of mineral output for 1933-34 was ¥15,196,669. It shows a gain of ¥1,245,361 over the previous year. Classified by kind of item the value of mineral production in recent years is tabulated as follows (in unit of yen):—

Table 20. Mineral Products

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Gold	636,485	722,733	1,681,592	1,581,328	3,169,393
Gold copper ore	3,457,187	3,027,792	3,709,157	3,773,194	5,008,812
Alluvial gold	9,421	11,611	57,017	94,730	99,068
Silver	10,790	10,003	16,632	8,472	15,085
Copper	154,799	174,419	294,388	274,484	327,970
Gold ore	81,401	70,750	78,982	66,633	56,286
Quick-siver ore	——	2,488	——	——	——
Coal	9,613,416	7,164,598	6,571,195	7,681,689	8,470,375
Sulphur	33,217	51,290	37,148	62,075	75,114
Phosphorus	2,448	648	——	——	——
Crude oil	381,304	263,631	245,944	424,677	308,951
Volatile oil	760,729	1,784,275	973,423	527,159	382,922
Carbon black	——	43,552	205,527	341,079	488,267
Total including others	15,141,198	13,337,790	13,950,889	15,196,250	18,947,667

Distribution of Minerals—Metal ores are confined to the districts from due north to the eastern parts of the island, coal to the northern and central parts, while petroleum is found in almost all parts of the island, especially in the central and southern parts. The output of minerals, which was as limited as ¥112,000 in 1897, or a few years after the annexation of the island to Japan, increased to ¥15,196,250 in 1933-34 as stated above. As for the proportions of principal minerals, coal comes first with over 51% of the total production of minerals, followed by gold-copper ores with under 27%, gold 12%, naptha 7%, etc.

SUGAR INDUSTRY

The new rulers endeavoured to improve the industry from the highly neglected state in which they found it. First they introduced the Hawaiian Rose Bamboo and Rahina varieties, but afterward these were replaced by the Javanese variety.

Stimulated by Government encouragement, the industry has made great developments. In 1901-2 there was only one sugar factory with modern equipments and its capacity limited to 300 tons. It was financed at a meagre amount of ¥1,000,000. In the year 1926-27 as many as 45 factories in modern style with a total capacity of 39,414 tons were in operation. The capital involved was ¥290,520,000. Due to readjustment and merger of companies, the capital decreased to ¥250,966,600 in 1933-34. Nevertheless the capacity of the industry increased to 44,928 tons due to the extension of factories. The sugar output of the whole island, which stood at only 90,000,000 kin in 1901-2 increased to 1,315,540,000 kin approximately, in 1928-29, which enabled the country to supply her requirements of sugar. In 1931-32 the production further increased to 1,648,410,000 kin by shattering all former high records. In 1933-34 it decreased to 1,078,310,000 kin due to the agreement on the reduction of sugar production.

The following statistics show the results of modern-styled sugar companies (End of March, 1935):—

Table 21. Results of Sugar Companies

Names of companies	Capital subscribed (¥1,000)	Capital Paid up (¥1,000)	No. of Refineries	Capacity (metric ton)	Raw materials used (1,000 kin)	Output of sugar (1,000 kin)	By-Product (molasses) (1,000 kin)
Taiwan Seito Co.	63,000	43,080	12	11,814	1,902,243	286,500	36,239
Shinko " "	1,200	1,200	1	952	88,929	12,469	2,578
Meiji " "	48,000	39,200	7	8,520	1,216,881	170,642	24,323
Dai Nippon " "	51,417	45,779	6	7,638	1,698,988	236,367	33,104
Ensuiko " "	29,250	17,438	6	5,880	1,202,858	163,571	22,767
Niitaka " "	28,000	10,750	2	3,234	363,557	50,547	7,659
Teikoku " "	18,000	16,195	5	3,234	584,463	81,495	13,306
Showa " "	7,000	7,000	4	2,654	217,401	30,277	4,505
Taito " "	1,750	1,750	1	560	114,067	16,409	2,598
Sango Koshi	3,350	3,350	1	392	75,309	9,062	2,044
Total	250,967	185,742	45	44,928	7,463,696	1,057,339	149,123

TEA

Formosan teas consist of Oolong tea, Pouchong tea, Black tea, Green tea, etc. The first named three are the most important descriptions of tea produced in the island.

Oolong tea.—As a beverage possessing a special high flavour, Oolong tea is a great favourite in and about Boston and New York. It also goes to England where it is used to improve the flavour of black tea. The Oolong is admittedly superior in quality to black tea, and there is a good hope of its consumption abroad being increased when the taste of foreigners for the tea becomes more refined. In 1934 production amounted to more than 5,292,394 kin valued at ¥3,562,301. The export of Oolong tea (exclusive of shipments to Japan) in 1934 was 5,072,996 kin in volume and ¥3,117,360 in value, showing a considerable improvement over the previous year.

Pouchong tea.—Such factors as the decline in the purchasing power of South China and Java and unfavourable relations between Japan and China have caused the Pouchong tea market to be abnormally dull in recent years. The export of this description of tea (exclusive of shipments to Japan) in the year under review amounted to 4,576,709 kin in volume and ¥2,641,386 in value.

Black tea.—The manufacturing technique of black tea has recently made rapid progress. The export in 1934 was 4,726,811 kin in volume and ¥2,889,002 in value. Inclusive of all other varieties. the total tea export for the year under notice was 15,271,334 kin, valued at ¥8,917,948.

The area under and production of coarse tea are shown below:—

Table 22. Area under and Production of Coarse Tea

Year	Area ("ko")	Production (kin)
1929	47,458	18,430,186
1930	47,068	17,302,952
1931	45,948	14,959,584
1932	45,592	14,704,152
1933	45,298	15,544,877
1934	45,765	18,392,028

Production of refined tea in recent years is tabulated as follows:

Table 23. Production of Refined Tea

(kin)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Oolong	7,700,876	6,168,150	6,722,554	7,134,756	6,351,351	5,292,394
Pouchong	8,036,453	8,001,398	7,102,776	3,988,119	5,256,617	5,666,233
Green	9,410	132,672	33,160	12,570	14,200	16,500
Black	256,000	725,438	1,101,094	871,780	1,477,475	6,021,461
Total	16,002,739	15,027,658	14,959,584	12,007,225	13,099,643	16,996,587

MONOPOLY

The monopoly system was first instituted in Formosa in regard to opium in 1896 and was subsequently extended to salt and camphor in 1899 and to tobacco in 1905. Further, the monopoly of sake was established in July, 1922. The monopolizing of these industries was due not only to financial necessity, but also from consideration that it would be beneficial to public health, social welfare and productive industries.

Opium.—At the beginning of the Japanese possession of Formosa, the question which attracted most attention at home and abroad in the administration of the island was the prohibition of opium smoking. In February, 1896, with the prohibition of the importation of opium by private persons, an opium-dose factory was established. In January, 1897, was issued the Formosa Opium Ordinance, by which opium-smoking and dose-manufacture were strictly prohibited; smoking licenses were granted only to such as the Government deemed to be confirmed smokers, who were permitted to purchase and smoke as medicines the doses manufactured by the Government. The Government permission was required in all cases for the sale of opium doses, the opening of opium dens, and the manufacture and sale of opium-smoking utensils. The Ordinance was put in operation in April of the same year. The number of licensed smokers and output of opium have in recent years decreased gradually, but the price does not show any decrease as the output of the 1st grade opium increased in place of the 3rd grade which has been prohibited sale since August 1927. Statistics are as follows:—

Table 24. Output of Opium

Year	(Momme)	(Yen)
1913–14	27,289,000	5,289,495
1918–19	20,845,700	6,650,764
1923–24	13,820,800	5,449,345
1926–27	10,632,600	4,193,487
1930–31	10,158,700	4,010,655
1931–32	8,409,500	3,320,071
1932–33	6,969,620	2,819,388
1933–34	5,747,520	2,350,363
1934–35	5,289,093	2,146,692

Table 25. Output of Raw Opium Used

Year	Quantity (Kgs.)	Value 1,000 yen
1926.....	80,127	2,983
1927.....	58,305	1,959
1928.....	44,287	1,414
1929.....	45,251	1,244
1930.....	46,474	1,121
1931.....	69,778	1,665

Table 26. No. of Licensed Opium-smokers

	Natives		Chinese		
Year	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
1929....	21,057	3,569	361	35	25,022
1930....	19,395	3,842	208	23	23,468
1931....	17,767	3,531	192	20	21,510
1932....	16,278	3,254	174	17	19,723
1933....	14,841	2,979	155	16	17,991
1934....	13,453	2,737	138	15	16,343

Salt.—The Government has given great encouragement to the improvement and increase of salt-fields and the raising of the quality of salt with good results since 1899, when the present system was brought into operation in order to regulate the abandoned salt-fields and the price of salt which were left quite uncared for. The price of salt in the island was made uniform, its supply became abundant, and the surplus is now exported to Japan Proper, Korea, Karafuto, the Russian Maritime Province and other places. The total area of salt fields at the end of 1934-35 is given as 1,855 hectares and the output for the year as 191,640,000 kilogrammes. The demand for salt in the island and the export to Japan Proper are shown in the following table:—

Table 27. The Demand for Salt in the Island and Export to Japan

Year	Demand in the Island (1,000 kgs.)	Sale to Japan Proper (1,000 kgs.)	To other countries (1,000 kgs.)	Total (1,000 kgs.)	Total value (yen)
1929–30.....	44,402	63,981	14,460	122,844	2,419,151
1930–31.....	45,953	76,375	15,771	138,100	2,334,121
1931–32.....	48,864	105,660	26,450	180,974	2,459,629
1932–33.....	46,211	86,300	17,292	149,804	2,529,209
1933–34.....	50,826	81,399	12,890	145,115	2,718,840
1934–35.....	57,893	88,151	11,210	157,254	2,771,324

Camphor.—Before the establishment of monopoly system in 1899 when Formosa became a Japanese possession, the manufacture of camphor in the island was maintained by reckless felling of the trees which were abundant and by crude manufacture. Since then, with the adoption of various measures for the promotion of the industry, the monopoly has been placed on a firm basis. The annual yield is about 3,000,000 kilogrammes claiming about 70% of the total output of natural camphor. The value of sales amounts to about ¥7-8,000,000 annually, chief customers being America, England and France. The article is chiefly used as raw material for manufacture of refined camphor and celluloid. Statistics on camphor since 1926 are not available.

Tobacco.—At the time of the creation of the monopoly system, raw material was for the most part brought from China, and its manufacture was carried on by private contract up to 1912, when it was taken over by the Government. The climate of Formosa is very suitable for the cultivation of tobacco, and as the result of the improvement and development of tobacco cultivation due to the encouragement of the Government since the introduction of the monopoly system, Formosa now produces excellent leaf tobacco which may be used for cut tobacco. The species cultivated at present are the Chinese, the yellow and the cigar tobacco.

