
Chosenese .....	502,669	428,838	931,507	176,015
Others .....	65	48	113	27
Soviet Russians .....	3,552	3,717	7,239	2,622
Poles .....	689	633	1,322	483
British .....	191	202	393	167
Americans .....	102	83	185	82
Germans .....	199	134	333	138
French .....	80	242	322	72
Italians .....	19	11	30	17
Others .....	1,040	820	1,842	799

**The Prehistoric Peoples of Manchuria and Mongolia.** Varieties of neolithic remains are distributed throughout China, Manchuria, Mongolia and Siberia. Some of them, such as ancient Chinese copper vessels, earthen tripods and polished stone tools, are common to China, Manchuria and Mongolia, a fact suggestive of the relations which existed between the peoples of these countries in prehistoric ages. In contrast to this, however, must be noted an outstanding fact that the palaeolithic remains unearthed further north in Manchuria and Mongolia are exclusively crude tools of chipped flint. The line of distinction is so clearly drawn there that one may doubt if these northern inhabitants had any close ethnic affinities with those in the south. Theories have been advanced as to the prehistoric inhabitants of these countries, but none of accepted authority as yet. Much remains to be done in these lines. In the meantime we shall have to confine our attention to those peoples whose history has been preserved in one form or another, and also to those whose racial and tribal life continues to this day.

#### Peoples of Manchou

**Suchens.** The Suchens, also known as the Chishens and Hsi-chens, are the oldest people known in history. They are recorded to have presented thorn arrows and stone bows to Wu Wang, the

founder of the Chou dynasty, who ruled China in the twelfth century B.C. Through misinterpretation of ancient chronicles, these people have been identified with the I-lous of Tungusic origin who rose to prominence as inhabitants of the Ninguta region in the Han period (206 B.C.—25 A.D.). They are described as inhabitants of the "north country" in the histories written in the times of the Ch'in and Han dynasties. It is a matter of historical truth, however, that at this period "the north country" did not extend so far north as to embrace what is at present known as Manchuria. The Suchens must have inhabited Jehol or southern Mongolia.

**Ancient Ch'aohsien (Korean) Tribe.** Legend makes Chitzu or the Viscount Chi, a former vassal of the Chou dynasty, the father of the Korean people. While he was a Han or Chinese, as his followers were, the people he ruled represented one of the earliest tribal indigenes of Manchuria. This tribal people has never been really identified; but in San Kuo Chih (History of the Three Kingdoms), compiled in the Chin period, reference is made to this under the head of the Wei tribes. They are said to have lived in the region of Liaoyang.

**Shanjungs.** They are a tribe of unidentified origin who lived to the west of Shanhaikwan. They are recorded to have been frequent invaders of China in the time of Huan Wang, the 14th emperor of the illustrious Chou dynasty. Against this tribe the lord of Yen had to appeal to the Chou emperor for his military aid. From this it may be assumed that the Shanjungs were quite equals of the Cathayans in point of military equipment, having developed iron arms and a military art of quite their own.

**Tungus.** This tribe next appears in history towards the close of the Chou dynasty (1122—255 B.C.). Tungu—Eastern Hu tribe—was so named because they lived to the east of the state of Chao whose historians refer to them as lightly armoured and well mounted barbarians. They made repeated attempts to invade the states of Yen and Chou. While their kingdom has never been exactly identified or traced back, their western border was in constant contact with the 'Huns' of western Chahar. Their eastern limit extended about as far as Liaoyang, occupying extensive areas, running from east to west, outside the Great Wall. This tribal kingdom was overthrown by the Huns about the time Han was at war with Chou. The defeated tribe broke up in two groups, the



one later known as Wuhuans and the other as Sienpis.

**Wuhuans and Sienpis.** Of the Wuhuan tribe nothing has been heard of for more than a hundred years, until in 73 B.C., in the reign of Emperor Chao Ti, of Former Han, "the Wuhuans of Liaotung" are recorded to have revolted. The rebel tribe was successfully overcome by a Cathayan force of 2,000 horses. It is presumable that the Wuhuans had grown into a military factor of not inconsiderable strength.

The Sienpis has remained in obscurity for about two hundred and fifty years. In the time of Kuang Wu Ti, the first emperor of the Later Han dynasty (25-55 A.D.), they are said to have invaded Liaotung. Later, under the leadership of Tansihhuai the Sienpis rose to power. Their royal court was set up near Changchiakuo. Having conquered all the eastern territory of the Huns in the 11th century, the Sienpi kingdom, according to a Chinese historian, had extended over a distance of more than 12,000 li from east to west and more than 7,000 li from north to south, "embracing therein mountains and rivers, and marshes and briny lands." In 178 A.D. they are said to have defeated great Han armies. The Sienpis maintained their power until their Northern dynasty was overthrown by a Sui emperor. A part of the Sienpis emerged as Mujungs in the time of the Chin, while another became the Khitans in the period following the Sui and Tang dynasties.

**Fuyus.** In the first description given of the Fuyus in the about quoted "San Kuo Chih," they are represented as a tribe living south of the Sungari, having as their neighbours the Kaokulis in the south, the I-lous in the east and the Sienpis in the west. Physically, large framed, and by nature cautious and non-aggressive, they are represented as an agrarian tribe of quite peaceful disposition. In contrast, it may be noted that the Kaokulis, though apparently of the same racial stock, are described as "impulsive by nature and of aggressive bent of mind." What is noteworthy is that the Fuyus wore garments of white cloth as the Koreans do at present, and their strongholds were built in a circular form, as mountain castles of Korea are known to have been in old times.

**Mais and Kaokulis.** What is called the Mai tribe in Chinese history was another of those closely allied with the original stock of the Korean race. They are said to have inhabited "Toumolou,"

which is now by common consent considered to be around the confluence of the Amur and Sungari. The Kaokuli tribe is generally regarded as of Fuyu origin. They first made their home in the valley of the Tungchia river, a tributary of the Yalu. Later, they extended their influence further northwards. Under the leadership of Chumeng or Tsoumou, the Kaokulis had extended their rule in the first quarter of the 4th century as far south as the Daidoko or Taidong-gang river in northern Korea. They rose at a time to such power as few ancient tribes of Manchou ever did. Their civilisation, too, was by far above that of the others. Their kingdom came to an end in the Tang period (615-907 A.D.).

**I-lous.** This tribe sprang into prominence during the Han period. They lived over the area extending from Ninguta to Vladivostok. Physically, not unlike the Fuyus, their language was different to that of the Fuyus or the Kaokulis, according to San Kuo Chih. They were cave-dwellers. They lived on corn and clothed themselves in hemp and animal hides. They were one of the stone-age tribes, judging from the fact that they used poisoned stone arrow-heads; but they were not strangers to the plough, since it is also stated that they lived on "five sorts of corn and were possessed of hemp cloth."

**Wei.** The Han period finds a tribe known as Wei living in Manchou side by side with the Fuyus. They were later overcome by the latter tribe, with the result that they separated themselves in groups one of which migrated to Korea, while the others lost themselves amongst the other tribal inhabitants they later came in contact with.

**Wuchis.** Of this tribe of uncertain origin the Wei Shu, the history of the Wei dynasty or the House of Toba, says in part as follows: "The Wuchis live north of Kaokuli, where once the Suchens had lived. Each village is ruled by its own master. There is no unity among them. Bold and brave, they are the strongest of all the eastern barbarians. Their language is different from the others. . . . They live in fortified caves, shaped like a mound and opening above. Ladders are used for ascending and descending. Their land is without cattle, and the cart horses are used for ploughing. They have millet and wheat."

These people made an alcoholic drink by chewing rice. They generally decorated their heads with the tails of tigers and leopards.



Among the Japanese antiquaries it is generally held that this tribe lived around Shihtouchengtzu between Hsinking (Changchun) and Harbin.

**Shihweis.** This tribe rose to power contemporaneously with the Wuchis, of whom they were close northern neighbours. They were nomads at some season, while at other times they were engaged in agriculture and cattle breeding. They spoke a language not unlike that of the Khitans. Composed of five tribal groups, they rose to considerable power in the period of Sui and Tang. Legend has it that the later Mongols of historic fame sprang from this tribe.

**Mujungs.** A tribe probably of Sienpi origin. The early part of the Chin dynasty, or the fourth century A.D. found this growing tribe on the lower course of the Shiramuren which is the upper portion of the Liao river. Under the direction of successive able leaders, this tribe gradually rose to power. Mujungtsun, one of their chieftains, having captured Peking, declared himself Emperor of Yen and called his territory Ch'ien Yen. His capital was removed from Lungcheng to what is at present known as Chengteh. His territory extended chiefly over a northern part of China and a western part of Manchou, including the Liaotung peninsula. The dynasty of the Mujungs is generally called Ch'ien or former Yen in contrast to the dynasties of Later Yen, Western Yen, North and South Yen that followed in that order.

**Mohos.** The Moho tribe is of historical importance because of the kingdom of Pohai they founded and also because they figured as a chief civilising influence of the Far East in the Tang period. History first records the Mohos as composed of seven tribal groups of which the two groups of Sumo-moho and Heishui-Moho are most important. The former inhabited the region of Kirin along the Sungari, while the latter were on the lower course of the Amur. Ta Tsujung, the founder of Pohai, is generally thought of Kaokuli origin, but it seems equally true that his followers were mostly Sumo-mohos who had early come in contact with the civilisation of Tang through their sojourn in Yingchu and Yuchow. Pohai, until it was overthrown by the Khitans in 926 A.D. after two centuries' existence, materially assisted in introducing the civilisation of Tang into Manchuria and Japan, with the latter having diplomatic and other relations for many

years. When the Pohai kingdom came to an end, more than 100,000 Mohos found shelter in the Korean peninsula where they must have influenced in no mean measure the civilisation of the peninsular inhabitants.

**Khitans.** This tribe, undoubtedly closely related with the Mohos, are first found along the upper course of the Shiramuren. After unsuccessful struggle with the Turks in the west, the Khitans became tributary to the Sui dynasty. They were later divided into eight groups which in the tenth century A.D. were again united by an able chieftain named Yeh-lu A-pao-chi who later became Emperor T'ai-tsu of the Liao Kingdom. In developing his country, this emperor made free use of the cultural and industrial attainments of Cathay. Iron and salt deposits were exploited; and agriculture was encouraged under Chinese direction. Liao steadily grew until at the period of Sung (960-1127 A.D.) its territory embraced practically all of North China, bordering on Manchuria and Mongolia. When the Liao kingdom was overthrown by Kin in the first quarter of the twelfth century, it meant that the last of those of direct Sienpi origin had passed out of the history of the Far East.

**Nurchens.** The Nurchens, who have been called Manchus since their Ching dynasty was established over China in the 17th century, are the only tribal entity remaining from antiquity. They were erroneously confused with the Suchens by some Chinese historians. They originally lived on the upper reaches of the Sungari, not far from the headwaters of the Yalu and mount Changpaishan. They were known to Cathay of the Tang period. In 1115 a Nurchen chieftain named A-ku-ta declared himself the Emperor of the kingdom of Chin (Gold). In consequence of successful military adventures, he eventually annexed the Khitan kingdom in 1125. In the following year the Chin army occupied Pienehing, the present Kaifeng in Honan province, the capital at the time of Sung. When the Chin kingdom was overthrown by the Mongols in 1234, the surviving Nurchens left China, returning to their original homeland in the north.

The Nurchens now made their abode around the region of Sansing or Han, on the right side of the Sungari. The Chienchou-Nurchens who are of the most historical importance among the three groups into which they had now divided themselves, later



moved to the region of Kirin. These Nurchens were again divided into three sections of Chienchou Guard, Chienchou Left Guard and Chienchou Right Guard. From the first named came Nurhachi, the founder of the Ching or Manchu dynasty. In 1616 he declared himself the emperor of the kingdom of Ta Chin and in 1636 his grandson occupied Peking to inaugurate the Manchu rule in China the regime which, though it saw the illustrious age of Chienlung, was by revolution brought to an end in 1911. The child emperor Hsüan T'ung abdicated. Fate disclosed to none at the time of how this child ruler was to become some two decades later the Emperor of the Manchou empire.

Of the Manchou population some estimate it at as many as 7,000,000 while others give something less than 1,000,000, the lowest estimate being around 600,000. From their physical characteristics the Japanese anthropologists differentiate them from those who are called by European scholars by the generic, and often misleading name of Tungus. The Manchou is regarded as a distinct type evolved from the ethnic stock that early made its abode around the foot of Mount Changpaishan. The Manchou is smaller of stature than the Chinese. He is also characterized by olive or light brown complexion, slightly prominent cheek bones, black hair and eyes, the shape of the eye resembling that of the Mongol type, beards and whiskers sparse and shaven except by old men. The women are smaller than the men, showing little difference from the Chinese women in point of stature. They have never practised footbinding, though in all other points they have completely become Chinese.

#### Races and Tribes of North Manchuria

**Tunguses.** Several tribes of pure Tungus origin are found in some northern parts of Manchuria. The name Tungus embraces a number of Orochon tribes which are often designated by the animals they breed or the characteristics of their habits, such as (1) Reindeer Orochons; (2) Horse Orochons; (3) Dog Orochons; (4) Steppe Orochons; (5) Forest Orochons. The Tunguses are indigenes of Siberia, who are in Manchoukuo more or less distributed through Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces. The more important of these tribes are described below.

(1) **Gold or Goldis.** Of all Tungus tribes this particular

group most resembles the Mongol in external characteristics. They speak the same language as the Mongols. They are met with about Sanhsing, being the descendants of the Heishui Mohos. Because men's heads are clean shaved, the Chinese referred to them as "fish-skin pated" or "hairless" men. Their complexion is almost sickly pale. The face is long, the forehead low, the eyes narrowly slit, and the body of medium size. Their disposition is simple and peaceful, with artistic bent as is shown in their carvings.

(2) **Orochons.** They are mostly found on the upper and middle courses of the Amur and in the Hsingan mountains. Those who live in the former region, as their tribal name Orochon, "reindeer owner," indicates, train the wild reindeer both for mounts and pack animals. Hunting is their chief pursuit. Those who live in the Hsingan mountains raise horses instead of reindeer. Physically, they are small and lean. The head is broad, the features flat, the chin protruding, the nose small, the lips thick, while the eyes are either brown or dark and narrow, and the beards sparse.

(3) **Daours (Daurs).** This tribe is found in the region around Tsitsihar. It is one of the richest and by far the most cultured of all northern tribes. Those who are at present entrusted with local administration of the same region are mostly men of this tribe.

(4) **Solons.** This tribe, often erroneously described by some as cannibalistic, inhabits from the west of the Hsingan mountains to the river Hailar and its tributaries. It is hardly possible to distinguish this tribe from the Mongols. Known as good fighters from early days, the men of this tribe formed the backbone of the resistance offered to the invading Cossacks in the 17th century. They are characterized by tall stature, hardy frame, elongated head, deep black hair, round broad features, narrow eyes, flat nose, big mouth and thick lips. They are mostly nomadic.

**Giliaks.** This ancient tribe of which there is no more than 5,000 population represents, with the Ainus of Hokkaido, the oldest denizens of north Asia. Approximating the Tungus in many physical points, this tribe is distinguished by the black lank hair common to the men who are often hairy. Other physical characteristics are prominent cheek bones, small deep set eyes, flat nose, yellowish skin, broad head, and low stature. They live in caves



in winter and in huts in summer.

### Races and Tribes of Mongolia

The inhabitants or indigenes of Mongolia were, from an ethnologic point of view, unknown to China before the Chou dynasty (1122-255 B.C.), when they began to be described as northern barbarians.

**Hsiungnu (Huns).** This tribe was the first to come into the history of ancient Cathay. The period of Ch'in and Han, more than two centuries before the dawn of the Christian era, found this tribe as a powerful factor among the northwestern neighbours. They inhabited the present Inner and Outer Mongolia, later separating in northern and southern groups. The latter was at a time powerful enough to impose peace upon the Han dynasty. They later met with reverses at the hand of the Siempis and Wuhans, until eventually they broke up in small groups, fleeing westwards.

**Tingling.** This northern tribe of uncertain origin is described to have been a terror to the northern group of the Huns in the Later Han period (25-221 A.D.). In a historical account of the Chin period, the 4th century, a portion of this tribe is described to have penetrated as far south as Shansi. The theory held by some European antiquaries that this tribe was a pure indigene of Siberia is unsupported by fact.

**The House of Toba.** This tribal group, like the Mujung, is of Siempi origin. In the last quarter of the 4th century it rose to prominence. Invading what is now known as modern Shansi after successful military campaigns against the Huns and Wuhans, it set up in 386 the dynasty of Northern Wei. This dynasty eventually acquired control of all China north of the Yangtze, flourishing under a succession of able rulers. However, in 535 the kingdom was divided into Eastern Wei and Western Wei.

**Juanjuan.** This is a group originated from the Tunghu stock, being related with the Toba. It is said that Tai Wu Ti of the Wei dynasty, in contempt of the ignorance of this tribe, so called it, comparing it to crawling insects. This, however, appears doubtful in the light of what is written of the tribe in the Nan Chi (Southern History), where it is said that the men of this tribe wore brocade and other clothing of high craftsmanship.

Their territory at a time extended "from the western frontier of Korea to the end of the Gobi desert." They were dispersed after disastrous struggle, first, with the above Wei emperor and, next at a later period, with Wen Ti of the Ch'i dynasty and, at the last, with the Turks.

**Turks.** The Hsiungnu, undoubtedly of mongrel stock, are also called Turks because, it is said, in their early days they held their stronghold for generations at a fortified hill called Chinshancheng which, because of its likeness to a helmet was called Dürkö, the origin of the name Turk. Living close to the northwestern frontier of China, they had developed into a powerful kingdom in the period of Sui and Tang. They made frequent incursions into China. The Emperor Wu Ti of the later Chou took a Hsiungnu woman for his consort. At the close of the Sui dynasty a number of Chinese are said to have joined the Turks. Later, this tribal kingdom was split into an eastern and a western group. Their final downfall came about in the 7th century when the Ouigours (Wigours), a tribal force of the same ethnic stock, became ascendent.

**Tiehlo.** This is another offshoot of the Hsiungnu tribe. Under this general tribal name existed a great number of divisions over areas extending to the east of Hsihai, mostly in the mountains. North of the river Loho about 20,000 of their soldiers had established themselves at the period of Sui. Farther west, as many of their soldiery were found close to Mount Paishan. They served under the eastern and western Turks. They were nomadic, fierce of nature, making predatory raiding their chief pursuit. They were good horsemen. Those who lived to the west are said to have been skilled in horticulture.

**Mongols.** The Mongols, in a broad sense, include those of pure Mongol origin, who are represented by the Khalkas, and those of mixed Mongoloid origin such as Kalmuks, Buriats and other Mongolian inhabitants of more or less allied ethnic stock. Some hold that the Mongol is of the same race as the Tartar, and some consider the latter as offspring of the former. All these, however, still remain disputed points.

**Khalkas.** The Khalkas comprise a number of related tribes such as Kalmuks, Paerhhu (Barokh), Buriats, Ordos, Wulyianghai, etc. Of these, the first and third mentioned are best known. Those



of pure Khalka origin are mostly found in eastern Mongolia, numbering about 250,000. The mighty Genghis Khan is said to have been offspring of this tribe. They are not tall of stature, but strongly built with broad shoulders, though the neck is rather small and short. Other external characteristics are black hair, broad flat features, prominent cheek bones, flat nose, pointed chin, sparse beard, oblique and dark brown eyes and yellow tan skin.

**Kalmuks.** This Mongol tribe is said to have originated in the Sungaria region. They call themselves "Eleuths" and "Oelöd." They inhabit the southwestern region of Mongolia, Sungaria, and as far as the Tibetan frontier. In Russia, they are distributed over some southern areas and the regions of the Don and Volga. Modern anthropologists call them Western Mongols. Their present number is estimated at 500,000. In old times they were strong and warlike people, but they have scattered over wide areas through war and migration. They are generally characterized by a hardy frame, though medium of stature, round head, short limbs, narrow eyes of lifted outer angle and also eyes set widely apart, flat features, etc. Both males and females are good riders.

The Kalmuks also comprise a number of tribal sub-divisions such as **Sungars, Torgods, Khoshods**, etc.

**Buriats.** While the name Buriat is used to designate one of the great tribal divisions of Mongols, some scholars consider them as a part of the Khalkas, estimating their population anywhere between 120,000 and 250,000. Those who regard the Buriats as Siberian indigenes seem to have confounded them with Siberian Yakuts and Tunguses. This is, however, still a disputed point. They all live after the fashion of nomads, being distributed over Mongolia and Siberia, mostly clustering around the tundra and lake Balkal regions. In external characteristics they are, generally speaking, low of stature and short of limbs. Their skin is dark brown and the head round and big. They live in tents and clothe themselves in skin and fur. The women are decorative. They are industrious and thrifty, many of them being prosperous.

**Ch'en Pa-erh-hu.** What the Chinese call the Ch'en Pa-erh-hu (Old Barga) is a tribe resembling the Daur. Though few European scholars have noted this tribe, its tribesmen, according to the Chinese historians, constituted one of the eight banners from very early days. Of the Pa-erh-hus, the older group was called

**Ch'en Pa-erh-hu** and the new group **Hsin Pa-erh-hu** (New Barga). Because of their military occupation they in part settled on the frontier of Heilungkiang province and in part over areas extending from the Nonni to Holunbuir which is commonly called Barga. Both old and new groups live in nomadic fashion. The older tribesmen resemble the Solons in physical characteristics, but speak a different tongue. Men representing the new group who are now found in Outer Mongolia, originally lived on the northern slopes of the Hsingans. They were transferred southwards by the Manchou authorities at the beginning of the 19th century.

**Wulyanghai.** This tribe is said to have been the origin of the Khorchins. It was undoubtedly first found in east Mongolia. The first emperor of Ming, according to Chinese history, receiving their homage, organized them as an outer guard force and stationed them at Ulyangha. Geographically, they are allied with the Olot tribe, but generally described by the Chinese as a separate tribal group.



## CHAPTER IV STATE FOUNDATION

### I. The Spirit of Foundation

The spirit underlying the foundation of Manchoukuo, or the "spirit of national foundation" is elucidated by Yu Chung-han, one of the founders of the present state of Manchoukuo, and a director of the Autonomy Guidance Headquarters, which was established in Mukden on November 10, 1931. The manifesto issued in his name reads as follows:

We aspire to found an earthly paradise under the sun by doing away with despotism, misunderstandings, illusions and complications. Regardless of nationality, it is our aim to influence the inhabitants of this land so that they may display their inherent spirit of mercy, and by observance of faith, by mutual respect and mutual love, complete the divine task mentioned above. Thus will so-called Asiatic unrest be transformed into the light of the Orient to kindle the whole world and serve as a good augury for the great and true harmony of entire mankind. The devotion of every effort towards the formation of an ideal land hitherto unknown in history will in time serve to bring about the development of Asia as a whole, rectify racial discrimination and lead towards the establishment of a world justice which will be universally applicable.