Table 28. Statistics on Tobacco

	Production			
Year	Cut (Kgs)	Both-ends cut (1,000 Pieces)	Leaf (1,000 Pieces)	Total value of sale (Yen)
1930....	1,181,561	246,279	411	15,711,310
1931....	1,075,470	280,308	384	14,465,962
1932....	1,074,859	340,664	437	14,788,299
1933....	1,038,012	418,062	465	15,247,299
1934....	1,024,542	539,540	538	16,552,070

Saké.—There are but few countries in the world where alcoholic liquors are controlled as a government monopoly, and as this was a novel attempt in Japan and its working was to furnish an important example, the utmost efforts were made to carry it to success. In view of the present condition of the island the brewing of alcohol and beer and the sale of the latter are left to private management. But, as for all other alcoholic beverages, their manufacture and sale are managed directly by the Formosan Government-General. The sales of alcoholic beverages in 1934 amounted to 318,713 hectolitres. Below are given statistics showing the figures of the output, and the import from Japan Proper and from foreign countries (in hectolitres):—

Table 29. Statistics of Saké
(hectolitres)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Output	522,284	479,566	416,074	536,533	585,272
Import from Japan Proper.....	20,772	22,951	23,442	41,574	62,905
Import from foreign countries.....	2,022	989	744	2,006	1,338

The brewing factories numbered 13 at the end of 1934.

FOREIGN TRADE

The overseas trade of Formosa, which stood at only a little more than ¥30,000,000 in 1897, or a few years after Japan's occupation of the island, increased to ¥64,549,386 in 1934. Of the value of the trade for the year under review, ¥26,518,409 was accounted for by exports and ¥38,030,977 by imports, the latter exceeding the former by ¥11,512,568. In regard to the export trade, though shipments of camphor and coal were inactive due to a shortage of supply, all other exports displayed considerable activity. Especially noticeable was the prosperity in the export trade in black tea, which was due chiefly to restrictions put to the export by the principal black tea producing countries. Pouchong tea, carton tissues, matches, petroleum and other articles of export all showed marked developments. Due to all this, the export trade of the island, which had been depressed since 1930, registered the highest record since 1929 at the abovementioned figure, showing an increase of ¥8,851,991 over the preceding year. As for imports, consignments of soya-beans decreased due partly to a decrease in the crop and partly to a high price. Besides, such imports as rice, jute, coal, leaf tobacco, timber, kerosene, etc., decreased. On the other hand, the imports of fertilizer showed a sharp increase owing to the prosperity of the farming districts and the expansion of the area of arable land. A great expansion was also shown by imports of gunny bags, naptha, herrings, etc. In consequence, the total of imports exceeded those for the previous year by ¥2,554,434.

The trade of Formosa with Japan has steadily developed, while its trade with foreign countries has been somewhat stagnant. The value of the trade, which was as limited as ¥5,800,000, approximately in 1897, reached a height of ¥380,000,000 in 1929. After declining, though keeping above the ¥310,000,000 level, the value of trade attained ¥456,400,995 in 1934. To take a survey of bath branches of trade for the year under review, rice, to begin with, which is a most important article of export, showed an expansion of ¥37,000,000 in shipments due partly to a failure of the rice crop in Japan and partly to a high price of the cereal in the island, the crop of which was of the most abundant on record. A considerable increase was also shown by shipments of sugar, alcohol, head-wear, ores, camphor, raw fish and shell-fish, camphor oil, black tea, bananas, etc. As for the import trade, consignments of hat-making materials greatly decreased due partly to an abundant stock on hand and partly to depression in the hat trade. Almost all other articles of import displayed prosperity. Especially notable was the activity shown by such imports as fertilizer, silk tissues, automobiles, iron materials, gunny bags, wheat flour, insulated wire, matches, sake, dried cuttle fish, paper, etc. Thus, as stated above, both branches of trade totalled ¥456,000,000, showing an increase of ¥75,000,000 over the previous year.

Table 30. Exports to and Imports from Foreign Countries
(In thousands of yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Exports	22,809	19,449	18,045	17,666	26,518	36,544
Imports	45,131	30,859	31,104	35,477	38,031	44,979
Total	67,940	50,308	49,084	53,143	64,549	81,523
Excess of imports.....	22,822	11,410	12,996	17,811	11,513	8,435

Table 31. Exports to and Imports from Japan Proper
(In thousands of yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Exports	218,633	201,424	222,683	230,747	279,410	314,200
Imports	123,127	114,763	133,457	149,912	176,991	218,141
Total	341,760	316,187	356,140	380,659	456,401	532,341
Excess of exports	95,506	86,661	89,226	80,835	102,419	96,059

Table 32. Outflow and Inflow of Bullion to and from Foreign Countries

(In yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Exports	——	——	——	5,934	48,936	1,925,258
Imports	1,571,857	1,060,676	10,100	800	456,392	11,162,810
Total	1,571,857	1,060,676	10,100	6,735	505,328	13,088,068
Excess of imports	1,571,857	1,060,676	10,100	*5,135	407,456	9,237,552

* Excess of exports.

Table 33. Outflow and Inflow of Bullion to and from Japan Proper

(In yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Exports	195,740	221,000	——	199,000	——	——
Imports	——	——	——	——	——	——
Total	195,740	221,000	——	199,000	——	——
Excess of exports	195,740	221,000	——	199,000	——	——

Table 34. Principal Exports to Japan Proper

(In yen)

Year	Rice	Sugar	Canned Pine-apple	Camphor	Camphor oil	Alcohol	Bananas
1930.....	38,695,385	141,865,177	3,481,135	1,255,781	2,422,303	2,592,076	8,369,850
1931.....	41,097,219	120,475,129	4,157,836	766,281	1,824,697	3,054,427	8,329,152
1932.....	63,074,989	121,718,906	5,151,173	963,624	2,062,234	2,975,544	6,982,753
1933.....	64,522,270	118,195,157	4,791,127	1,174,428	805,692	4,239,661	7,899,188
1934.....	101,816,421	122,321,543	4,537,125	2,175,749	1,902,033	5,256,358	8,137,941
1935.....	105,580,541	151,533,011	8,078,174	4,398,810	2,176,418	7,235,826	10,242,918

Table 35. Principal Imports from Japan Proper

(In yen)

Year	Wheat flour	Driedfish and salt fish	Iron	Cotton and silk tissues	Paper	Timber	Fertilizer
1930...	2,374,026	4,032,289	7,901,736	13,394,284	3,254,545	4,535,245	5,832,475
1931...	2,011,674	3,412,154	7,343,616	13,596,402	3,233,513	4,216,650	4,319,832
1932...	2,716,990	4,262,382	8,013,831	13,358,467	3,470,644	5,491,936	7,745,738
1933...	2,710,508	3,535,933	10,458,094	15,105,863	3,970,326	6,276,328	11,225,179
1934...	3,413,887	3,957,802	11,517,261	17,250,081	4,515,650	7,271,327	16,582,296
1935...	4,530,422	5,409,660	16,041,863	20,268,169	5,077,374	10,387,695	16,340,989

Rice, sugar, soy, canned comestibles, beer, tobacco, matches, cement, porcelain, iron manufactures, etc. are also principal articles of imported goods. In this table are included the imports from Chosen.

The value of principal exports to and imports from foreign countries in the last six years is shown below (in unit of yen):—

Table 36. Exports to Foreign Countries

(¥)

Year	Oolong tea	Pouchong tea	Camphor	Coal	Sugar	Cotton tissues	Matches
1930.....	2,608,639	5,785,925	1,085,348	2,872,440	67,807	1,842,563	34,391
1931.....	2,350,845	4,489,261	1,586,448	2,295,114	2,356,530	1,199,195	155,899
1932.....	2,802,316	1,836,742	1,547,783	1,315,805	3,174,477	1,054,468	188,273
1933.....	2,894,245	1,816,576	2,962,727	1,530,557	563,245	363,346	210,244
1934.....	3,117,360	2,641,386	2,381,056	1,387,479	122,277	1,055,176	684,179
1935.....	3,814,289	2,814,975	2,038,346	1,334,296	5,555,532	2,082,081	720,142

Table 37. Imports from Foreign Countries

(¥)

Year	Opium	Leaf-tobacco	Lamp oil	Gunny bags	Timber	Mattings	Bean-cakes
1930.....	1,122,315	343,021	1,014,775	2,407,543	1,499,969	511,633	10,252,919
1931.....	1,128,566	275,983	636,749	1,652,823	1,103,782	527,802	7,254,442
1932.....	707,792	318,361	669,892	1,327,100	556,806	488,939	10,342,041
1933.....	148,509	582,004	534,424	2,717,626	283,144	534,410	11,593,356
1934.....	120,600	396,735	375,386	3,270,092	118,273	458,085	12,204,475
1935.....	449,245	860,326	398,388	3,566,379	176,311	475,039	14,613,885

Table 38. Export and Imports Classified By Countries

(¥1,000

Countries	Exports					Imports				
Asia:	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
China	8,222	6,534	4,746	8,375	13,046	16,189	15,621	6,671	6,713	6,952
Manchoukuo	—	27	354	439	380	—	4,020	16,604	16,617	21,793
Kwantung	309	1,973	1,625	2,896	4,113	889	913	956	1,393	1,772
Hongkong	2,587	2,670	2,131	2,909	6,554	52	31	55	33	30
Dutch Indies	3,262	1,601	1,095	1,546	1,234	1,025	1,622	1,389	1,542	1,769
French Indo-China	89	4	161	339	303	124	—	69	91	116
Siam	133	115	299	417	511	170	1,390	365	160	235
Total incl. others	14,936	13,272	11,057	18,013	28,969	21,052	26,199	29,247	29,278	36,469
Europe:										
Great Britain	886	605	1,122	1,754	1,273	2,345	598	360	2,078	1,307
France	127	390	434	258	192	55	22	43	15	142
Germany	2	23	39	59	5	4,024	1,941	3,391	3,705	3,506
Total incl. others	1,044	991	1,690	2,153	1,575	6,833	2,587	3,846	5,820	5,009
American Countries:										
U.S.A.	4,456	3,456	4,719	5,466	5,664	2,370	1,548	1,841	2,201	3,018
Canada	6	5	8	76	18	374	270	82	—	145
Total incl. others	3,462	3,759	4,726	5,542	5,681	2,744	1,821	2,012	2,519	3,420
Other States	6	23	194	810	321	230	431	317	370	82
Grand Total	19,449	18,045	17,666	26,518	36,544	30,859	31,041	35,477	38,031	44,979

PUBLIC WORKS

When China was in possession of the island, any roads that were found in the island had been built by wealthy individuals. The progress of road-making in recent years is tabulated below:—

Table 39. Statistics on Roads and Bridges

Year	Roads (Kms.)	Bridges (Meters)
1899.....	6,734	11,660
1909.....	11,543	37,491
1914.....	12,064	61,056
1923.....	14,384	54,491
1927.....	14,752	80,635
1929.....	14,859	92,496
1930.....	15,101	88,368
1931.....	14,854	97,007
1932.....	15,055	83,888
1933.....	15,704	87,129
1934.....	15,905	92,214

Of the harbour-works in hand more important are those at Keelung, Takao, and Suwo, the first having been completed by 1930 at the cost of over ¥25 millions, the 2nd to be completed by 1935 at the cost of about ¥27 millions, while the 3rd which is a minor fishing-port was completed some years ago at the cost of under ¥700,000.

Water-works, large and small, supply water at 84 places, as at the end of 1934-35. The general expenditure involved amounts to ¥20,281,700 (inclusive of extension) and the estimated number of people to be supplied with is 1,110,500. Besides, there are one under construction and one under extension.