The administrative policy of the new State was expressed in the following words:

The elimination of remnant members of the tyrannical government (of the Chang militarist clique), the abolition of bad taxes, the doing away of bad customs and manners, the development of industry and communications and the promotion of religion and education—these shall be one and all carried out in a fair and just manner.

On February 16, 1932 the State Foundation Conference was opened in Mukden for three days, with such representative leaders of the people as Chang Ching-hue, Tsang Shih-i and Hsi Chai in attendance. Here the principle relating to the foundation of the new State was decided and the administrative Committee of the Northeastern Provinces was organized. On the 25th, February the same Committee announced the Organic Law Governing the

Formation of the New State. This was followed on March 1 by the issuance, in the name of the Government of Manchoukuo, of the Proclamation of the Establishment of Manchoukuo, in which the spirit underlying the foundation of the new State and its administrative principles were set forth. An excerpt from one passage in this Declaration reads:

We believe that statecraft should be founded upon the principle of Tao, or the Way and Tao should be of Tien or Heaven. The principle on which this new State is founded is obedience to the Way of Tien (Heaven) for the peace and security of the people. Government must conform to the real will of the people and no personal views should be permitted to prevail in the affairs of the State.

There shall be no discrimination, with respect either to race or creed, among those people who now reside within the territory of the new State. . . . Thus it is designed to give enlightenment to the people who live within the State and maintain the honour of perpetuating the peace of Eastern Asia, thus setting a model example of good government to the world.

The spirit of national foundation is not a mere theory, but something which the nation itself should experience and put into practice. In all affairs of government there is none in which this spirit is not embodied. The system of centralized power which our country has adopted, is based upon the same spirit. It is a system that is indispensable for the uprooting of the evil of the past warlordism and for the building of a modern State. The reform of the administrative structure in 1937 was designed to achieve greater results from the application of the spirit of national foundation to statecraft.

Harmony and cooperation among the races, which constitutes one of the basic elements of the spirit of national foundation, is apt to be taken by the public as the indiscriminate mixing of the different races into one. The truth is that each race is recognized as a specific racial entity, and allowed a certain degree of autonomy, so that a form of government suited to each separate race may be possible and the members of any race may live in security. That each race comprises a unitary component of the Manchoukuo nation is clear from the fact that the Manchoukuo officials of Japanese blood, for example, are participating in the government of the country as responsible officials of the State, in both name and fact. None of them takes the attitude that they are assisting the Manchoukuo Government in the relationship of employer and employee.



Far Eastern peace constitutes the basis of the spirit of national foundation. This fact becomes manifest when Manchoukuo's government and diplomacy are studied. The same spirit may be found pervading all other affairs of the new State. The spirit underlying the foundation of Manchoukuo is indeed so magnificent and profound that the new nation may well feel proud of it before the whole world. The ideals for which Manchoukuo was founded, moreover, are being realized one by one, thanks to the unstinted assistance of its friendly neighbour, Japan, and to the unity and cooperation of its officials and citizens. The Powers which have refused to recognize Manchoukuo are today beginning to rectify their mistaken conception of the new State.

## 2. Manchoukuo-Japan Relation

The special relationship obtaining between Manchoukuo and Japan constitutes their mutual lifeline. The two nations are not bound by mere considerations of interests; nor are their relations so weak and fragile as to be shattered by the impairment of either of the nations. In the words of H.I.M. the Emperor of Manchoukuo:

Even if their respective interests are conflicting, Manchoukuo and Japan will continue to cooperate with each other.

Again, upon His Majesty's return from a visit to Japan in April 1935, an Imperial Rescript was issued on May 2 in which the indivisible relationship of the two countries was described as follows:

### IMPERIAL RESCRIPT

(Promulgated May 2, Second Year of Kangte (1935))

(Unofficial Translation)

Ever since Our accession to the Throne, We had earnestly hoped to realize Our long cherished desire to pay a visit in person to the Imperial Family of Japan in order that the amicable relations existing between the two nations may be enhanced to their mutual rejoicing. This fond wish was finally fulfilled by Our recent visit to the Japanese Empire where We were received by the Imperial Family with the utmost kindness and cordiality, which reception, in every way, was unexcelled in its warmth and

graciousness. We were also greeted and bidden farewell with enthusiasm and sincerity by His Imperial Japanese Majesty's subjects who spared nothing to accord us their highest respect and esteem. All this has moved Us deeply and created upon Our mind an impression that We shall never forget. Since its establishment Our State, replying upon the righteous assistance of Our friendly neighbour, has succeeded in consolidating a broad foundation for itself. On Our recent visit we were indeed fortunate to have been able to express personally to the Imperial Japanese Family Our heartfelt gratitude in appreciation of that assistance. Moreover, through careful observations on that same occasion We were able to ascertain that government in the Japanese Empire is based on benevolence and love; that education places primary importance on loyalty and filial piety; that the subjects revere their Sovereign and respect their elders and superiors as they do Heaven and Earth; and that there is none who does not offer himself loyally and courageously to the State and sincerely strive for the good of the country. The people, as a consequence, are able to enjoy internal peace and security, to be free from all foreign complications, to create faith in themselves, and to be benevolent towards their neighbours, thus perpetuating the Imperial lineage unbroken for all ages. Coming in contact personally with the governing and the governed in that country, We also learned that the people, one and all, are wholeheartedly united together in one spirit, with same virtues and unchanging mutual trust.

H.I.M. the Emperor of Japan and We are as one in spirit. Therefore, ye, Our subjects, bear this always in mind, and with the same virtues and in the same spirit, cooperate with Our friendly neighbour in establishing an everlasting foundation for the two countries, and exalt the true virtues of the East. Thus will the peace of the world and the welfare of mankind be promoted.

Ye, Our subjects, respect and heed Our Rescript forever and ever.

Imperial Sign Manual and Imperial Seal  
Countersigned by the Prime Minister  
and the Minister of the Imperial  
Household

Second Day of May, 1935  
Second Year of Kangte



This indivisible relationship between Japan and Manchoukuo has for its object the advancement of the welfare of humanity and for its basis, the great mission of enhancing throughout the world the true principles of Oriental morality. The two nations are truly as one in virtue and spirit. Therein lies the moral significance of Japan-Manchoukuo collaboration.

It is only from such a viewpoint as mentioned above that the significance of Japanese assistance of Manchoukuo can be fully appreciated. Japan, true to her mission of aiding Manchoukuo, withdrew from the League of Nations to ensure Manchoukuo's sound development. The Rescript issued by H.I.M. the Emperor of Japan upon that Empire's secession from the League of Nations expresses the convictions of the Government and people of that country when it left the League. The Rescript in question contained these words:

In connection with the rise of the new State of Manchoukuo, the Japanese Empire regards respect of its independence and the encouragement of its sound development as the basis for the removal of the root of Far Eastern trouble and for the preservation of peace.

Upon his accession to the Throne, H.I.M. the Emperor of Manchoukuo also proclaimed in a Rescript:

Far-sighted plans for the defence of the country and long-range policies for the government of the land should always aim at collaboration, perfect accord and perpetual strength of relations with Japan.

Japan and Manchoukuo are destined to share the same fate and to travel together along a common path. The strengthening and expansion of this special relationship between the two allied nations contributes to the promotion of the welfare of mankind. This fact is borne out by the beneficial effects of the retrocession of Japanese extraterritorial privileges upon the government diplomacy and other activities of Manchoukuo. Japan and Manchoukuo, more strongly bound together than ever before, are today courageously striving toward their common goal of consolidating East Asiatic peace.

### 3. Racial Harmony and Cooperation

Manchuria has been in the past called the melting pot of races. In the past 3,000 years it has witnessed the rise and decline of numerous races. But the people now inhabiting the country

consist mainly of members of the Han race who migrated to Manchuria from China Proper in comparatively recent times. Though these Hans or Chinese are not the aboriginal people of Manchuria, they have deemed themselves the absolute masters of Manchuria, and conducted themselves accordingly. It is this overbearing attitude which served as one of the chief causes of the social unrest and disorder in Manchuria, in the past. In view of this deplorable fact, the new State of Manchoukuo upon its foundation proclaimed racial harmony and cooperation as one of its guiding principles. In the Proclamation of the Establishment of Manchoukuo the following passage appears:

There shall be no discrimination with respect to either race or creed among those people who now reside within the territory of the new State, including the races of the Hans, Manchus, Mongols, Japanese and Chosenese: nationals of other countries as well may upon application acquire as permanent residents equal treatment with others and their rights shall be guaranteed thereby.

H.I.M. the Emperor of Manchoukuo upon his enthronement also proclaimed in an Imperial Rescript issued on March 1, 1934 the following:

The general outline of administrative policies and the engagements already entered into shall remain unchanged. Although the population of this State consists of peoples of divers races, from now on it is imperative that there be sincerity towards, and trust in, one another and they have common interests.

In accordance with this spirit the 30,000,000 people of Manchoukuo, united as one, and with full trust in one another are today wholeheartedly cooperating in the task of completing the establishment of a Wangtao State.



## CHAPTER V STATE ADMINISTRATION

### INTRODUCTION

From the beginning of its career, Manchoukuo has been a State *sui generis*, with a two-fold organization. One part of the structure is the Government organized by positive law, for the main purpose of discharging the authoritarian functions of the State, and the other is the Concordia Association, which is not a creation of positive law, but one whose object is to fulfil the non-authoritarian functions of the State to realize the ideals for which the new State was founded. These are two component parts or two complementary sides of one State structure, neither being in opposition or subordination to the other.

The Organic Law promulgated soon after the inauguration of Manchoukuo, or under date of March 9, 1932, was a law of constitutional nature, establishing the fundamental structure of the government of Manchoukuo.

According to the provisions of that Organic Law, the Chief Executive assuming office on the acclamation of the people was the head of the State, governing and representing it. He was vested with the authority to exercise the legislative power with the consent of the Legislative Council, the executive power by supervising the State Council, and the judicial power through the courts of Law, while he was responsible to the people for all functions of government. Besides the Legislative Council, the State Council, and the Courts of Law, several State organs were provided: the Chief Executive's Office to manage non-administrative matters, that is, personal affairs of the Chief Executive; the Privy Council to tender opinions on important matters of State, when consulted by the Chief Executive; and the Supervisory Council to control and investigate the unlawful acts or unwarrantable decisions of administrative authorities, delinquencies of officials and irregularities in financial accounts. In this manner, the Or-

ganic Law of 1932 introduced the division of powers under the regime of the Chief Executive, and at the same time a systematic, centralized reorganization of the administrative organs of various grades swept away the remnants of the despotic government of the warlords.

The Organic Law of 1932 continued in force until March 1, 1934, when Manchoukuo inaugurated an Imperial regime and the Chief Executive ascended the Throne as the first Emperor of Manchoukuo. Simultaneously with his accession to the Throne, he abolished the old Organic Law and granted a new one, establishing a fundamental organization of government under the Imperial regime.