Irrigation is costing a great deal of money to the Government-General and islanders among whom the idea of supplying water to cane-fields and farms subject to drought existed from olden time. The Government-General started the 16 years irrigation work at the estimate of ¥30 millions, but as it was decided to help the private Taiwan irrigation with ¥12 millions out of the fund the scope of the Government undertaking has been reduced accordingly. The Government is repairing and improving the existing irrigation works with the fund and also to generate water-power. Already 32,756 "ko" of farms have been irrigated and some 7,200 h.p. water-power has been secured by utilizing the headwater.

COMMUNICATIONS

Post, Telegraph and Telephone

The postal service was for the first time opened in April, 1895, when, prior to the restoration of peace between Japan and China, the Japanese army occupied Hokoto (Pescadores) and established there a military field post office; but when the civil administration was set up in April, 1896, the postal service for the general public was also opened under the control of the Minister of Communications, and the handling of foreign mails was begun from August, 1896.

In October, 1900, the Postal Law, the Railway and Marine Postal Law, the Postal Money Orders Law, the Postal Savings Law and the Telegraph Law, all in force in Japan Proper, were brought into operation in the island. The Wireless Telegraph Law was effected in November, 1915. With respect to the telephone service, the Taiwan Telephone Exchange Law was promulgated in April, 1900. The service was first opened between Taihoku and Tainan in July of the same year. Since then the system has been put in complete working order. The radio broadcasting was also started in 1928.

Table 40. Statistics on Mails and Parcels

Year	Ordinary mail matters (1,000) Accepted	Ordinary mail matters (1,000) Delivered	Parcels (1,000) Accepted	Parcels (1,000) Delivered
1921–22....	60,058	67,888	784	1,169
1926–27....	52,089	64,193	653	1,103
1927–28....	60,053	72,625	661	1,153
1928–29....	62,325	73,265	679	1,219
1929–30....	66,345	76,867	695	1,256
1930–31....	66,793	78,453	677	1,247
1931–32....	67,133	76,263	640	1,212
1932–33....	70,177	81,993	648	1,231
1933–34....	75,748	85,681	641	1,145
1934–35....	78,211	93,086	661	1,174

Year	Telegrams (1,000) Despatched	Telegrams (1,000) Delivered	Telegrams (1,000) Total	No. of telephone subscribers
1921–22....	1,398	1,400	2,798	8,948
1926–27....	1,378	1,437	2,814	11,147
1927–28....	1,423	1,476	2,899	11,345
1928–29....	1,475	1,501	3,976	11,640
1929–30....	1,513	1,530	3,043	12,122
1930–31....	1,491	1,533	3,024	12,746
1931–32....	1,484	1,547	3,031	13,645
1932–33....	1,566	1,634	3,200	15,110
1933–34....	1,534	1,619	3,153	15,416
1934–35....	1,672	1,728	3,400	15,784

Year	Domestic money orders (issued) No.	Domestic money orders (issued) Value (Yen)	Savings Bank No. of depositors	Savings Bank Amount (Yen)
1928–29	940,943	28,497,437	483,253	13,343,016
1929–30	975,367	29,344,762	499,427	15,063,929
1930–31	976,257	26,937,014	516,040	15,074,388
1931–32	992,073	25,990,089	484,072	17,855,759
1932–33	1,042,360	27,551,267	494,847	18,147,761
1933–34	1,051,049	27,735,541	511,482	19,207,329
1934–35	1,085,448	29,147,007	544,983	21,367,007

RAILWAYS

Government Railways.—It was not until the cession of Formosa from China to Japan that the island began to enjoy railway facilities, for, prior to that time, the only railway existing in the island was a small light railway between Keelung and Shinchiku built at the time of the Shin dynasty of China. Soon after the cession, the Governor-General of Formosa brought forward a plan, with the approval of the Diet, to build a railway connecting Takao with Keelung at the expense of ¥28,800,000. The work of construction was started in 1889 from both terminals and finished in April 1908. This line now forms the trunk line in the insular railway system. The construction of that pioneer railway line was soon followed by the building of other lines, that is, the Kyukyokudo-Heito section (Choshu line) completed in 1912, the Taito line in 1917 and the Giran line in 1924, while many others have been built in a rapid succession since then, so that the total length of Government lines operated reached 881.7 kilometers, at the end of March 1935.

Private Railways.—Most of the private railways existing in Taiwan were originally constructed by sugar refining companies for transporting sugar canes and other materials, transportation business being conducted only as a side work. The exception to this were the Taihoku Railway Company, which operated the Manka-Shinten railway of 6.5 miles, and the Taichu Light Railway line of 8.1 miles. The total working mileage of private lines open to business on March 31, 1935, was 504.5 kilometres. The number of passengers carried was 3,189,285 and the total tonnage of goods hauled 3,754,554 tons. The total receipts aggregated 2,121,833 or ¥123,587 more than that of the preceding year.

Tramways.—The tramways, which form an important factor in the insular communication system, have made a marked development in recent years, the total length of lines in operation at the end of March 1935, being 1,232.6 kilometres with 4,786 carriages in all, the number of passengers carried 3,085,987 and goods hauled 715,701,554 tons, the total receipts reaching ¥1,663,383.

Table 41. Government Railways

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Mileage open to traffic (mile)	549.0	549.0	881.6	881.7	881.7
No. of locomotives	215	208	—	—	—
No. of passenger carriages	491	499	—	—	—
No. of wagons	3,930	3,964	—	—	—
No. of passengers carried (1,000)	18,316	16,459	16,637	17,141	18,144
Goods hauled (1,000 tons)	3,960	4,767	5,121	5,087	5,706
Parcels (ton)	9,295	8,295	8,500	14,179	14,904
Receipts (¥1,000) Passenger	7,721	6,897	7,109	7,468	7,966
Receipts (¥1,000) Wagons	11,392	11,367	11,742	11,863	13,459

Table 42. Private Railways

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Mileage open to traffic (mile)	1,367.7	1,383.1	1,418.3	1,425.8	1,463.4
No. of locomotives	232	251	—	—	—
No. of passenger carriages	272	244	—	—	—
No. of wagons	15,102	15,768	—	—	—
No. of passengers carried (1,000)	3,644	2,884	2,857	2,981	3,189
*Good hauled (1,000 tons)	4,266	4,181	4,485	3,509	3,755
Receipts (¥1,000) Passenger	775	545	460	454	452
Receipts (¥1,000) Wagons	2,186	1,753	1,914	1,499	1,643
Receipts (¥1,000) Others	57	35	33	46	27

* Including goods for companies.

Table 43. Tramways

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Mileage open to traffic (mile)	824.9	849.8	823.6	772.7	770.4
No. of cars	5,568	5,321	5,133	4,760	4,786
No. of passengers carried (1,000)	4,006	3,499	3,179	3,304	3,086
Goods hauled (1,000 tons)	694	599	519	607	716
Receipts (¥1,000) Passenger	588	562	520	522	514
Receipts (¥1,000) Wagons	1,358	1,096	1,049	1,129	1,149

BANKS AND OTHER FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

Banks.—The necessity of establishing a special bank was recognized for the development of industry and commerce after the island became Japanese territory and in 1899 the Bank of Taiwan was brought into being. The Nippon Churitsu Bank had already established its sub-branch offices in the island. In 1899, the Bank was amalgamated with the Thirty-fourth Bank and became a branch office of the latter. The Taiwan Savings Bank was established in the same year, it being followed by the establishment of the Kagi Bank in 1904, the Shoka Bank in 1905 and the Taiwan Commercial and Industrial Bank in 1910. In 1920 another Kagi Bank under joint stock organization was formed to take over the business of the Kagi Bank which had been in the form of partnership. In 1921 the Taiwan Savings Bank was established.

In 1922 the Hypothec Bank of Japan established a branch office at Taihoku to carry on the business of granting credit on real estate and of making loans to public corporations or corporate societies, thereby facilitating agricultural finance.

The aggregate authorized capital of those banks, whose head offices are in the island as at the end of 1934, is given as ¥28,300,000, of which ¥20,679,850, approximately is paid up. The deposits of the banks are ¥151,420,000, approximately (inclusive of savings deposits for ¥19,310,000) and advances ¥252,640,000, bills of exchange bought and sold ¥942,020,000 and ¥967,900,000, respectively. The outstanding note issues of the Bank of Taiwan at the end of 1934 was ¥62,650,000, approximately. Of this amount ¥19,190,000 represented the issue beyond the taxable limit.

Credit and Industrial Association.—There are two kinds of credit associations, viz., town credit associations and village credit associations. The number of the former associations at the end of 1934 was 22 with the authorized capital of ¥3,080,000, of which ¥3,000,000 was paid up. The savings were 17,700,000, reserves ¥1,930,000, borrowings ¥160,000, advances ¥15,130,000, bills discounted ¥720,000, fund prepared for various purposes ¥690,000.

At the end of 1934 there were altogether 423 credit associations other than those for towns people. Some of these association were engaged

in other forms of business as additional occupations. Investigations into 352 of these associations conducted by the Government-General show that the authorized capital was ¥12,707,000, of which ¥10,837,000 was paid up, reserves ¥8,877,000, savings ¥47,832,000, borrowings ¥8,916,000, advances ¥51,702,000, sales of products ¥14,196,000, sales of goods purchased ¥5,127,000. As may be gathered from the figures, these associations are contributing much towards the recovery of the economic life of the farming districts, while serving as an organ for monetary circulation for the populace.

The industrial associations have been slower in development than the credit associations owing to the difficulty and complicacy of the management. At the end of 1934 there were 65 of these associations. The authorized capital of 64 of them, into which investigations had been conducted by the authorities, was ¥1,505,000, approximately, of which ¥932,000 was paid up, reserves ¥758,000, borrowings ¥946,000, sales of products ¥2,850,000, sales of goods purchased ¥5,699,000.

Mujin (Mutual Loan Associations).—The legislation on "mujin" was put in force in March 1916. At the end of 1934 there were three joint-stock companies engaging in this line of business with nine branches and five agencies throughout the island. Their authorized capital was ¥850,000, of which ¥387,500 was paid up.

Insurance Business.—At the end of 1934 there were in the island 25 life assurance offices (inclusive of conscript insurance) and 34 property assurance offices. These are all branches or subbranches or agencies of the companies having head offices in Japan, with the single exception of the Taisei Fire and Marine Insurance Company. Results of various forms of insurance companies at the end of 1934 are listed below:

Table 44. Insurance

Kind	No. of Contracts	Amount of contracts (Yen)	Amount of premiums (Yen)	Claims paid (Yen)
Life	142,904	218,150,816	6,753,772	1,524,374
Accident	52	126,000	3	10
Fire	60,464	367,388,175	625,067	378,296
Marine	4,467	20,895,546	376,615	87,862
Transport	28	959,819	2,627	—
Automobile	—	—	—	—

Contrasted with the previous year, life assurance shows an improvement of 27,965 in the number of contracts and ¥42,951,563 in the amount, accident a decrease of 35 in the number of contracts and a decrease of ¥29,900 in the amount. fire an increase of 8,319 in the number of contracts and ¥38,445,584 in the amount, marine an increase of 1,385 in the number of contracts and an increase of ¥3,786,868 in the amount, transport an expansion of 8 in the number of contracts and an increase of ¥902,979 in the amount. There was no contract for automobile insurance in the year under review.

References: Tables 1-3, 5-7, 9, 11-18, 21-29 & 39-44—Taiwan Jijo (Outline of Taiwan), 1935, published by the Taiwan Govt.-Gen. Tables 4 & 10—Nippon Teikoku Tokei Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual), 1935. Table 8—Okura-sho Nempo (Annual Report of the Dept. of Finance), 1935. Tables 19 & 30-38—Taiwan Boeki Geppyo (Monthly Returns of the Foreign Trade of Taiwan). Table 20—Hompo Kogyo no Susei (Statistical Annual on Mining Industry of Japan), 1935, compiled by the Mining Bureau.

CHAPTER XXXVI

KARAFUTO (Southern or Japanese Saghalien)

AREA, POPULATION, ETC.

Position—141° 51′ and 144° 55′ E.L.; 45° 54′ N.L.
Area—36,000 square kilometers. Separated from the northern tip of Hokkaido by Soya Strait.

The island of Karafuto was occupied by the Japanese forces during the Russo-Japanese War in August, 1905, and the acquisition by Japan of the island south of the fiftieth parallel was confirmed by the Treaty of Portsmouth concluded between Japan and Russia in October of the same year.

Table 1. Area of Karafuto By Districts

	Area (Sq. kms.)	Ratio		Area (Sq. kms.)	Ratio
Sikka	12,416.5	344.04	Motodomari	3,120.9	86.48
Tomarioru	6,902.8	191.26	Maoka	2,490.1	68.99
Otomari	4,842.9	134.19	Honto	1,566.6	43.41
Toyohara	5,750.5	131.63	Total	36,090.3	1,000.00

Table 2. Climate (in 1934)

	Temperature (C.)			No. of clear days	No. of rainy or snowy days
	Average	Maximum	Minimum		
Yasubetsu	2.2	23.0	−22.7	32	169
Sikuka	1.7	31.0	−28.7	63	132
Ochiai	2.9	28.5	−25.6	31	187
Maoka	4.6	26.0	−15.5	25	198
Honto	5.1	25.7	−15.2	20	204
Otomari	3.9	24.9	−20.2	38	136

Population

The native inhabitants consist of various tribes, i.e. Ainus, Gilyaks, Orochones and Tungues. These are gradually dwindling in number. The total population of the territory as at the end of 1934 was 313,130, of which 304,995 were Japanese, 5,878 Koreans, 1,918 natives and 299 foreigners. Contrasted with the population of 12,361 at the end of 1906, or a year after the territory was placed under the control of Japan, it shows an increase of 300,769, or about 25.3 times.

Statistics of population for the last five years are tabulated below:—

Table 3. Population By Sex and Nationality

End of December	Total		Japanese		Natives		Foreigners		Pop. per household	Male per 100 females
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female		
1930	159,919	125,011	158,710	123,929	960	973	249	109	4.96	127.9
1931	161,767	125,610	160,577	124,507	1,012	997	178	106	5.01	128.8
1932	164,304	128,868	163,143	127,807	988	949	173	112	5.06	120.6
1933	167,024	133,274	165,946	132,265	932	905	146	104	5.08	125.3
1934	175,194	137,936	174,013	136,860	1,008	950	173	162	5.13	127.1

Table 4. Population of Principal Towns

	No. of households	Population
Toyohara	6,518	34,274
Otomari	5,934	30,913
Shirutoru	3,834	18,968
Esutoru	4,651	23,432
Ochiai	3,530	17,712
Sikka	3,965	22,617
Maoka	3,310	17,114
Tomarioru	2,067	10,325
Honto	2,044	10,980
Rutaka	2,009	10,456

Table 5. Population By Occupations

(End of 1934)

Agriculture	48,049
Fishery	15,741
Mining	3,930
Industry	17,874
Commerce	34,440
Communications	6,305
Total including others	313,130

Table 6. Movement of Population

Year	Marriage	Divorce	Birth		Still-birth		Death	
			Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1929.....	1,644	152	4,855	4,527	313	267	3,268	2,213
1930.....	1,794	168	5,407	5,245	331	270	3,330	2,464
1931.....	1,782	163	5,614	5,300	320	275	3,146	2,502
1932.....	1,829	160	5,977	5,558	284	261	3,424	2,684
1933.....	1,733	142	5,809	5,422	253	207	3,398	2,412

Census Population

The first census was taken on October 1, 1920 and the second on October 1, 1930. Between these dates, or on October 1, 1925 and 1935 rough enumeration of population was effected. The census population as enumerated in the four different years is listed below:—

Table 7. Census Population

	Male	Female	Total	Inc.	Percentage of Increase
1920	62,327	43,572	105,899	—	—
1925	122,379	81,375	203,754	97,855	92.40
1930	168,532	126,664	295,196	91,442	44.88
1935	186,231	145,718	331,949	17,699	10.50

As will be noted from the above table, the proportion of the expansion of population in the five-year period from 1925-30 appreciably decreased. The average rate of increase was 8.98% for the second period as against 18.48% for the first lustre.

The yearly average of the increase in the population for the third quinquennial period (1930-35) was only 2.49%. The increase of the population for the fifteen years is 226,050 (213.46%) and the yearly average 14.23%.

FINANCE

As regards the finance of Karafuto since the establishment of the Special Account for the territory in April, 1907, it may be noted that a fixed grant has been made annually by the National Treasury, and that this grant, together with the taxes and other sources of revenue of the territory, is used in defraying the expenses of colonization and general administration.

Table 8. Revenue and Expenditure
(¥)

Year	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
1929–30.....	18,611,501	13,728,326	32,339,827	16,640,071	11,947,287	28,587,359
1930–31.....	21,028,918	5,515,613	26,544,532	15,626,775	9,002,516	24,629,292
1931–32.....	18,237,113	5,131,829	23,368,941	14,580,649	6,699,100	21,179,749
1932–33.....	17,090,154	5,548,262	22,638,416	14,657,030	6,206,749	20,863,778
1933–34.....	21,439,139	6,402,359	27,841,498	15,234,314	6,980,272	22,214,586
1934–35.....	33,255,887	6,783,710	40,039,597	16,196,061	8,504,085	24,700,146
*1935–36.....	24,776,180	3,760,573	28,536,753	17,798,600	10,738,153	28,536,753

* Budget Accounts.

Table 9. Budget for 1935-36

Revenue		Expenditure	
Ordinary:		Ordinary:	
Taxes	¥ 1,673,545	The Karafuto Shrine	¥ 18,186
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties	20,978,163	Karafuto Administration Office..	1,353,289
Stamp receipts	277,261	Education	2,302,070
Profits of tobacco monopoly	1,252,966	Government undertakings	8,177,570
Miscellaneous receipts	594,245	Other expenses	5,947,485
Total	24,776,180	Total	17,798,600
Extraordinary:		Extraordinary:	
Proceeds of sale of State property	92,336	Government undertakings	8,054,500
Miscellaneous receipts	420	Subsidies	1,818,000
National Treasury grant	——	Special undertakings	——
Previous years' surplus transferred	3,645,840	Railway improvement	——
Total	3,760,573	Other expenses	865,653
Total revenue	28,536,753	Total	10,738,153
		Total expenditure	28,536,753

BANKING AND OTHER MONETARY ORGANS

The deposits and advances of the banks in Karafuto as at the end of 1934 were as follows:

Table 10. Bank Accounts

(End of 1934)

	Deposits (Yen)	Loans (Yen)
Branches of Hokkaido Colonial Bank	207,523,989	30,041,495
Karafuto Bank	15,910,897	7,188,561
Branches of Hokumon Savings Bank	1,473,561	720,504

Industrial Associations and Industrial Federations.—Since the Industrial Association Law was enforced in 1915, industrial associations have been established in many parts of the territory, showing good results. In the year in which the law in question was put in force, only one association was organized. As at the end of 1934 there were 66 industrial associations. The subscribed capital (at the end of 1934) of 60 associations into which investigations had been made was ¥1,846,625, of which ¥1,529,772 was paid up. The working capital inclusive of reserves and savings totalled ¥4,437,124. The total membership was 7,709. At the end of 1934 there was only one industrial federation with a membership of 54. The total subscribed capital was ¥173,500, of which ¥73,027 was paid up. Inclusive of reserves, savings, borrowings, the total working capital was ¥868,057.

At the end of June, 1934 there were 80 private and one public pawn brokers. The former represented the balance of loans for ¥111,374 and the latter ¥24,461. Besides, there were sixteen money lenders, whose outstanding loans at the end of June, 1934 was ¥117,368.

SANITATION, RELIGION AND EDUCATION

The Government keeps under its direct management three medical offices at Toyohara, Otomari and Maoka. At the end of 1933 there were 120 public and 82 private practitioners, 38 public and 20 private dentists, 225 public and 24 private midwives, 107 nurses and 75 acupuncturists.

Table 11. Statistics of Government Hospitals

Names of hospitals	No. of medical officers	No. of rooms	No. of beds	No. of out-patients	No. of in-patients
Toyohara hospital	49	53	187	12,272	1,804
Odomari "	31	19	53	4,517	527
Maoka "	29	35	77	6,835	2,219

Education.—The following table will give a general idea of the spread of education in Karafuto.

Table 12. Number of Schools, Teachers and Pupils

Schools	No. of schools	No. of teachers	No. of pupils
Elementary and Higher elementary schools ...	226	1,125	49,282
Middle schools	3	86	1,901
Girls' high schools	4	67	1,400
Private schools	5	50	312
Kindergartens	4	9	199
Supplementary schools..	9	78	437

Religion.—There are three religions propagated in Karafuto, namely, Buddhism, Shintoism and Christianity. The relative influence of these three religions may be noted from the table appended.

Table 13. Statistics of Religion

	No. of shrines, temples or missions	No. of priests or missionaries	No. of pupils
Shintoism	44	46	17,519
Buddhism	198	195	59,906
Christianity	12	12	1,171

AGRICULTURE AND IMMIGRATION

The area under tillage in Karafuto is yearly increasing. But still it was as limited as 31,597 hectares at the end of 1934. It is only one-sixth of the arable land which is 469,000 hectares in area. Therefore, there is still room for many thousands of agricultural immigrants. Since 1906, the authorities have encouraged the immigration of farming population by extending them liberal protection and suitable help. A small sum of money is granted to those peasants who settle down within six months of their arrival. As at the end of 1934 the number of these farming immigrants stood at 58,514, representing 11,514 houses. The number of these settlers and that of their houses occupy about 20% of the total number of population and that of houses in the territory. The total amount of farm produce for 1934 was ¥4,058,930. The number of peasant settlers in recent years is shown below:

Table 14. Peasant Setttlers in Recent Years

Year	Families	Population
1929.....	1,242	4,332
1930.....	1,132	4,997
1931.....	932	4,169
1932.....	1,341	6,357
1933.....	1,267	4,855
1934.....	1,251	4,893

The total amount of various agricultural products in recent years has increased about three times as compared with ten years before.