In the government scheme under the present arrangement, the Emperor reigns, as the head of the State and exercises the three powers of legislation, justice, and execution, in conformity with the provisions of the Organic Law and the Law Guaranteeing the Rights of the People. In the exercise of these powers, he does not act by himself. He exercises, that is to say, the legislative power with the consent of the Legislative Council, the judicial power through the Courts of Law, and in respect of matters relating to civil administration, the command of the armed forces, and the Imperial Household, he requires the assistance of the Prime Minister, the Minister of Public Peace, or the Minister of the Imperial Household. In regard to the matters specially provided for in the Organic Law, he consults the Privy Council or the Military Council, after which he gives personal decision on the more important of them, and as for the rest, he causes his administrative organs from the State Council downwards to dispose of them. From the legal standpoint, the Emperor is the source of all authority, but in the actual organization of government, powers are distributed among such State organs as the Legislative Council, the Courts of Law and the State Council, so that the principle of the division of powers is embodied in the governmental structure. (As will be discussed later, the Legislative Council has not yet been established. For the present, therefore, the Emperor, by virtue of Article 36 of the Organic Law, issues ordinances in place of laws. To that extent, the division of powers is not yet carried out.) The governmental structure of Manchoukuo is as follows:



### Life Sketch of His Majesty, the Emperor of Manchoukuo

His Majesty, Pu Yi, Emperor of the Manchoukuo Empire, was born on February 6, 1906 at Peking, China. On November 14, 1908 he was proclaimed Emperor of China upon the demise of his uncle, Emperor Kwan Hsu. The infant Emperor, twelfth in the line of the Ching dynasty, had been on the throne only a few years when a revolution broke out in China, causing his abdication on February 12, 1912. The Manchu dynasty thus came to an end after ruling over China for 267 years. An attempt was made to restore the Emperor to the throne by General Chang Hsun in July, 1917 but failed.

In October, 1924 he was forced to give up his palace at Peking by General Feng Yu-hsiang (the "Christian General") and through Sir Reginald Johnston, his British tutor, sought refuge in the German Hospital in the Legation Quarter, from whence he later found haven in the Japanese Legation. Some three months later the Emperor moved to Tientsin and took up his residence in the Japanese Concession, where he lived until the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident in September, 1931.

On March 1, 1932 he became the Chief Executive of Manchoukuo and in March, 1934 was proclaimed first Emperor of the Manchoukuo Empire.

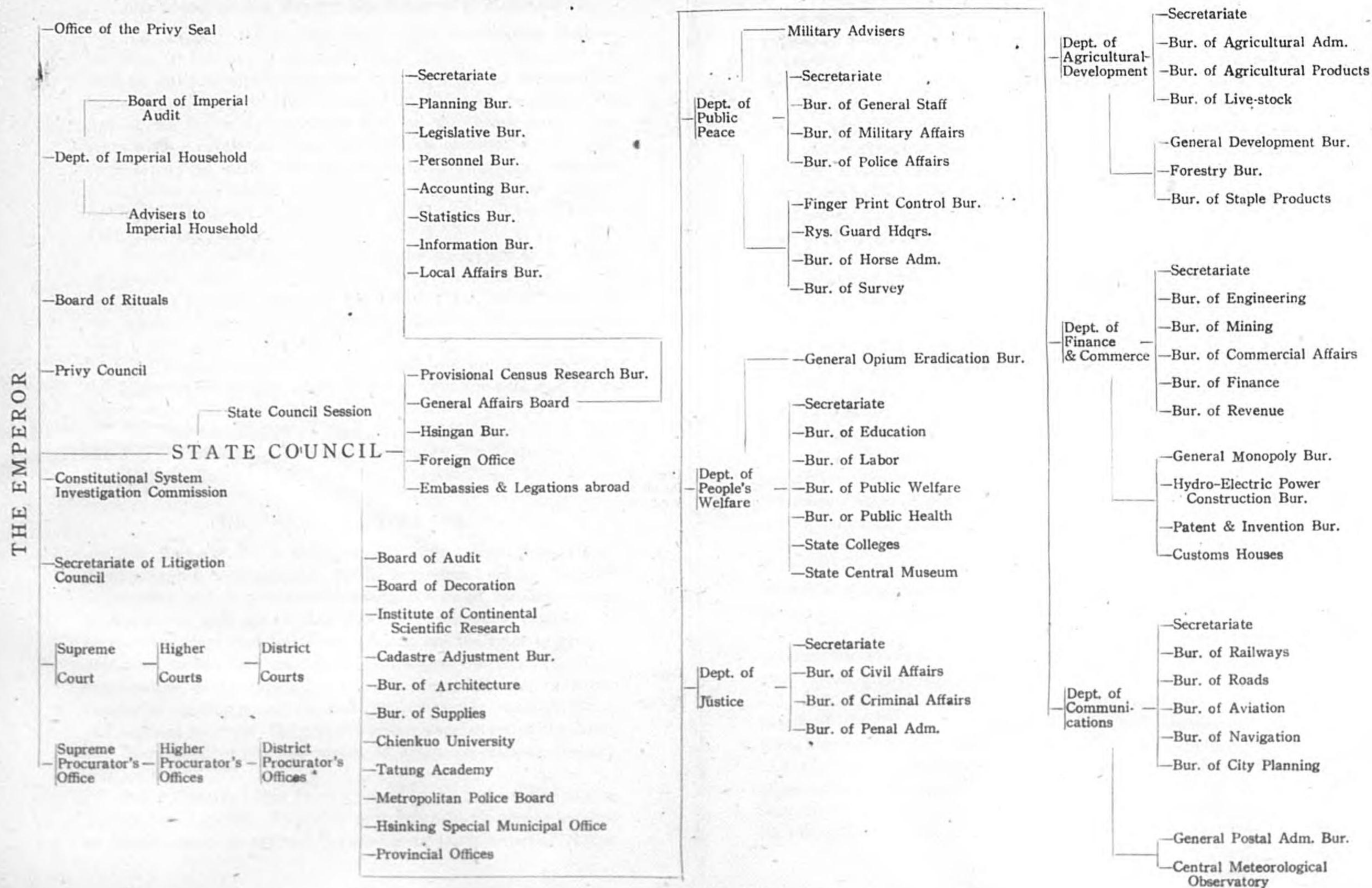
### THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

**The Emperor.** The Emperor rules over Manchoukuo and his dignity cannot be impaired. As the sovereign head of the State he exercises control over administrative powers of the Government in accordance with the Organic Law of Manchoukuo, exercises executive, judiciary and legislative powers, has the right to promulgate laws, orders and emergency ordinances, the right of official organization, of the appointment of officials and the determination of salaries of officials, and the right to declare war, conclude peace, and contract treaties. He is the supreme commander of the Army and Navy, and enjoys the rights to grant decorations, honours and amnesty.

**Privy Council.** The Privy Council is the highest consultative body to the Emperor. This body presents its views when consulted by the Emperor on matters pertaining to laws, Imperial House-



# DIAGRAMMATIC CHART OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM OF MANCHOUKUO





hold ordinances, imperial ordinances, budgets, the making of contracts other than appropriations which might be a burden on the national treasury, the conclusion of treaties and agreements, the issuance of declarations and statements to be made in the name of the Emperor to foreign governments; and other state affairs.

**Legislative Council.** The Legislative Council is an organ charged with the endorsement of laws, budgets, and contracts other than appropriations which might become a burden on the national treasury, while in dealing with state matters, it is empowered to submit proposals to the State Council and to accept petitions from the people. Ten articles of the Organic Law of Manchoukuo deal with the Legislative Council.

**State Council.** The State Council is in charge of all administrative affairs. At first, there were nine departments under the Prime Minister (Civil Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Defence, Finance, Industry, Communications, Justice, Education, and Mongolia Administration), one board (General Affairs Board), and four bureaus (Decorations, Capital Construction, State Highways, Repairs and Supplies), but in July, 1937, political administration was centered in the Prime Minister, the administrative departments were either merged or abolished for the purpose of simplifying and consolidating the administrative structure, the military and police organizations were unified with a view to accelerating the consolidation of public peace and order, relations between the central and local governments were made closer, the functions of local governments were expanded and consolidated, evils of standardization were removed, and for the purpose of facilitating the execution of economic and industrial development plans and for the purpose of attaining racial harmony, the organization of each department of the State Council was rearranged, and the three bureaus, the Foreign, Home (changed to Bureau of Local Affairs and placed under the jurisdiction of General Affairs Board in July 1939) and Hsingan Offices, the three administrative departments of Public Peace, People's Welfare and Justice, and the three economic departments of Industry, Finance and Commerce and Communications were also placed directly under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister. The Bureau of Audit and the Bureau of Decorations were also placed directly under State Council. It is provided for in the regulations that the Prime Minister



assist the Emperor in state affairs. For the purpose of unifying liaison concerning administrative matters, the system of State Council meetings was inaugurated by virtue of a State Council Order. The General Affairs Board is also directly under the State Council, and is entrusted with the management of important affairs, the drafting of guiding policies relating to the functions of each department or bureau, and with the maintenance of contact in general.

Moreover, the Institute of Scientific Research the Tatung Academy and the Chienkuo (National) University have been established for the purpose of conducting scientific research and for training men to become leaders in the construction of Manchoukuo, respectively. Furthermore, the Cadastre Adjustment Bureau has been formed for the purpose of establishing land registers, and the Bureau of Supplies and Repairs (divided into three bureaus namely, Supplies, Construction and Printing as of January 1, 1940), for repairing buildings, the expenses of which are met by the national treasury, for managing affairs related to the supplies fund special accounts, and for printing official bulletins, postal stamps, certificates, and the like.

### DECORATIONS

The regulation concerning Court Decorations was instituted on March 1, 1934 with the promulgation of the Act Governing Court Decorations. An ordinance was simultaneously issued with regard to the classification of court rank and court decoration. With the promulgation of the act the following decorations were created: Collar of the Grand Order of the Lanhua, Grand Cordon of the Lanhua, Order of Lungkuang, and Order of Ching-yun. On September 14, 1936 a further addition was made with the creation of the Order of Chukuo. To uphold the inherent virtues of these orders no monetary income is attached to any of the decorations.

Decorations granted by the Imperial Court of Manchoukuo are divided into five classifications as follows:

- (1) Ta-hsun-wei-lan-hua-chang-king-shin (the Collar of the Grand Order of the Lanhua), grantable only to holders of the Grand Order of Merit.
- (2) Ta-hsun-wei-lan-hua-ta-shou-chang (the Grand Cordon of

the Lanhua), grantable to those with or to be conferred the Grand Order of Merit.

- (3) Lung-kung-ta-shou-chang (the Order of Lungkuang), grantable only to those who are to be conferred or who have been conferred the First Order of Merit.
- (4) Ching-yun-chang (the Order of Ching-yun), grantable to those who are to be conferred any of the decorations from the First to the Eighth Order of Merit, excepting those who are to be presented with the order of Chukuo.
- (5) Chukuo-chang (the Order of Chukuo) grantable to those who are to be conferred any of the decorations from the First to the Eighth Order of Merit excepting those who are to be conferred with the order of Ching-yun.

There are three grades of medals in Manchoukuo which are classified as follows;

- (1) Chienkuo Merits Medal, created by the regulation of March 1st, 1933, and granted to those who have tendered service for the Foundation of State.
- (2) State Ceremony Commemoration Medal, granted in memory of the Imperial Coronation, of March 1st, 1934.
- (3) Imperial Visit to Japan Medal, Granted in order to commemorate H.I.M. the Emperor's visit to Japan, September 21, 1935.