Table 15. Total Amount of Farm Produce

Year	Total production
1927.....	¥3,542,292
1928.....	4,206,000
1929.....	3,306,000
1930.....	2,999,000
1931.....	2,105,978
1932.....	2,946,591
1933.....	3,615,313
1934.....	4,058,930

The area under various crops classified according to kind is given in the following table:

Table 16. Area under Various Crops

(In hectares)

Year	Oat, barley, wheat, etc.	Beans & peas	Buckwheat	Potatoes	Grass	Vegetables & others
1928.....	7,600	692	692	2,274	3,422	2,941
1929.....	6,425	789	710	2,078	3,526	2,925
1930.....	9,168	813	753	3,154	3,698	2,830
1931.....	8,669	1,071	1,146	2,981	4,025	2,579
1932.....	10,111	1,165	1,191	4,171	4,325	2,965
1933.....	9,836	1,189	1,146	5,144	4,056	3,071
1934.....	10,491	1,888	1,094	5,345	3,914	3,789

Note:—1 hectare=1.008333 cho; 1 cho=0.99174 hectare.

Table 17. Amount of Principal Crops in Recent Years

Year	Oat, barley wheat, etc. (Hectolitres)	Beans & peas (Hectolitres)	Buckwheat (Hectolitres)	Potatoes (M. ton)	Grass (M. ton)	Vegetables & others (M. ton)
1928.....	278,500	13,948	17,352	27,022	13,246	25,206
1929.....	250,439	12,546	11,651	17,992	14,413	23,691
1930.....	295,769	12,372	14,819	33,002	17,300	25,327
1931.....	228,608	7,976	13,802	24,035	15,976	19,046
1932.....	291,278	9,664	12,063	38,603	16,295	25,604
1933.....	313,572	18,451	19,686	49,816	19,487	38,947
1934.....	404,442	40,476	23,000	43,376	26,567	48,182

FISHERY

Fishery is the oldest industry and constitutes by far the most important resources of Karafuto. The principal fish caught are herring, trout, salmon and cod. The right of fishing is granted under three kinds of license, the special, ordinary and drift-net fishing. The first is limited to bodies of fishermen on specific grounds, while the second is permitted only to those living in Karafuto. The last named was formerly issued by public tender, but now it is restricted to certain persons. The catch of herrings for 1934 was 405,926,623 kilogrammes, valued at ¥209,908. The greater part of the fish are manufactured into manure. With regard to the trout and salmon fisheries, it is to be noted that the authorities concerned have lately attempted artificial fecundation to ensure the multiplication of these varieties. The catch of trout for the year under review was 8,161,899 kilogrammes, valued at ¥218,569 and that of salmon 1,579,104 kilogrammes valued at ¥127,187. The catch of codfish was 14,806,092 kilogrammes, value ¥57,358, and its by-product or codliver oil was produced to the extent of 4,597 kilogrammes, valued at ¥41,876. As for crabs, which constitute one of the important items among the catches, 2,767,803 were caught in 1934. They were valued at ¥532,749. In view of the gradual decrease in the catches, the authorities have taken measures to prevent the reckless ways of catching crabs hitherto pursued, and in 1934 effected merger of the manufactories in order to unify the quality of manufactures.

The values of catches of various fish mentioned above are all for the respective catches in raw state. Most of these catches are manufactured into various forms. To give values of these manufactures, herrings accounted for ¥9,260,107, trout for ¥671,445, salmon for ¥2,277,209.

Table 18. Statistics of General Situation in Fishery

Year	No. of fishing craft	No. of fishermen	Catches (¥1,000)	Manufacture (¥1,000)	Year	No. of fishing craft	No. of fishermen	Catches (¥1,000)	Manufacture (¥1,000)
1927.....	10,013	20,037	——	15,735	1931.....	14,111	24,764	12,750	10,497
1928.....	11,255	18,546	20,557	19,482	1932.....	16,451	26,712	10,638	9,370
1929.....	12,363	20,636	20,881	18,828	1933.....	16,668	25,259	13,195	10,245
1930.....	12,266	23,527	15,909	13,090	1934.....	17,363	25,807	15,674	12,383

Table 19. Catches of Principal Fish

(In yen)

Item	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Herrings	9,811,698	8,020,723	6,756,851	6,868,066	9,356,354
Trouts	1,161,910	609,279	369,120	1,927,229	817,164
Salmons	328,340	194,625	115,885	210,498	295,982
Cods	1,220,662	916,877	878,429	845,675	757,802
Crabs	1,661,553	1,749,380	937,335	1,683,325	2,280,513
Laminaria	645,251	689,600	934,927	501,406	957,025
Shell-fishes	158,685	131,912	34,281	76,084	79,301
..Total	15,909,075	12,750,419	10,638,131	13,195,350	15,673,760

FORESTRY

Karafuto abounds in primeval forests that occupy about 47% of the total area of the island and at present supply the territory with the most important natural products. Acerose trees, growing in the forests, are chiefly Ezo-matsu (Picea ajanensis, Fisch. and Karafuto-rakuyosho (Larix dahurica, Turez). They grow in mixed stands, though pure forests of the larch are found in some places. The broad leafed trees among which birches, willows, elms and alders are prominent, occupy the low lying places such as the river banks. On more elevated land acerose trees (most of which are Todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu but the larch is very scarce) form pure forests, though birches are often found growing mixed with them on the mountain side. The Haimatsu (Pinus pumila) grows densely on the tops of high mountains, while pure forests of birches are found on the tops of low mountains. The larch usually grows in low land. Generally speaking, the Todo-matsu and the Ezo-matsu are most plentiful, forming about 83% of the whole stock. Being very durable, the larch is in great demand for telegraph-poles, railway sleepers, and for other engineering purposes, but the larch not adapted for these purposes is used as fuel. Apart from use as timber and packing material, these acerose trees are utilized in far greater quantities as pulp wood. At present pulp factories exist at Otomari, Toyohara, Maoka, Noda, Ochiai, Shritori, Tomarioru and Estori, and their annual output being estimated in round numbers at 179,097 tons of pulp and 156,000 tons of paper.

The output of pulp and paper is as follows:—

Table 20. Output of Pulp and Paper

Year	No. of factories	Output of Pulp (M. tons)	Output of Pulp (Yen)	Output of Paper (M. tons)	Output of Paper (Yen)
1929.....	8	151,105	21,126,113	155,593	30,580,068
1930.....	8	161,703	21,103,005	139,562	30,652,270
1931.....	8	144,454	15,198,986	132,341	25,666,601
1932.....	8	128,763	13,421,184	129,711	24,537,313
1933.....	8	141,942	20,844,909	146,832	33,782,022
1934.....	8	179,097	28,247,894	156,196	37,229,883

Table 21. Forest Products

Year	Timber (¥1,000)	Fagots (¥1,000)	By-products (Yen)	Total (¥1,000)	Year	Timber (¥1,000)	Fagots (¥1,000)	By-products (Yen)	Total (¥1,000)
1929.....	10,788	128	6,741	10,923	1932.....	7,120	84	1,609	7,206
1930.....	9,576	108	2,134	9,686	1933.....	11,176	113	1,904	11,291
1931.....	8,090	107	2,282	8,200	1934.....	21,385	132	4,198	21,521

The area of the state forests of Karafuto is put at 2,904,294 hectares, which occupy about 80% of the area of the territory. The revenue from the forests for 1934 was ¥21,680,839, which was about 54% of the revenue of the Government of Karafuto.

MINING INDUSTRY

The strata of the island are generally of Tertiary formation and hold rich veins of coal. The coal bed consists of three measures, upper, middle and lower. The upper measure, which has a close connexion with the oil-bearing strata, pertains to the Pliocene, and the middle and the lower to the Eocene. Each of these measures exists on the both sides of a Cretaceous mountain range running from north to south, forming many important coal fields in the island. There are three great coal-fields, namely, the Northern, the Middle and the Southern. The Middle coal-field, which runs about 100 kilometres from north to south and has a breadth of from 2 to 5 kilometres, is the largest and belongs to the lower measure. A part of the Southern coal-fields following the western coast and the greater parts of the Northern and Eastern coal-fields belong to the upper measure. In the northern part of the western coast there are also important coal-fields belonging to the middle measure. Each of these contains at least 3 to 13 coal-seams with a thickness of from 1 to 10 metres. Investigations up to date have discovered reserves of coal amounting to approximately 1,399 million tons, and it is believed that there are reserves of more than 2,000 million tons in the island. The coal of the middle and lower measure is bituminous and that of the upper measure is lignite.

As to petroleum, the demand and supply of oil may be seen from the table given below:

Table 22. Demand and Supply of Oil
(Metric ton)

Year	Output	Import	Export	Consumption
1929...	635,515	27,404	16,380	646,539
1930...	644,947	12,687	12,646	644,988
1931...	637,962	3,960	38,079	603,843
1932...	677,389	241	51,833	625,797
1933...	889,913	—	168,604	721,309

RAILWAYS

The first railway in Karafuto was constructed by the Army Department in 1906 between Otomari (formerly Korsakovka) and Toyohara (formerly Vladimolovka), 41.8 kms. in length. It was a light railway with a gauge of 2 ft. and exclusively used for military purposes. With the withdrawal of the military government in April, 1907, the railway was transferred to the Karafuto Administration Office and opened to public traffic in August the same year.

Owing to an increase in the traffic, the gauge was widened to 3 ft. in 1910, while the construction of sections further north of Toyohara was started. The work on the Toyohara-Sakachama section having been completed in 1911, the Otomari-Sakachama section (94.1 kms.) which now forms the trunk line of the insular railway connexion, was opened to traffic. The work of construction was pushed on and the branch line connecting the Kawakami line with Konuma and the Honto-Noda section on the west coast were completed and opened to business respectively in 1914 and 1920. Besides, the construction of a branch line which connects Toyohara, the Capital of the territory, with Maoka on the west coast was started in 1921 and completed in 1928. The railway lines in operation as at the end of 1934 were 342.9 kilometres in length. Of this length 96.9 was represented by the East Coast Line, 83.8 by Toshin Line and 140.3 by the West Coast Line. Receipts from the passenger traffic for 1934-35 were ¥949,652 and those from the freight traffic ¥1,512,326, totalling ¥2,459,978.

Table 23. Results of the Government Railways

Year	No. of passengers carried	Volume of goods hauled (Ton)	Receipts from passenger traffic (¥)	Receipts from goods traffic (¥)
1929–30	1,837,497	847,252	1,226,694	1,495,202
1930–31	1,592,500	872,682	1,027,407	1,503,965
1931–32	1,519,377	745,707	911,969	1,271,203
1932–33	1,405,030	631,309	812,718	1,069,949
1933–34	1,400,482	735,542	830,639	1,227,819
1934–35	1,606,325	968,896	947,652	1,512,326

Private Railways

At the end of 1934 there were three private railways, namely, the Karafuto Railway Company, the South Karafuto Railway Company and the Naihoro Colliery Railway Company. The first named company operated a line of 239.2 kilometres, the second a line of 18.6 kilometres and the third a line of 16.4 kilometres. The earnings of the three Railway companies for the financial year of 1934-35 totalled ¥1,420,337.

Commerce and Industry

In sympathy with the growing development of industry in Karafuto, many companies of respectable sizes for various purposes have been increasingly established of late years. At the end of 1934 there were 394 companies with a subscribed capital of ¥61,144,150, of which ¥40,275,669 was paid up. All these companies were exclusively those having head offices in Karafuto.