Table 1. NO. OF DECORATIONS GRANTED CLASSIFIED

(May, 1934-July 1940)

	Manchou- kuoans	Japan- ese	Italians	Germans	Represen- tatives of Holy See	Total incl. Others
Collar of Lanhua ..	—	—	—	—	—	—
Lanhua .....	1	1	1	—	—	3
1st Order of Merit:						
Lungkuang .....	8	24	—	—	—	33
Chingyun-chang ...	80	23	4	—	3	110
Chukuo-chang ....	30	10	6	—	—	47
2nd Order of Merit:						
Chingyun-chang ...	144	42	—	—	1	187
Chukuo-chang .....	60	23	10	1	2	97
3rd Order of Merit:						
Chingyun-chang ...	196	503	2	—	—	701
Chukuo-chang ....	188	63	7	1	—	260



(Continued)	Manchou- kuoans	Japan- ese	Italians	Germans	Represen- tatives of Holy See	Total incl. Others
4th Order of Merit:						
Chingyun-chang ...	636	1,179	5	—	—	1,820
Chukuo-chang .....	577	75	5	—	—	657
5th Order of Merit:						
Chingyun-chang ...	2,328	1,118	1	—	—	3,447
Chukuo-chang .....	1,731	42	4	—	—	1,777
6th Order of Merit:						
Chingyun-chang ...	5,255	1,001	1	—	—	6,257
Chukuo-chang .....	2,711	17	—	—	—	2,728
7th Order of Merit:						
Chingyun-chang ...	5,865	2,464	—	—	—	8,329
Chukuo-chang .....	9,505	19	—	—	—	9,524
8th Order of Merit:						
Chingyun-chang ...	28,717	4,989	—	—	—	33,706
Chukuo-chang .....	24,464	—	—	—	—	24,464
Total .....	82,496	11,593	46	2	6	94,147

Table 2. SCALE OF SALARY OF CIVIL OFFICIALS

Te-jen:—	Salary (Unit: Yuan)
Prime Minister .....	1,800
Chairman, Privy Council .....	1,500
Privy Councillor .....	
State Minister .....	
Dir.-Gen., General Affairs Board .....	1,300
President, Bureau of Foreign Affairs .....	
Ambassador—Extraordinary & Plenipotentiary .....	
President, Hsingan Bureau .....	
President, National University .....	
President, Tatung Academy .....	1,100
Supreme Court Chief .....	
Procurator, Chief .....	
Provincial Chief .....	
Vice-Pres. National University .....	
Pres. Continental Scientific Research .....	

(As revised in Nov. 1940)

*Chien-jen:—	Salary	Chien-jen:—	Salary
1st class .....	800	1-20 class .....	520-115
2nd " .....	750		
3rd " .....	700		
4th " .....	650	Wei-jen:—	
5th " .....	600	A. 1-35 class .....	250- 32
6th " .....	550	B. 1-32 " .....	95- 13
7th " .....	500		

Note: \* Though pronounced alike as the rank which it follows, the characters which identify them are different.

Table 3. NO. OF CIVIL OFFICIALS

(as in January 1940)

Te-jen .....	* 16	Chien-jen .....	5,668
*Chien-jen .....	335	Wei-jen .....	169,403

## LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

**The Provincial Government.** The Provincial Government is the organ that administers affairs of the province, the highest local administrative unit in the state. There are at present 18 provinces whose governments were improved and are functioning under the Organization Law of the Provincial Governments, promulgated in December, 1937, and the two separate laws concerning the organization of the Heiho Provincial Government and the Hsingan Provincial Governments, the latter being enacted in September, 1935.

The Provincial Governor enforces laws and orders, and has charge of administrative affairs of the province under supervision and direction of the Prime Minister and of the State Ministers concerned in matters coming under their jurisdiction. He also exercises supervision and direction over all provincial officials, mayors, hsien magistrates, banner chiefs, and police heads within the province, is authorized to issue provincial decrees in connection with administrative affairs of his province, and is entitled to request the dispatch of troops for the purpose of maintaining public peace and order within the province.

The Provincial Government consists of the Secretariat, and the Public Welfare, Police Affairs, Industry, and Public Works Boards. In regions where there is little or no need for the Industry and Public Works Boards, either or both of these boards may be omitted, with a view to especially avoiding undue formality in organization. There is no Public Works Board in Lungkiang, Jehol, Chinchou, Antung, Chientao and Sankiang provinces, while Tunghua and Mutankiang provinces lack both the Industry and Public Works Boards. Moreover, the vice-governor system and the provincial counsellor system were inaugurated in December, 1937, and liaison conferences on important provincial affairs are held from time to time.



**The Heiho Provincial Government.** At first Heiho Province was administered under the Organization Law of the Provinces just as other provinces were, but owing to its exceedingly small population and its special geographical position, a special Heiho provincial administrative system has been introduced. The regulations regarding the division of the Heiho Provincial Government differ from those of ordinary provinces firstly in that there is no secretariat, or public welfare or other boards, the Government being composed of General Affairs, Public Welfare, and Police Affairs Sections; and secondly, in that the hsien offices of Heiho Province are not separate juridical persons but are attached directly to the Provincial Government.

**The Hsingan Provincial Governments.** Since conditions in the Hsingan Provinces differed greatly from those of other provinces, the Organization Law of the Hsingan Provincial Governments was promulgated in September, 1935. As the result of a number of revisions carried out since then, the administrative system now in force was promulgated in December, 1937. The provincial governors enforce laws and orders, and take charge of administrative affairs of the provinces, as in other provinces under supervision and direction of the Prime Minister and of the State Ministers concerned in matters coming under their jurisdiction. There is, however, no vice-governor system, only the counsellor system being adopted; through which the regeneration of the Mongol race is being achieved. There is a Secretariat, and Public Welfare and Police Affairs Boards in each Tsingan Province.

**The Special Municipality.** In accordance with the promulgation in July, 1933, of the Special Municipality System, Hsinking and Harbin were placed under this system, but as a result of the administrative reform of July, 1937, only Hsinking became a special municipality. The special municipality, which is a juridical person, conducts administration within its jurisdiction, and is authorized to impose taxes upon the municipal population. The Mayor of this self-governing organization is under supervision of the Prime Minister.

**The Municipality.** The municipality is also a juridical person but under supervision of the provincial governor. The municipal system is now enforced in fourteen cities, namely, Harbin, Mukden, Kirin, Tsitsihar, Mutankiang, Chinchou, Chiamussu,

Antung, Fushun, Yingkou, Anshan, Ssupingkai, Liaoyang and Tiehling.

**The Hsien (district).** The hsien is the fundamental local administrative unit in Manchoukuo. It is both government administered and self-governing. The hsien in the past had lacked the functions of a self-governing body, but ever since the foundation of Manchoukuo the Government has striven to reform and consolidate the hsien system. A number of revisions were carried out following the promulgation of the hsien administrative system in July, 1932, while a general reorganization was effected in December, 1937. There were 163 hsien throughout the country in November, 1938.

Immediately following the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident, or in November of the year preceding the foundation of the State, the Autonomy Guidance Headquarters dispatched a number of directing officials to twenty odd hsien in Fengtien Province for the purpose of restoring peace and order, and for the establishment of local autonomy. Administrative organs in the form of committees were established, and together with the formation of the Fengtien Provincial Government in December of the following year, the Provisional Hsien Office Law was enacted in January of the next year, but as Kirin and Heilungkiang Provinces still retained the old system of hsien organization, Decree No. 54 regarding the organization of hsien was promulgated in July, 1932, together with Decree No. 55 on the hsien self-government system. Furthermore, in accordance with the provisions of a Department of Civil Affairs order issued in August, 1933, by a provisional reorganization of the hsien, councillors, directing officials and auditors were distributed among the hsien and each hsien office was instructed to revise its organization; the hsien office and various bureaus which were hitherto in conflict with the former were unified and amalgamated with the hsien office. The execution of functions was, moreover, rationalized, the budget and accounting systems were inaugurated, the contract system which was the root of all corruption under the former regime, was abolished, and sound and honest hsien finance was introduced. In this manner, the hsien system underwent a complete change.

However, as conditions differed in each hsien, which required adjustment conforming to the standard and ability of the local



inhabitants, and owing to changes introduced by the abolition of extraterritoriality by Japan, the Government found it necessary to carry out another sweeping reform of hsien organization. In June 1937 the Government accordingly announced the principles of the projected hsien reform, which was on the whole completed in December of the same year.

The principal revisions were:

1. **Area of hsien.** In view of the establishment of new municipalities, or changes in the areas of old municipalities and other special local conditions, certain hsien were abolished or their boundaries revised. Hsinlung-hsien (Jehol Province) and Sunwu-hsien (Heiho Province) were newly established, and Yingkou-hsien (Fengtien Province) was abolished, while a few changes were made in hsien and provincial boundaries.

2. **Functions of hsien.** The hsien is administered by the Government as an administrative unit of the country, and is in principle, a public juridical person (all hsien of Heiho Province are not). However, they are not entitled to have consultative organs.

3. **Organization of hsien.** In view of the varying conditions in localities, standardized organization was eliminated, organs affected by the abolition of extraterritoriality and the transfer of administrative rights were readjusted and consolidated, the hsien councillor system was abolished and replaced by the assistant hsien-magistrate system, the offices of the assistant councillor, the police affairs directing official and of the auditor were abolished, and the functions were divided according to offices.

**Banner.** The only political unit in Mongolia is the banner, which is also a self-governing administrative unit. The name banner finds its origin in the days of the Ching dynasty's rise to power. The Ching dynasty, grateful for the meritorious services rendered by the Mongols, granted pastureland, organized a banner in each village based on the eight banner army organization, appointed a chief to head each banner, and enrolled the bannermen in its army. Later the banner system began to degenerate with the penetration of the Hans (Chinese) and the oppression of warlords, but when Manchoukuo was founded, the General Adminis-

trative Office of the Hsingan Provinces was created in view of the peculiar conditions existing in Mongolian society. Furthermore, in December, 1934, the Department of Mongolia Administration was established simultaneously with the inauguration of the system of local government but after a number of revisions, the Department was abolished in July, 1937, and the Hsingan Office was organized and attached to the State Council. Minor changes were made in banner organization. At the present time, there is a total of twenty-nine banners.

**Towns and Villages.** Towns and villages are the lower administrative units of the country, towns being based upon the Town System Law and villages on the Village System Law, but both differ in no respect from each other as far as fundamental organization is concerned, except in minor details, culture and the scope of functions depending upon the standards of inhabitants.

The town and village systems were inaugurated for the first time on January 1, 1937, but prior to this date, the village system had been adopted in a certain section of the former Liaoning Province in accordance with the provisional law establishing this system. In 1936, the village system was adopted on a temporary basis in Fengtien and four other provinces, and this became the foundation of the present town and village systems. Racial harmony is the fundamental principle underlying the establishment of the two systems. Both units are recognized as juridical persons and the policy of large villages is being followed.

Towns whose system is similar to that of municipalities, number 103 in all at the present time, while villages which were formed by combining rural villages, total 1,970.

Table 4. LIST OF PROVINCES, CITIES, PREFECTURES AND BANNERS (1940)

Province		Province	
Hsinking Special Municipality	新 京 特別市	Ssupingkai City	四平街市
Fengtien Province	奉 天 省	Tieh-ling City	鐵嶺市
Mukden City*	奉 天 市	Liao-yang (pref.)	遼 陽
Fushun City	撫 順 市	Liao-Chung (pref.)	遼 中
Yingkow City	營 口 市	Pen-Hsi (pref.)	本 溪
Aushan City	鞍 山 市	Fushun (pref.)	撫 順
Liao-yang City	遼 陽 市	Shen-yang (pref.)	瀋 陽



Province	
Tieh Ling (pref.)	鐵嶺
Kai-Yuan (pref.)	開原
Hsin-Min (pref.)	新民
Fa Ku (pref.)	法庫
Kang-Ping (pref.)	康平
Hai-cheng (pref.)	海城
Kaiping (pref.)	蓋平
Fu-hsien (pref.)	復
Hsineching (pref.)	興京
Ching-yuan (pref.)	清原
Hsi-feng (pref.)	西豐
Chang-tu (pref.)	昌圖
Li-shu (pref.)	梨樹
Shwangshan (pref.)	雙山
Liao-yuan (pref.)	遼源
Hai-lung (pref.)	海龍
Tung-feng (pref.)	東豐
Sian (pref.)	西安
<b>Kirin Province</b>	<b>吉林省</b>
Kirin City*	吉林市
Changchun (pref.)	長春
Shwang-yang (pref.)	雙陽
I-Tung (pref.)	伊通
Teh-Hui (pref.)	德惠
Kiu-Tai (pref.)	九臺
Nen-An (pref.)	農安
Chang-ling (pref.)	長嶺
Chien-An (pref.)	乾安
Fu-yu (pref.)	扶餘
Yung-Ki (pref.)	永吉
Su-Lan (pref.)	舒蘭
Ke-Mu (pref.)	額穆
Tun-hwa (pref.)	敦化
Hwa-tien (pref.)	樺甸
Pan-Shih (pref.)	磐石
Yu-Shu (pref.)	榆樹
Huai-Teh (pref.)	懷德
Koerlos front banner	郭爾羅斯前旗
<b>Lungkiang Province</b>	<b>龍江省</b>
Tsitsihar City*	齊齊哈爾市
Lungkiang (pref.)	龍江
Tailai (pref.)	泰來
Taikang (pref.)	泰康
Chingshin (pref.)	景星
Kan-nan (pref.)	甘南

Province	
Fu-yu (pref.)	富裕
Lientien (pref.)	林甸
Noho (pref.)	訥河
Talai (pref.)	大賚
Feng-chuan (pref.)	醴泉
An-Kwang (pref.)	安廣
Cheng-Tung (pref.)	鎮東
Kai-Tung (pref.)	開通
Yen-Yu (pref.)	贛榆
Taonan (pref.)	洮南
Paichen (pref.)	白城
Toerpater banner	杜爾伯特旗
Weiko banner	位克
Ming-an banner	明安旗
<b>Jehol Province</b>	<b>熱河省</b>
Chengteh-kai*	承德街
Chengteh (pref.)	承德
Hsin-lung (pref.)	興隆
Lan-Ping (pref.)	灤平
Feng-Ning (pref.)	豐寧
Lung-Hwa (pref.)	隆化
Chien-Chang (pref.)	建昌 (喀喇沁左旗)
Ching-Lung (pref.)	青龍
Ning-Cheng (pref.)	寧城 (喀喇沁中旗)
Chifeng (pref.)	赤峰(翁牛特右旗)
Weichang (pref.)	圍場
Chien-ping (pref.)	建平 (喀喇沁右旗)
Hsin-hui (pref.)	新惠(敖漢旗)
Wutan (pref.)	烏丹(翁牛特左旗)
<b>Pinkiang Province</b>	<b>濱江省</b>
Harbin City*	哈爾濱市
Acheng (pref.)	阿城
Ping-hsien (pref.)	賓
Shwangcheng (pref.)	雙城
Wuchang (pref.)	五常
Chubo (pref.)	珠河
Weiho (pref.)	葦河
Yenshou (pref.)	延壽
Hulan (pref.)	呼蘭
Payen (pref.)	巴彥
Mulan (pref.)	木蘭
Chaotung (pref.)	柴東

Province	
Chaochow (pref.)	肇洲
Lansi (pref.)	蘭西
Tunghsing (pref.)	東興
Anta (pref.)	安達
Chingkang (pref.)	青岡
Kuerlos rear banner	郭爾羅斯後旗
<b>Chinchow Province</b>	<b>錦州省</b>
Chinchow City*	錦州市
Chin-hsien (pref.)	錦
Chinsi (pref.)	錦西
Hsinecheng (pref.)	興城
Suichung (pref.)	綏中
I-hsien (pref.)	義
Peichen (pref.)	北鎮
Panshan (pref.)	盤山
Taian (pref.)	臺安
Heishan (pref.)	黑山
Changwu (pref.)	彰武
Chaoyang (pref.)	朝陽(吐默特右旗)
Fuhsin (pref.)	(阜新)吐默特左旗
<b>Antung Province</b>	<b>安東省</b>
Antung City*	安東市
Antung (pref.)	安東
Fengeheng (pref.)	鳳城
Shiuyen (pref.)	岫巖
Chwangho (pref.)	莊河
Kuantien (pref.)	寬甸
Kuanen (pref.)	桓仁
<b>Chientao Province</b>	<b>閩島省</b>
Yenki-kai*	延吉街
Yenki (pref.)	延吉
Wangching (pref.)	汪清
Holung (pref.)	和龍
Hunchun (pref.)	珲春
Antu (pref.)	安圖
<b>Sankiang Province</b>	<b>三江省</b>
Chiamussu City*	佳木斯市
Fangcheng (pref.)	方正
I-lan (pref.)	依蘭
Poli (pref.)	勃利
Fu-yuan (pref.)	撫遠
Tungchiang (pref.)	同江
Fuchin (pref.)	富錦
Hwachuan (pref.)	樺川

Province	
Tungho (pref.)	通河
Tangyuan (pref.)	湯原
Lopei (pref.)	蘿北
Suiping (pref.)	綏濱
Holi (pref.)	鶴立
<b>Tunghua Province</b>	<b>通化省</b>
Tunghua-kai*	通化街
Tunghua (pref.)	通化
Lenkiang (pref.)	臨江
Changpai (pref.)	長白
Fushun (pref.)	撫松
Hui-nan (pref.)	輝南
Chinghuan (pref.)	金川
Liuho (pref.)	柳河
Mengkiang (pref.)	濛江
Chinan (pref.)	輯安
<b>Mutankiang Province</b>	<b>牡丹江省</b>
Mutankiang City*	牡丹江市
Ningan (pref.)	寧安
Tungnin (pref.)	東寧
Mulin (pref.)	穆稜
Suiyang (pref.)	綏陽
<b>Tungan Province</b>	<b>東安省</b>
Tungan-kai*	東安街
Hulin (pref.)	虎林
Yoho (pref.)	饒河
Paoching (pref.)	寶清
Linkou (pref.)	林口
Mishan (pref.)	密山
<b>Peian Province</b>	<b>北安省</b>
Peian-kai*	北安街
Suiling (pref.)	綏稜
Tiehli (pref.)	鐵驪
Chingcheng (pref.)	慶城
Suihua (pref.)	綏化
Hailun (pref.)	海倫
Wangkwei (pref.)	望奎
I-an (pref.)	依安
Peian (pref.)	北安
Tehyu (pref.)	德都
Koshan (pref.)	克山
Kgtung (pref.)	克東
Paichuan (pref.)	拜泉
Mingshui (pref.)	明水



Province	Province
Tungpei (pref.) . . . . . 通北	banner . . . . . 科爾沁左翼中旗
Nenkiang (pref.) . . . . . 嫩江	Tungliao (pref.) . . . . . 通遼縣
Heiho Province . . . . . 黑河省	Koershin left wing rear banner . . . . . 科爾沁左翼後旗
Heiho-kai* . . . . . 黑河街	Koershin left wing front banner . . . . . 科爾沁左翼前旗
Moho (pref.) . . . . . 漠河	Hulunbair banner . . . . . 庫倫旗
O-pu (pref.) . . . . . 鷓鴣	West Hsingan Province . . . . . 興安西省
Huma (pref.) . . . . . 呼瑪	Kailu* . . . . . 開魯
Aigun (pref.) . . . . . 愛珥	Chaluter banner . . . . . 扎魯特旗
Chiko (pref.) . . . . . 奇克	Arlukershin banner . . . . . 阿魯科爾沁旗
Shunho (pref.) . . . . . 遜河	Palin left wing banner . . . . . 巴林左翼旗
Wuyuen (pref.) . . . . . 烏雲	Palin right wing banner . . . . . 巴林右翼旗
Foshan (pref.) . . . . . 佛山	Linsi (pref.) . . . . . 林西縣
Sunwu (pref.) . . . . . 孫吳	Koshikhoter banner . . . . . 克什克騰旗
East Hsingan Province . . . . . 興安東省	Kailu (pref.) . . . . . 開魯縣
Chatan-tun* . . . . . 札蘭屯	Aiman banner . . . . . 奈曼旗
Payen banner . . . . . 巴彥旗	North Hsingan Province . . . . . 興安北省
Molitawa banner . . . . . 莫力達瓦旗	Hailar* . . . . . 海拉爾
Aiyung banner . . . . . 阿榮旗	Noerkona right wing banner . . . . . 額爾克納右翼旗
Chiterha banner . . . . . 布特哈旗	Noerkona left wing banner . . . . . 額爾克納左翼旗
Shitacher banner . . . . . 喜扎嘎爾旗	Chenpaerhu banner . . . . . 陳巴爾虎旗
South Hsingan Province . . . . . 興安南省	Solung banner . . . . . 索倫旗
Wangyemiao* . . . . . 王爺廟	Hsinpaerhu right wing banner . . . . . 新巴爾虎右翼旗
Chalaiter banner . . . . . 扎賚特旗	Hsinpaerhu left wing banner . . . . . 新巴爾虎左翼旗
Koershin right wing front banner . . . . . 科爾沁右翼前旗	
Koershin right wing rear banner . . . . . 科爾沁右翼後旗	
Koershin right wing central banner . . . . . 科爾沁右翼中旗	
Koershin left wing central banner . . . . . 科爾沁左翼中旗	

### REORGANIZATION OF JULY 1, 1937

**Reorganization of Central Administrative Organs.** During the first five years of Manchoukuo statehood, chief effort in the sphere of national administration was directed toward the abolition or reform of all vestiges of the former regime and the perfection of a centralized administration through the incorporation of new constitutional principles. Thus was introduced the system of four independent branches of administration peculiar to Manchoukuo, namely, the State Council, the Legislative Council, the Courts of Justice, and the Supervisory Council. The Prime Min-

ister headed the State Council and controlled the Ministers of eight Departments, namely, Civil Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Defence, Finance, Industry, Communication, Justice and Education. The Hsingan Provincial Bureau within the State Council was later modified and raised to the status of a Department under the name of the Department of Mongolian Affairs, thus completing the system of nine Departments. The Imperial Household Department looked after the affairs of the Imperial Household while the Privy Council advised the Emperor on important State affairs. And thus, for the first time since its founding Manchoukuo came to enjoy the real benefit of statehood with its administrative organs in the modern sense of the term.

But after five years of experimentation and regimentation, a readjustment in various phases of national administration became a matter of necessity and a serious study was instituted in that direction. As the result of this study, a complete reorganization of the national administrative organs was effected on July 1, 1937. In this reorganization, the following points were given special emphasis:

(1) While thoroughly clarifying the administrative structure as a whole, unified control over the planning and execution of State affairs by the various Departments of the Government to be strengthened, so as to facilitate the efficient functioning of the State.