Besides, there were eight companies whose head offices were outside the island. Their authorized capital was ¥252,258,000, of which ¥200,347,908 was paid up. The number of companies specified according to industry is tabulated below:—

Table 24. Number of Companies By Industries
(At the End of 1934)

	No. of Companies	Paid-up Capital (Yen)
Agriculture	19	245,000
Fishery	15	108,803
Mining	4	67,700,000
Manufacturing Industry	204	148,374,528
Commerce	204	9,914,733
Transport	68	14,910,511
Total	394	241,253,575

Industry

The principal industrial products of the territory are pulp, sake, tinned foods. As for the output of pulp and paper, refer to Table 17. The production of sake inclusive of alcohol, shochu, etc., for 1933-34 was 70,423 hectolitres, valued at ¥3,205,850. Tinned foods consist mostly of crabs, amounting to 54,985 boxes, valued at ¥2,268,286 in the year under notice.

Trade with Japan Proper and Foreign Countries

Trade with Japan Proper.—The trade of Karafuto with Japan Proper in 1934 figured out at ¥96,648,171 in exports and at ¥37,129,083 in imports, resulting in an export excess of ¥59,519,086. Contrasted with the previous year, exports show an increase of ¥23,192,647 and import ¥5,698,513.

Principal consignments from Japan in the year under review consisted of rice, textiles, oil, beer, rye, beans, salt, sugar, soy, tobacco, raw fish, vegetables, fruit, metal ware, drugs, wheat flour, eggs, lime, cokes, cement, etc.

Principal shipments consisted of pulp, timber, paper, fertilizer, salt fish, dried fish, fish oil, seaweeds, crabs, tinned foods, etc.

Foreign Trade.—There are two trading ports in Karafuto, one being Otomari and the other Maoka. The former was opened in March, 1909 and the latter in February, 1922. Formerly, foreign trade was almost confined to Korea, China and Russia in East Asia. Trade was opened with Kwantung Province in 1923, with England and America and Germany in 1925, with Spain, Belgium, the Dutch East Indies and Egypt in 1926 and with the Philippines and Manchoukuo in 1932.

The foreign trade of Karafuto began with the exportation of railway sleepers and other timbers to Korea, timber to China and coal to Russia in Asia and the importation of rails and other rolling stocks from Korea and trout and salmon from Russia in Asia. In 1910 exports and imports aggregated ¥35,607. Then trade progressed steadily until in 1913 its total value reached a height of ¥249,869. In 1916, however, the value of trade decreased to ¥53,276 through the effect of the World War. The following year the total value of trade recovered what it had lost due to an increase in exports. Thence it gradually increased until 1928. In 1922 Maoka Port was opened to foreign trade, but this caused an adverse turn to trade. From 1923 to 1928 trade continued showing an import excess. In the latter year imports and exports totally ¥937,710, resulting in a deficit balance of ¥539,294. The following year the total value of trade shot ahead of two million yen and showed a favourable balance. From the following year, however, trade began to diminish considerably due to the world-wide economic depression consequent upon the stringency of the money market and has displayed an adverse balance since 1932.

Principal exports are seaweeds, salt fish, dried fish, timber and principal imports salt, fodder, machinery.

References: Tables 1, 3, 4, 10-12, 15-17, 19, 20 & 23—Karafuto Yoran (Annual Report of the Karafuto Government), 1935. Tables 2, 6 & 7—Nippon Teikoku Tokei Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual), 1935. Tables 5, 13, 14, 18, 21, 22 & 24—Karafuto-cho Tokei-sho (Statistical Annual of the Karafuto Government), 1935. Tables 8 & 9—Okura-sho Nempo (Annual Report of the Department of Finance), 1935.

CHAPTER XXXVII

THE SOUTH SEA ISLANDS

GEOGRAPHY

Position and Area

Japan acquired through the Treaty of Peace concluded after the World War the mandatory right over the former German South Sea Islands north of the Equator. The archipelago had been occupied by a Japanese squadron in the beginning of the World War. It consists of three groups of Mariana, Marshall, and Caroline, comprising 1,458 islands, islets and reefs, scattered over a vast expanse of water extending for about 1,200 miles south to north and about 2,500 miles east to west. In other words, the territory stretches on the one hand between 130° to 175° E.L. and on the other between 0° and 22° N.L. and is situated to the south of Japan, with Hawaii far away to the east, and adjacent to the Philippines and the Dutch Celebes to the west, while to the south there lie the Island of New Guinea and the Bismarck Group and to the north the Bonin and Iwo Islands which form the southern extremity of the Japanese Empire. The area of the Islands is very small, the total being 960 square miles (2,149 square kilometres) and the population mostly consists of about 50,000 natives.

The number and area of the islands are as follows:—

Table 1. Groups of Islands and Their Area

Group	No. of Islands	Area (sq. kms)
Mariana	14	639 (41.43 sq. ri)
Caroline	549	1,320 (85.59 „)
Marshall.....	60	190 (12.30 „)
Total.....	623	2,149 (139.32 „)

The number and area of the islands classified according to the jurisdiction of the different branch bureaus of the South Seas Office are as follows:—

Table 2. Islands By Jurisdiction of Branch Bureaus of South Seas Office

Branch Bureau	No. of Island	Area (sq. kms.)	Position
Saipan (Mariana Group)	14	639 (41.43 sq. ri)	145°40′ E.L.—15°5′ N.L.
Yap (Caroline Group)	85	226 (14.64 „)	137°58′ „ — 9°25′ „
Palau „ „	109	478 (31.00 „)	143°10′ „ — 6°50′ „
Truk „ „	245	132 (8.55 „)	151°22′ „ — 6°57′ „
Ponape „ „	138	504 (32.65 „)	158°10′ „ — 6°45′ „
Jaluit (Marshall Group)	32	170 (11.05 „)	169°42′ „ — 5°48′ „
Total	623	2,149 (139.32 „)	

N.B.—The 32 islands under the jurisdiction of the Jaluit branch bureau consists of 867 reefs.

The principal islands and their areas are as follows:—

Table 3. Principal Islands and Their Area

Islands	Area (sq. kms.)
Saipan (Mariana Group)	185 (12.00 sq. ri)
Tinian „ „	98 (6 35 „)
Rota „ „	125 (8.10 „)
Yap (West Caroline Group).....	216 (14.00 „)
Palau Proper or Baobeltaob (West Caroline Group)	370 (24.00 „)
Korror Island (Palau Group)	8 (0.50 „)
Angaur (West Caroline Group).....	8 (0.50 „)
Spring Island (East Caroline Group)	22 (1.43 „)
Summer Island „ „	9 (0.58 „)
Wednesday Island „ „	23 (1.51 „)
Ponape „ „	375 (24.34 „)
Kusaie „ „	116 (7.50 „)
Jaluit (Marshall Group)	8 (0.51 „)

Weather and Climate

The Islands being situated in low altitudes, atmospheric pressure is generally low and undergoes no great change throughout the year. Broadly speaking, it is comparatively low in Truk and Ponape Islands. In the western part of the Caroline Group and Mariana Group it is high in February and March, but low in October and November.

Direction of Winds:—As the Islands lie scattered over a vast expanse of water, the direction of winds varies according to the different islands, so that no accurate description can be given. Usually, however, a north-easterly wind or easterly wind prevails from November till April of the following year, while between May and October the direction of the wind varies according to different localities. Thus in the western part of the Caroline Group a westerly or southerly wind prevails. and in other localities it blows diversely from the east and from the south. There is no wind for some time when changes take place in the direction of the wind.

Wind Velocity.—In the Mariana Group the wind is somewhat strong, developing a mean velocity of 4.6 m/s. for the year. It is weak in April and during August and September, but is strong from October till February of the following year. In other islands the wind is generally weak, the mean velocity registered being 2.1 m/s. In the western part of the Caroline Group, it is weak between April and June and also in September, but is strong from October till March of the following year. In the eastern part of the same group, it is weak between August and September, but is strong between January and March. There is seldom a really high wind in any of the islands.

Temperature.—Throughout the Islands, except Saipan, temperature is fairly uniform, the mean temperature registering from 26 to 28 degrees with the mean maximum of 29 or 30 degrees and the mean minimum of 24 or 25 degrees. The theremometer seldom rises above 32 degrees or falls below 20 degrees. Throughout the year the variations in temperature are very narrow. It has been observed that the difference between the highest and the lowest on a normal day is about 3 degrees.

Humidity.—All the Islands are humid, the mean relative humidity registered throughout the year being 82%, though in the western part of the Caroline Group it is a little less. In the Mariana Group humidity is greater between September and October and less in March. In the western part of the Caroline Group it is greater between June and July and less between March and April, while in the eastern part it is greater between September and October and less between January and March. There is no great change throughout the year and the minimum of less than 60% is but rarely registered.

Rainfall.—In all the Islands, the rainfall is extremely abundant, the total quantity of rainfall in a year varying between 2,000 and 4,000 millimeters and the average reaching as much as above 3,000 millimeters. Saipan is the least visited by rain, while Ponape and Palau are most plentifully favoured by it. It is no rare occurrence in the latter two islands that the total quantity of rainfall exceeds 4,000 millimeters a year. As to the rainfall in different seasons, there are places where no clear distinction can be made between the dry and wet seasons, but July-September is generally considered as wet and January-March as dry. Nevertheless it is by no means the same every year.

RACE, LANGUAGE, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS

Race.—The natives of the Islands as a whole, may be divided into two great tribes of Kanakas and Chamorros.

Chamorros.—The principal places inhabited by Chamorro tribesmen are the Mariana Group and Yap and Palau Islands in the West Caroline Group, only a few migrated Chamorros living in other islands. The ancestors of the Chamorros are said to have lived in Guam. The fact that they live mostly in the islands around and nearest to that island is probably due to the migration of their forefathers therefrom. Guam was in early days the center of the Mariana Group, and geographically it is quite natural that Chamorro tribesmen should have crossed to Rota from that island and then to Tinian and Saipan. It seems that a great many Chamorro immigrants came to Saipan and Tinian during the Spanish regime, and those two islands were fairly densely populated by them. Owing, however, to internal strifes and massacres following on rebellions. the Chamorro population has greatly dwindled and at present taking both Saipan and Rota together they total only a little more than 2,600, and even adding those living in Yap and Palau they

do not much exceed 3,000. The Chamorros living in Saipan, which contains a majority of the Chamarros in the South Sea Islands, are said to have greatly altered through intermarriages, with the Tagala tribesmen of characteristic physiognomical features, with yellowish brown skin and black hair.

Kanakas.—The Kanaka is the general appellation for the people living in Hawaii and other Pacific islands. A great majority of the natives of the South Sea Islands belong to this race but when close observations are made, it is found that those inhabiting the western islands seem to have much affinity with the Malay race and those inhabiting the eastern islands resemble the Polynesian race, while as one goes further south the more one comes across those similar in racial type to the Melanesian race. Though there is more or less difference between these three groups of Kanakas, they are generally dark-brown skinned and commonly have black hair, in some cases curled. Their eyebrows are thick and the space between the eyebrows and eyes is rather narrow, while their eyes are deeply sunken. Further, the alar cavities of the nose are wide, the mouth large and lips thick. They have not much beard and are generally artless and mild in their expression. In stature they are of medium height, but sometimes very big and tall men are found among them, such men being especially numerous in the southern islands.

Tribal Relations of Natives.—It is a fact that Charmorros are generally more advanced in civilization than Kanakas, but this is only relatively true, even Chamorros being very backward as compared with the civilized peoples. Chamorros and Kanakas differ in language, manners and customs, and not only do not intermarry but even in daily life rarely associate with each other. Considering themselves as superior, Chamorros dislike to have any connection with Kanakas in any matter. In fact the two live quite apart and no instance of rivalry, strife or enmity between them has occurred. Nearly all the Islands except Saipan are mainly inhabited by Kanakas, Chamorros being few in number. The two groups of people have always formed separate communities and have never been in the relation of conqueror and conquered, nor will be in the future. As a matter of course, both from the administrative and legal points of view, the Japanese Government treats them equally and without any discrimination.

Anthropological Investigation.—Dr. K. Hasebe, Professor at the Tohoku Imperial University of Japan, is engaged in anthropological investigations among the natives. He was despatched for investigation to the East Caroline Group and Marshall Group in 1915 by order of the Government, and then visited Palau and Yap Islands in 1927, Ponape and Truk in 1928, and Saipan, Ponape, Kusaie and Jaluit in 1929 under the commission from the South Seas Office to continue his research work. It is hoped that some day in the future an opportunity will present itself for the publication of the results of his research work.

Language.—Different dialects are spoken in different islands, there being no language common to all. Even in one and the same group of island, the dialects of the principal islands are different and there are not a few cases where in adjacent islands dialects different from those of the principal islands are spoken. For instance, the natives of Yap and those of the adjacent islands speak different dialects. It is the same with the natives of Ponape and Kusaie. All this is due to the difficulty of communications between the islands which are separated by great distances, which is also cause of great inconvenience in administration. Since the Islands were placed under the mandate rule of Japan, the authorities have established schools at important centers, and even in distant islands schools have been established at places inhabited by Japanese. As a result of the efforts made at those schools for spreading the knowledge of Japanese the number of natives able to speak the language is steadily on the increase, so that in most of the islands the Japanese language has become the medium of communication at least in matters of daily life.

In regard to the natives who can speak English, German or Spanish, no investigation has as yet been made, but there are a number of such natives. This is due to the fact that before Japan undertook the mandatory rule of the Islands, there were not a few natives, who had been educated at mission schools or were employed by Germans, Americans or Spaniards. Those natives who are above 25 years of age and were educated at mission schools or were employed by foreigners, speak more or less one or other of the three languages above mentioned. Among such natives, there are more Kanakas than Chamorros, as the former are more numerous, but in the point of ratio to their number Chamorros probably rank above Kanakas.

Manners and Customs.—As all the islands lie within the torrid zone, the natives have little need of clothes. Originally they used to go naked and bare-footed, both men and women wearing only a loin cloth. After frequently coming in contact with foreigners, however, many of them began to wear some kind of clothes. At present men mostly have their hair cut short and their faces shaved, and wear shirts and trousers, some even full suits, while women are generally dressed in a garment resembling the night-gown worn by European women.

As the islands lie scattered over great distances, the manners in one island are naturally different from those of another, so that no generalization can be made in this respect. But in Saipan Island and the Marshall Group, which were the earliest to come in contact with civilization, the natives imitate Europeans and wear hats and shoes, and look smart like civilized people at least in appearance. In regard to dress, things get gradually worse as one goes from the middle part of Ponape to Truk, Yap and Palau. Especially is the condition unsatisfactory in Yap, the natives of which still wear no clothes. A curious sight to be seen there is the waist-cloth worn by women. It is made of the fibres of trees or of grass and the wearer makes a rustling sound as she walks.

Ornaments.—Having little need of clothes, the natives have not been accustomed to wear ornaments. Nevertheless, they have more or less sense of beauty, and both men and women adorn themselves with something or other, each island having its own custom in this respect. The most common of decorative devices resorted to is tattooing. Simple patterns or letters of the Roman alphabet are tatooed on the limbs or on the breast, and some natives are tattooed all over their hands and feet, it being their pride to have their skin marked as extensively as possible with complicated patterns. Another way of ornamenting the body is to make scars on the arms, thighs or breast. This devise is adopted for dual purposes of decoration and the expression of courage, and is most widely practized in Ponape.

In Truk Island, holes are bored through the ear-lobes and gradually enlarged, and rings made of shells or wood are suspended from them. Ear-rings and armlets are also used by natives for decorative purposes.

The above-mentioned customs are practised both by men and women, but are generally confined to people above middle age, and thanks to the spread of education, they are disappearing among the rising generation.

Diet.—The natives live chiefly on wild fruits and vegetables, occasionally taking fish and meat. Relying on nature's bounty, practically none engages in labour for the purpose of obtaining food. A few people sow seeds, but leave them entirely unattended. When the harvest comes, however, they gather more than they can consume, a state of affairs entirely due to the abundance of Nature's favour. The staple food of the natives is breadfruits, taro potatoes, yam potatoes, and palm fruits, and besides, "hoee" and tapioca are consumed as subsidiary food. Breadfruits and potatoes are most plentifully obtained. Breadfruits, which ripen between May and November, are as large as the head of a child, and when roasted or boiled taste like bread. One is enough for two meals. Yam potatoes grow in mountainous districts and taro potatoes in low-lying land. Both are very large in size. Yams are particularly so, specimens measuring 3 feet by one foot being found. Unripen palm fruits yield juice, which makes a good drink. Ripe palm fruits contain fatty flesh, which is white in colour and has a very agreeable flavour. "Hoee" is consumed in Yap, and tapioca in Palau. The former is a large-sized chestnut and the latter is a sort of starch. Both are favourite foodstuffs of the natives. Bananas, pine-apples, mangoes, papayas, lemons and oranges are obtainable everywhere and in large quantities, but are only taken as a relish. Fish are rich in kind and quantity but the method of fishing being very primitive, the catches taken by natives do not amount to much.

The supply of meat is fairly abundant as oxen, pigs, and chickens are kept everywhere. Intoxicating liquors and tobacco are coveted by the natives, but under the restrictions placed on the consumption of the former by the terms of the Mandate, the natives are not permitted to drink them except on ceremonial occasions and for medical purposes. In certain localities, some natives abstain from drinking and smoking for religious reasons.

The habit of chewing the betel-nut is widespread both in Yap and Palau, nearly all the people being addicted to it, without discrimination between men and women. Many boys and girls contract the habit at an early age.

In Ponape Island, a custom has been prevalent from early times to drink the juice extracted from a perennial herb called Shakao or Sakao by pounding its roots. This drink is taken only on such occasions as marriages, funerals, the construction of new houses, the first use of fishing nets, the repairing of roads and the clearing of the undergrowth in palm forests, when people assemble and take meals together, but it is seldom indulged in at pri-

vate homes. It causes a slight excitement to the drinker and gradually makes him sleepy. The natives call it Kawakawa or Kawa wine. It is not a kind of alcoholic beverage, and contains no alkaloid similar to that found in morphine or cocaine. But inasmuch as it causes such effect, and if it is abused too often it may make the drinker indolent, its consumption is permitted, following the precedent established under the German regime, only when there is good justification and when it is not indulged in more than once a week.

Dwelling Houses.—The native houses are very simple in construction and poor in appearance. As the stage of civilization attained in various Islands there is naturally a difference in the building material and in the style of construction among them. The Chamorros in Saipan, who were the earliest to come in contact with civilization, are comparatively advanced in architecture. The houses in Garapan street inhabited by them are mostly built of wood, and stand adjoining each other with stone buildings between them, so that the street has quite a European appearance. The houses in Yap are low and gloomy, giving an impression of primitiveness. Some have foundations made of stone and built of large timber, but in construction they are not much advanced beyond temporary sheds, with a sharp-pitched roof and a few windows and doors, while inside they are damp, gloomy and dark even during the daytime. In Palau, nearly all the houses have floors and are tolerably well provided with windows and doors. In Ponape the situation is roughly the same as in Palau, but in Truk and Jaluit the houses are very bad having no floors and are no better than temporary sheds. Occasionally, however, houses of European style are found. They belong to wealthy men or to those who have come under European influence.

Throughout the island there are buildings which go by the name of "all men houses." These are used on the occasion of meetings of villages or for lodging visitors from other villages. Each village has one or two such houses, and a community of several villages another. All have been built by co-operation and are used for the common benefit. It is said that they are relics of by-gone fighting ages. Those in Yap are famous for their extraordinary size. In the same island, houses exclusively for women are to be found, each village having one or two of them. They are occupied by women during their monthly sickness and no man is allowed access to them. This custom is peculiar to Yap.

In 1925 the Government commissioned Mr. S. Matsuoka to study the manners and customs of the islanders. His work was published in 1927 under the title "On the Micronesian Race."

ADMINISTRATION

In December, 1914, the South Seas Defence Corps was set up to garrison and administer the South Sea Islands. The regulations for the defence corps were revised in July, 1918, and a Civil Administration Department was established which was put under the direction of the Commander of the Defence Corps to take charge of the administration, while the Corps was charged with local defence.

On the adoption by the Council of the League of Nations on December 17, 1920, of the terms of the Mandate for the German possessions in the Pacific Ocean lying north of the Equador, the Japanese Government steadily pushed on preparations for carrying out the duties entrusted to it and after 1921 gradually withdrew the garrisons stationed in the Islands. On April 1, 1922, the Government abolished the system of the South Seas Defence Corps and effected the withdrawal of the garrison, and at the same time created the South Seas Office to carry on the administration of the territory in place of the defence corps.

The South Seas Office has its headquarters in Korror, one of the Palau Islands in the West Caroline Group. The Director of the Office or Governor of the South Sea Islands under the direction and superintendence of the Minister of Overseas Affairs, manages the various administrative affairs of the mandated territory. With regard, however, to matters relating to post and telegraph he is under the superintendence of the Minister of Communications; in matters of currency, banking and customs duties, of the Minister of Finance, and in regard to weights and measures, of the Minister of Commerce & Industry.

The Director (Governor) is entrusted with the management of the general administrative affairs of the Islands and the issue of necessary regulations with penal clauses imposing penal servitude, imprisonment or detention for a period not exceeding one year, or fines or minor fines not exceeding 200 yen in amount. In cases of emergency and for the purpose of maintaining peace and order he may issue regulations with penal clauses heavier than those above mentioned. In such cases, however, he has to ask for Imperial sanction through the Minister of Overseas Affairs immediately after the issue of the regulations, and, if Imperial sanction is not obtained he has to proclaim their invalidity for the future.

Legally, the Director (Governor) is thus authorized to issue regulations concerning matters for the management of the administrative affairs of the mandate territory. In practice, however, all important matters are decided by Imperial Ordinances.

If and when it is necessary, in the judgment of the Director, for the preservation of peace and order in the territory under his jurisdiction, he may request the commander of a naval port or the senior officer in command of the naval forces in the neighbourhood to employ naval force.