(2) For the purpose of effecting immediate restoration of public peace and order, the organs concerned to be unified and strengthened under a single control, and at the same time, special consideration to be paid to attaining harmony between regional, military and police organizations, and general administrative organs.

(3) The most appropriate organization for the purpose of facilitating economic development or more precisely the execution of the Five Year Industrial Development Plan to be instituted, and the control over heavy industries to be strengthened and consolidated.

(4) Popular will and national strength to be developed and cultivated, and for the purpose of facilitating the development of villages, the Government organs concerned to be rationally unified and strengthened.



(5) Closer relations between the Central and Local Governments to be developed, the functions of local administrative organs to be expanded and strengthened, and the evils of standardization to be eradicated.

(6) Local self-government to be fostered and improved, and administrative, cultural, and economic systems to be coordinated and consolidated.

The main features of this drastic reorganization of July 1937 were the reversion to the system of three independent branches of administration, namely, the State Council, the Legislative Council, and the Courts of Justice, and the revision of the number of Departments to six, namely, Public Peace, People's Welfare, Industry, Finance and Commerce, Communications, and Justice. The salient points in the reorganization may be summarized as follows:

(1) Elimination of the practice of submitting views to the throne by the Privy Council.

(2) Elimination of the Supervisory Council and creation of Bureau of Audit in the State Council.

(3) Establishment of an Office of Home Affairs in the State Council to take charge, under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister, of matters concerning the general guidance of local organization and the general supervision of Provincial governors.

(4) Inauguration of a Planning Council, under the direct control of the Prime Minister, to study and to deliberate upon basic national policies.

(5) Abolition of the Department of Foreign Affairs and creation of a new office of Foreign Affairs, under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister, and the transfer of matters concerning commercial affairs to the new Department of Finance and Commerce.

(6) Creation of the Department of the Public Peace through amalgamation and reorganization of the Department of Defence and the Bureau of Police Affairs in the Department of Civil Affairs, to take charge of the police affairs of the State in addition to matters concerning national defence.

(7) Abolition of the Department of the Mongolian Affairs and creation of an Office of Hsingan Affairs, under the direct

control of the Prime Minister, to coordinate matters concerning the administration of the Mongols.

(8) Reorganization of the existing Departments of Civil Affairs, Industry, Finance, Communications, and Education into four Departments of People's Welfare, Industry, Finance and Commerce, and Communications.

(9) Continuation without modification of the Department of Justice and its courts.

Further revisions were effected from time to time as necessities of adjustments arose. In line with this policy, the Office of Home Affairs was changed to the Bureau of Local Affairs and placed under the direct supervision of the General Affairs Board in July, 1939.

**Reorganization of Local Organization.** An efficient administration of Manchoukuo required an efficient organization of local administration. For such a purpose, the administrative divisions which existed in Manchuria prior to the founding of the new State were too general and unscientific and thus a complete renovation of administrative divisions became a matter of pre-requisite in realizing a new and enlightened administration. At the same time, geographical factors and the trend of new development had caused the appearance of new political and economic centers.

It was under such circumstances that the first step toward the reorganization of local administrative system was effected on December 1, 1934, when the former "Four North-Eastern Provinces" were replaced by fourteen Sheng or Provinces. This reorganization was conducted in line with the recommendations made by the Local Administrative Research Commission which had made exhaustive studies concerning improvement of local administration. The principles underlying this and subsequent reforms were as follows:

- A. Local administrative organs shall be adjusted so that they will conform to the actual condition of their respective localities.
  1. Local administrative organs shall be unified as far as local conditions and functions permit.
  2. Standardization shall be avoided, but local administrative organs shall be made to conform to local conditions and national requirements.



3. Reports and items of enquiry shall be adjusted, and appropriate powers and functions shall be delegated.
  4. Necessary modifications shall be made in the borders of the provinces.
- B. Cooperative associations shall be popularized and the system of local self-government shall be improved.
1. Industrial unions and local organizations which strive for harmony between administration and economy shall be placed in close relationship with each other. To attain this end, the self-governing organs of these two groups of organizations shall be connected through personnel, while the jurisdiction of the two shall be made to coincide as much as possible.
  2. Local self-government shall be improved and properly controlled in conformity with the ability of the races for self-government.
    - a) Directors of local organizations shall be officials or governmental appointees.
    - b) For the time being, no organ with voting power shall be established in local organizations. In cases where consultative organs are found, the members shall not be elected by popular vote.
    - c) As to the scope of self-government, it shall be wider in lower organizations, and the policy of gradual diffusion shall be adopted according to the state of progress and abilities of the inhabitants.
    - d) In line with the adjustment policy of the Paochia (a group of families with a head) and towns and cities, the former shall gradually be incorporated into the latter.

Under the local administrative reform of December 1, 1934, a Province became a mere administrative organ of the Central Government while the division of administrative functions between central and local authorities were clearly demarcated. Consequently, the Governor of a Province remains under the charge and supervision of the Prime Minister and the Departmental Ministers. The Governor is empowered to enforce all laws and to fulfill all instructions within his Province and superintends all affairs

of administrative character. On the other hand, unlike the practices of the former regime, the collection of taxes, the stationing of troops and the compilation of budgets are done under the direction of the Central Government. The realization of this noteworthy change not only helped to unify local administration, but also eliminated opportunities for fraudulent practices and divisional dissensions which characterized the local administration before 1932.

The Province, under the new system, was further sub-divided into Hsien or Districts and Hsien into Chu or Counties and Tsun or Villages as the last local administrative units. In addition, the Hsinking and Harbin Special Municipalities and the North Manchuria Special District (it was abolished on January 1, 1936) were placed under the direct jurisdiction of the Department of Civil Affairs. Moreover, in the districts where the Mongols predominate, the Mongolian tradition was followed and preserved to a large extent. Thus, the administrative unit of the Hsingan Provinces is Chi or Banner, a legal body under the supervision of the State with an autonomous assembly to determine the budget and other important matters.

The second noteworthy step toward the reform of local administration was taken on July 1, 1937, in conjunction with the general administrative reorganization pursued by the State. On this occasion two new Provinces, namely, Tunghua and Mutankiang were created in addition to the then existing fourteen Provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Lungkiang, Pinkiang, Jehol, Chinchou, Antung, Sankiang, Chientao, Heiho and the four Hsingan Provinces (East, West, North, South). With the exception of the four Hsingan Provinces, it expanded the function of the Provincial Government and made its constitution quite elastic so as to make the functional divisions conform with the local needs; instead of following a standardized formula irrespective of the local needs, it abolished the Harbin Special Municipality and incorporated it into the city of Harbin, thus limiting the "Special Municipality" system to Hsinking only; it created ten new cities, namely, Antung, Fushun, Yingkou, Anshan, Ssuping kai, Liaoyang and Tiehling in anticipation of the relinquishment of Japan's extraterritorial rights within the South Manchuria Railway Zone (as abolished on December 1, 1937), and Mutankiang, Chinchou and Chia-



mussu; it left the organizations and functions of Banner untouched; it instituted a Police Bureau in each city; it created a Fourth District Postal Administration Office at Chinchou and prepared the way for the expansion of city and village postal functions in anticipation of the relinquishment of extraterritoriality by Japan. In short, it strengthened the local administrative machinery to cooperate fully with the reorganized Central Government but made its organization adjustable to the local needs rather than following a fixed formula.

Then again in line with the policy of developing the northern frontier districts, Tungan and Peian Provinces were created on June 1, 1939.

### REFORM OF GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATION LAW

(July 15, 1940)

With the sacred object of clarifying the fact that shrine administration in Manchoukuo belongs to the supreme power invested in the Emperor and that national religious services shall be administered by a Board of Rituals, the Government on July 15th promulgated a revision of the Organic Law as well as regulations governing the organization of the Board of Rituals, which is to take charge of affairs concerning all ceremonies and buildings of the The State Foundation Shrine and The State Foundation Mausoleum for National Martyrs. In view of the extreme importance of the present revision of the basic Organic Law of Manchoukuo, Imperial Instructions were issued in connection with the revision, a translation of which follows:

We hereby order the authorities to promulgate and enforce a revision of the Organic Law for erection of the State Foundation Shrine so that we may personally observe State Rituals with due respect and sincerity, and also for establishment of Board of Rituals for regular observance of national ceremonies and undertake necessary duties for the purpose. We desire our subjects to think of the prime principle of the foundation of the Empire and the origin of religion and politics, so that they may have one faith and never prove delinquent in their pious duties." The Organic Law is revised so as to add Article 9 providing for the personal conduct of rituals by the Emperor, and Chapter 2 and Article 15 to the effect that the Board of Rituals shall take charge of matters related to State rituals, according to the provisions of an Imperial decree. The revisions comes in effect on and after July 15, 1940.

On the Imperial Rescript issued Premier Chang made the following statement:

H.I.M. the Emperor personally performed the ceremony of dedicating the State Foundation Shrine to Amaterasu-Omikami in the Palace grounds early this morning, and issued the Rescript on the establishment of the Shrine. His Majesty commanded us to assist in the unprecedented ceremony, and deeply impressed us all with the grant of the Rescript.

The Emperor of Manchoukuo has always identified himself in thought and action with H.I.M. the Emperor of Japan. He has his comprehension of the unique character of Japanese polity deepened by his recent visit to the Island Empire. In his profound belief in the oneness with Japan, and in view of the basic principles of our national foundation, he has established the State Foundation Shrine and dedicated the same to Amaterasu-Omikami, in order to set an example of gratitude and secure national welfare under the protection of the enshrined Deity, declaring at the same time that his descendants will not fail for all eternity in the devotion to the Deity, thus determining and establishing the immutable foundations of national polity and worship.

His Majesty has ordered the creation of a Board of Rituals to take charge of matters relating to National worship. He has made this decision, we humbly presume, out of his pious desire to personally conduct State services.

In conformity with the Imperial Rescript issued to-day, the people of Manchoukuo must conduct themselves in harmony, each doing his best in his station to contribute to the consolidation of the State and the advancement of national power.

Simultaneously with the Rescript on the establishment of the State Foundation Shrine, His Majesty decreed an amnesty, granting an Imperial favour upon the unfortunate persons in person. We are struck with the immensity of Imperial benevolence. The people of Manchoukuo should never fail to their service to the State, realizing that the amnesty granted by the Emperor is due to the guidance of Amaterasu-Omikami responding to the prayers of His Majesty.

Table 5. OCCUPANTS OF LEADING MANCHOUKUO GOVERNMENT POSTS

(August, 1940)

Minister of the Imperial Household .....	Hsi Chia
Vice-Minister of the Imperial Household .....	Torao Kagoshima
Lord Keeper of Privy Seal .....	Yuan Chin-kai
Chief Aide-de-Camp .....	General Chang Hai-peng
President of Privy Council .....	Tsang Shih-i
Vice-President of Privy Council .....	Toranosuke Hashimoto
President, Board of Rituals .....	Toranosuke Hashimoto
<b>State Council:</b>	
Prime Minister .....	General Chang Ching-hui



Minister, Dept. of Public Peace .....	General Yu Cheng-cheng
" " " " .....	Saburo Shibuya
Minister, Dept. of People's Welfare .....	Lu Yun-huang
Vice-Minister, " " .....	Tadashi Dohi
Minister, Dept. of Agriculture .....	Yu Ching-yuan
Vice-Minister, " " .....	Seitaro Yuki
Minister, Dept. of Finance & Commerce .....	Tsai Yun-sheng
Vice-Minister, " " .....	Tadayuki Furumi
Minister, Dept. of Communications .....	Li Shao-keng
Vice-Minister, " " .....	Takeo Iino
Minister, Dept. of Justice .....	Chang Huan-hsiang
Vice-Minister, " " .....	Tokusuke Oikawa
Dir.-General, General Affairs Board .....	Rokuzo Takebe
Vice-Dir.-General " " " " .....	Tamotsu Matsuki
" " " " " " " " .....	Ku Tsu-heng
Dir.-General, Foreign Office .....	Wei Huan-chang
Dir.-General, Hsingan Office .....	Cha Ko-erh
Dir.-General, Board of Audit .....	Shizuo Arai
Dir.-General, Decoration Board .....	Chang Lan-wen
Supt.-General, Metropolitan Police Board .....	Chiang Chuang Wo
President, Tatung Academy .....	Tadaya Inouye
President, Chienkuo University .....	General Chang Ching-hui
President, Institute of Scientific Research .....	Umetaro Suzuki

**Diplomatic & Consular Service:**

Ambassador to Japan .....	Yuan Chen-tuo
Minister to Italy (also to Spain) .....	Lo Cheng-peng
Minister to Germany .....	Lu I-wen
Consul-General at Hamburg .....	Au Tsi-yun
" " " " Warsaw .....	Boku Shaku-in
Consul at Chita .....	Ku Chung-shan
" " " " Blagovestchensk .....	Yuan Tao
Consul at Shingishu .....	Yu Chun
Honorary Consul at Moji .....	Sazo Idemitsu
" " " " Osaka .....	Riichi Ezaki
" " " " Niigata .....	Ryosaku Shirase

**Governors of Provinces:**

Fengtien .....	Chin Jung-kuei	Lungkiang .....	Huan Fu-tung
Kirin .....	Lu Chieh-hsin	Jehol .....	Wang Yun-ching
Antung .....	Ting Chao	Chinchow .....	Chiang En-Chih
Chientao .....	Shoichi Kanki	Peian .....	Shiao Lu-Peng
Tunghua .....	Chang Shu Han	Tungan .....	Tatsuo Minoike
Mutankiang .....	Kiyoshi Mitani	Hsingan East .....	Eh Le-chun
Sankiang .....	Lu Yuan-shan	Hsingan West .....	Ne-la-ko-erh-cha-pu
Pinkiang .....	Yu Ching Tao	Hsingan South .....	Shou Ming-a
Heiho .....	Yoji Hamada	Hsingan North .....	Eh-lu-chin-pa-tuh

(Continued)

**Mayors of Municipalities:**

Hsinking .....	Chin Ming-Shih
Harbin .....	Chao Chen
Mukden .....	Chen Yu
Pushun .....	Heishiro Koinuma

**State Banks of Manchoukuo:**

President, Central Bank of Manchou .....	Kan Chao-Shi
Vice-President, " " " " .....	Kikutaro Osawa
President, Industrial Bank of Manchou ...	Yutaro Tomita
Vice-President, " " " " .....	Pao Kang

**Kyowa-Kai:**

Chief, Central Headquarters, Kyowa-kai ....	Lt.-Gen. Koji Miyake
Vice-Chief, Central Headquarters, Kyowa-kai	Ting Chien-Shiu
Chief, Metropolitan Headquarters, Kyowa-kai	Yu Ching-yuan



## CHAPTER VI

# BASIC ECONOMIC POLICY

The cornerstone of Manchoukuo's policy of economic construction is embodied in a statement issued by the Government on March 1, 1933, on the first anniversary of the founding of the new State. The statement reads as follows:

### Fundamental Policies for Economic Construction

In order to avoid the baneful effects which capitalism when unbridled may exert, it is necessary, in constructing our national economy, to apply a certain amount of national control thereto, and to utilize the fruits of capital so that a sound and lively development in all branches of the people's economy may be realized. Thus will the economic life of the great mass of citizens be enriched and rendered secure, the standard of their national life elevated, and the country's power strengthened, and in turn enable this country to contribute to the development of world economy, and advance the cause of culture. Through such a process Manchoukuo intends to realize a model State which is the aspiration of the founders of this nation and which after all is the ultimate goal of the economic program.

In order to attain this great objective, it is essential to proceed under four basic policies enumerated hereinafter:

Firstly, the interests of the people as a whole will be made the keynote and efforts will be made to prevent any exclusive class of people from monopolizing the benefits of the exploitation of natural resources and the development of industries, and to enable all to enjoy such benefits.

Secondly, in order to develop all natural resources most effectively and to secure a coordinated development of every branch of economy, national control will be exerted on important economic activities and measures for their rationalization devised.

Thirdly, in the work of unlocking resources and encouraging the industries, the principle of the open door and equal opportu-

ity will be observed. In the spirit of this principle, capital investments from various parts of the world will be invited, while appropriate and effectual use will be made of the technical skill and experience and other essence of civilization, taken from advanced nations.

Finally, with a view to harmonizing and rationalizing economic relations among Eastern Asiatic countries, and in view of the close economic inter-dependence between Japan and this country, emphasis will be placed upon securing cooperation between the two nations, and thereby rendering more intimate the relationship of mutual assistance.

These four policies being fundamental in the projected economic construction, they will be thoroughly and scrupulously observed in all cases so as to insure their complete execution.

### Means of Economic Control

Based upon the fundamental policies listed in the foregoing, this Government will seek to control its national economy within the scope of the following limits considered as the most feasible and best under the present circumstances:

- (1) As a principle, those enterprises which are important from the standpoint of national defence, or which are in the nature of public utility or public benefit will be conducted under official management by special companies.
- (2) Industries and resources not included within the above category will be left to the free management of private persons. Proper and necessary adjustment will be effected in the spheres of both production and consumption in order to promote national happiness and welfare, as well as to maintain the livelihood of the people.

### Perfection of the Means of Transportation

Since a proper adjustment of the means of transportation constitutes the most important factor in the foundation work of economic construction, for the development of agriculture, which is the back-bone of our national economy, and of other natural resources, for the preservation of peace and order, for seeking prosperity in commerce and trade, for economic intercourse with



foreign countries, energy will be devoted to the organic expansion of these means.

- (1) **Railways.** a. In the construction of railways, the primary object will be the development of the economic wealth of this country; and the safety of national defence and the maintenance of public peace will also be sought for.
  - b. The total length of railways, when completed in the future, will reach 25,000 kilometres. In the next ten years, 4,000 kilometres of new lines will be laid, making a total of 10,000 kilometres by adding the existing railways.
  - c. Trunk lines will be State-owned and operated under unified management.
- (2) **Harbours.** a. Besides the harbours in our country, those in adjacent countries will be effectively utilized in order to accelerate the economic development of Manchoukuo and to effect a most economical connection between the producing districts and sea-ports.
  - b. Necessary improvement will be made on the harbours of Yingkow and Antung.
  - c. The harbour works of Hulutao will be completed as the demands of economic necessity become pressing in the future.
  - d. In maritime transportations, the perfection of coastwise services will be sought first. The ocean services will also be attended to in order that they may be developed as speedily as possible.
- (3) **Rivers.** In view of the important nature of rivers, transport facilities on the Amur, Sungari, Yalu and Liao Rivers will be promoted.
- (4) **Roads.** a. With the object of facilitating transport and of preserving public peace, highways connecting principal cities and the hsien (district) towns, and such other roads as may be necessary for opening up backward regions and for purposes of defence will be newly built or improved. They will be completed within the period of ten years and their total length will be about 60,000 kilometres.
  - b. Motor traffic will be opened on these highways throughout the country in the future.
- (5) **Communications.** a. The unification and the linking up of the communication services within the country will be given

- primary consideration while connection with foreign countries will also be perfected.
- b. Telegraph and wireless services will be operated under unified management: principal economic lines and their feeder lines will be improved and extended: telephone installations in principal cities and equipments for radio broadcasting will likewise be bettered and enlarged.
  - (6) **Air Transport.** In view of the ever progressing tendency of air transport, efforts will be directed towards the encouragement of this enterprise. The Manchuria Aeronautic Company, which is equipped with superior aeroplanes and technical skill, will be permitted to operate this service. About 3,500 kilometres of air routes will be opened in the next three years. New air lines will be established in the future connecting Europe and Asia, as well as various parts of the Far East.
  - (7) **City Planning.** a. Hsinking, the capital of Manchoukuo, will be built up into a model city, which, when completed, will have an area of 200 sq. kilometres, capable of accommodating a population of 500,000.
    - b. In such cities as Mukden, Harbin, Kirin and Tsitsihar modern city planning will be put into practice at appropriate time in the future.

#### Development of Agriculture

- (1) **Agriculture.** a. Agriculture is the mainstay of our national economy. The objective for the increase of farm produces lies in planning to become self-sufficient in those products which at present must be imported from abroad, as well as in striving to export in greater quantities agricultural produces in general and thereby secure a larger measure of happiness and benefit for the rural masses and elevate their standard of living.
- (2) **Improvement and Increase of Farm Products.** a. Proper guidance and encouragement will be given to the cultivation of soya beans, kaoliang, millet and maize which constitute the staple products of Manchoukuo, so as to improve their qualities and increase their output.
  - b. The area for the cultivation of cotton will be increased to



foreign countries, energy will be devoted to the organic expansion of these means.

- (1) **Railways.** a. In the construction of railways, the primary object will be the development of the economic wealth of this country; and the safety of national defence and the maintenance of public peace will also be sought for.
  - b. The total length of railways, when completed in the future, will reach 25,000 kilometres. In the next ten years, 4,000 kilometres of new lines will be laid, making a total of 10,000 kilometres by adding the existing railways.
  - c. Trunk lines will be State-owned and operated under unified management.
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  - b. Motor traffic will be opened on these highways throughout the country in the future.
- (5) **Communications.** a. The unification and the linking up of the communication services within the country will be given

- primary consideration while connection with foreign countries will also be perfected.
- b. Telegraph and wireless services will be operated under unified management: principal economic lines and their feeder lines will be improved and extended: telephone installations in principal cities and equipments for radio broadcasting will likewise be bettered and enlarged.
- (6) **Air Transport.** In view of the ever progressing tendency of air transport, efforts will be directed towards the encouragement of this enterprise. The Manchuria Aeronautic Company, which is equipped with superior aeroplanes and technical skill, will be permitted to operate this service. About 3,500 kilometres of air routes will be opened in the next three years. New air lines will be established in the future connecting Europe and Asia, as well as various parts of the Far East.
  - (7) **City Planning.** a. Hsinking, the capital of Manchoukuo, will be built up into a model city, which, when completed, will have an area of 200 sq. kilometres, capable of accommodating a population of 500,000.
    - b. In such cities as Mukden, Harbin, Kirin and Tsitsihar modern city planning will be put into practice at appropriate time in the future.

#### Development of Agriculture

- (1) **Agriculture.** a. Agriculture is the mainstay of our national economy. The objective for the increase of farm produces lies in planning to become self-sufficient in those products which at present must be imported from abroad, as well as in striving to export in greater quantities agricultural produces in general and thereby secure a larger measure of happiness and benefit for the rural masses and elevate their standard of living.
- (2) **Improvement and Increase of Farm Products.** a. Proper guidance and encouragement will be given to the cultivation of soya beans, kaoliang, millet and maize which constitute the staple products of Manchoukuo, so as to improve their qualities and increase their output.
  - b. The area for the cultivation of cotton will be increased to