The Director may also cancel or suspend rules and instructions issued or measures taken by officials under his jurisdiction, if he considers such to be at variance with laws and regulations, to be injurious to the public welfare or to exceed the competence of the said officials.

THE SOUTH SEAS OFFICE

The South Seas Office contains the Director's secretariat and five sections, namely, the General Section, the Financial Section, the Police Section, the Economic Development Section and the Communication Section. The Director's secretariat is in charge principally of confidential matters; the General Section, of affairs relating to local administration and public works; the Police Section, of those relating to police, hygiene and prisons; the Financial Section, of those relating to budgets and accounts; the Economic Development Section, of those relating to industry; the Communications Section, of those relating to post, telegraph, shipping and nautical marks.

Besides these six sections, there are the Saipan Harbour Works Office and the Products Museum, respectively entrusted with the construction works at the harbour of Saipan and the exhibition of products of the territory.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

Until the Regulations for the South Seas Islands Defence Corps were revised in July, 1918, the Islands were divided into six districts, and the commander of the garrison in each district, assisted by a civil secretary, dealt with civil administrative affairs in that district. But after the Regulations were revised, a civil administration office was established in each of the above mentioned six districts, and civil officials were appointed to take charge of local administrative and judicial affairs. The head of such an office was empowered either ex-officio or by special authorization to issue regulations with penal clause imposing detention or fines.

On the establishment of the South Seas Office in April, 1922, the civil administration offices were abolished, and six branch bureaus were established in their place, the sphere of their jurisdiction being the same as that of their predecessors. A branch bureau is an ordinary local administrative organ having charge of all affairs relating to census, registration, charity and relief, police, prison, hygiene, collection of taxes, education, religion, industry, civil engineering works, harbours, and other matters which do not come under the competence of any specially established office.

A branch bureau has a head, who, under the direction and superintendence of the Governor or Director of the South Seas Office puts into effect laws and regulations and manages administrative affairs in the district under his jurisdiction.

With regard to administrative affairs in the district under his jurisdiction, the head of a branch bureau is empowered ex-officio or by special authorization to issue rules. He is not authorized, however, to attach thereto any penal clauses. In case the Director of the South Seas Office finds such rules to be at variance with existing laws and regulations, or injurious to public welfare, or to exceed the competence of the authority, he may cancel or suspend them.

The head of a branch bureau is authorized to arbitrate in civil disputes and to pass summary judgment with regard to certain offences. In respect of the detection of offenders, as a judicial police officer, he has the same power as the public procurator of a local court.

The names, sites and sphere of jurisdiction of the branch bureau are as follows:—

Table 4. Names, Sites and Sphere of Jurisdiction of Branch Bureaux

Name	Site	Sphere of Jurisdiction
Saipan Branch Bureau	Saipan Islands of Mariana Group.	Whole of Mariana Group.
Tinian Branch Office	Tinian Island of Mariana Group.	Tinian Island & Agikan Island
Yap Branch Bureau	Yap Island of West Caroline Group	West Caroline Group (east of 137° E. L.)

(Continued)

Name	Site	Sphere of Jurisdiction
Palau Branch Bureau	Korror Island of the Palau Islands of West Caroline Group.	West Caroline Group (west of 137° E. L.)
Truk Branch Bureau	Summer Island of Truk Islands in the East Caroline Group.	East Caroline Group (west of 154° E. L.)
Ponape Branch Bureau	Ponape Island of East Caroline Group.	East Caroline Group (east of 154° E. L.) and Marshall Group (west of 164° E. L.)
Jaluit Branch Bureau	Jaluit Island of Marshall Group	Marshall Group (east of 164° E. L.)

Village Officials

In order to admit the appointment of natives as village officials and enable them to participate in the local administration, the offices of village chiefs and assistant village chiefs have been instituted in the district under the jurisdiction of each branch bureau. These village officials are appointed and dismissed by the head of the branch bureau with the sanction of the Director of the South Seas Office. In conformity with old usage, assistant village chiefs assist village chiefs in the discharge of their duties or may carry out some portion of them.

The sphere of jurisdiction of a native official is determined in accordance with usage, but it may be changed by the head of a branch bureau after inviting and considering the opinions of interested officials and obtaining the approval of the Director of the South Seas Office.

A village chief or an assistant village chief shall, under the direction of the head of the branch bureau, execute his functions defined by laws, regulations and local conventions, and at the same time shall execute the following activities which concern native inhabitants.

(1) Bringing laws and regulations to the notice of villagers.
(2) Forwarding to the authorities of applications, reports, etc. sent in by villagers.
(3) Transmission by villagers and the due execution of instructions issued by the head of the branch bureau.

In addition to the above-mentioned matters, a village chief or an assistant village chief is required to make a report at least twice a year to the head of the branch bureau or to the proper police officer concerning the conditions, changes in population, etc., of the village under his jurisdiction. In case epidemics break out, natural calamities happen, injurious insects appear, or any other important occurrences take place, he must immediately report it to the authorities.

A village chief may submit to the head of the competent branch bureau his opinion concerning the administration of the village under his jurisdiction.

A village chief is accorded a monthly allowance not exceeding 35 yen in amount and an assistant village chief an allowance not exceeding 20 yen in amount.

POPULATION

The total number of population as on April 1, 1935 was 98,565, of which 51,056 represented the islanders, 47,412 Japanese and 97 foreigners.

Natives.—Of 51,056 islanders, as many as 47,016 were Kanakas and the rest or only 4,040 Chamorros. The Chamorros are very prolific, but the Kanakas are static. Even a yearly decrease is shown by the Kanakas under the jurisdiction of the Yap Bureau Branch.

Japanese.—The number of Japanese, which was only scores at the time of the occupation of the islands by Japan, gradually increased until in April 1, 1935 the number increased to 47,412, as stated above (consisting of 28,870 males and 18,542 females). The majority of them live in the islands under the jurisdiction of the Saipan Bureau Branch, and most of them are engaged in agriculture.

Foreigners.—At the time of Japan's occupation of the islands there were about 100 foreigners, mostly German missionaries and merchants. Later these Germans left the islands. At one time there were only a handful, or ten odd foreigners, English and American, in the islands. In 1921 over 30 Spanish missionaries came to the islands. Since then the islands have gradually been inhabited by Germans and Belgians. As stated above, there were 97 foreigners resident on April 1, 1935. The greater number of them are concerned either directly or indirectly with religious work.

The inhabitants classified by islands and nationality are tabulated below:—

Table 5. Inhabitants Classified By Islands

		Japanese		Natives		Foreigners		Total	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Saipan	1930	9,537	6,119	1,945	1,884	7	4	11,489	8,007
	1932	12,033	7,828	2,110	1,970	9	4	14,152	9,802
	1933	14,357	9,340	2,190	1,993	7	8	16,544	11,341
	1934	15,504	11,199	2,255	2,057	7	7	17,766	13,263
	1935	21,305	14,638	2,557	2,360	7	8	23,869	17,006
Yap	1930	149	92	3,146	3,340	4	4	3,299	3,436
	1932	165	101	3,071	3,250	5	4	3,241	3,355
	1933	228	132	3,131	3,224	6	4	3,365	3,360
	1934	276	143	3,024	3,133	7	4	3,307	3,280
	1935	243	145	2,970	3,068	6	4	3,219	2,220
Palau	1930	1,266	812	3,305	2,704	13	1	4,584	3,517
	1932	2,009	994	3,293	2,738	12	1	5,314	3,733
	1933	2,307	1,350	3,295	2,775	14	2	5,616	4,127
	1934	2,881	1,661	3,310	2,763	14	3	6,205	4,427
	1935	3,980	2,118	3,394	2,703	13	2	7,387	4,823
Truk	1930	540	209	7,690	7,510	16	7	8,246	7,726
	1932	717	321	7,925	7,487	17	7	8,659	7,812
	1933	736	370	7,754	7,460	19	7	8,509	7,837
	1934	908	502	7,696	7,558	18	7	8,622	8,067
	1935	1,461	608	7,833	7,592	18	6	9,312	8,206
Ponape	1930	450	239	4,343	3,858	13	7	4,806	4,104
	1932	757	384	4,383	3,951	13	11	5,153	4,346
	1933	886	531	4,430	3,994	12	11	5,328	4,536
	1934	1,145	670	4,494	4,013	11	12	5,650	4,695
	1935	1,566	870	4,607	4,124	12	13	6,185	5,007
Jaluit	1930	320	102	5,167	4,803	18	2	5,505	4,907
	1932	322	135	5,100	4,770	12	3	5,434	4,908
	1933	287	146	5,086	4,782	10	–	5,383	4,928
	1934	292	147	5,091	4,780	12	1	5,395	4,928
	1935	315	160	5,092	4,756	8	—	5,415	4,916
Total	1930	12,262	7,573	25,596	24,099	71	25	37,929	31,697
	1932	16,003	9,763	25,882	34,163	68	30	41,953	33,956
	1933	18,801	11,869	25,886	24,201	68	32	44,755	36,129
	1934	21,006	14,322	25,870	24,304	69	34	46,945	36,660
	1935	28,870	18,542	26,453	24,603	64	33	55,387	43,178

N.B.—Figures for 1932, 1933, 1954 and 1935 are for the 1st of April.

Japanese immigrating into the islands show an increase yearly. Whereas in 1930 there were only 15,656 Japanese in Saipan the number more than doubled five years later, the population in 1935 amounting to 35,943.

The number of population and households, and density of population per square kilometer as on the 1st of April, 1935, are tabulated as follow:—

Table 6. Statistics of Population

Branch bureau	Population	Area sq. kms.	Density per square km.	No. of households
Saipan	40,875	639	64.0	8,986
Yap	6,439	226	28.5	1,829
Palau	12,210	478	25.5	3,103
Truk	17,518	132	132.7	3,905
Ponape	11,192	504	22.2	2,331
Jaluit	10,331	170	60.8	1,976
Total	98,565	2,149	45.9	22,130

The number of births, deaths, and the death rate to 1000 births for the last five years ended 1934 are returned as follow:—

Table 7. Movement of Population

		Total			Japanese & Foreigners			Natives		
	Year	Births	Deaths	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate
Saipan	1930	981	273	27.8	818	198	24.2	163	75	46.0
	1931	1,178	424	36.8	1,001	309	30.8	177	124	70.6
	1932	1,362	337	24.7	1,214	243	20.0	148	94	63.5
	1933	1,569	468	29.8	1,411	368	26.1	158	100	63.3
	1934	1,705	512	30.0	1,545	415	26.8	160	97	60.6

(Continued)

	Year	Total			Japanese & Foreigners			Natives		
		Year	Births	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate	Births	Deaths	Rate
Yap	1930	150	227	151.3	16	1	6.3	134	226	168.7
	1931	119	201	168.9	9	3	33.3	110	198	180.0
	1932	141	214	151.7	11	3	27.3	130	211	162.3
	1933	131	267	203.8	10	1	10.0	121	266	219.8
	1934	110	235	213.6	16	9	56.3	94	226	240.4
Palau	1930	249	128	51.6	94	27	28.7	154	101	65.5
	1931	278	166	59.7	97	45	46.4	181	121	66.9
	1932	242	126	52.1	95	28	29.5	147	98	66.7
	1933	320	250	64.1	148	58	39.2	172	147	85.0
	1934	343	162	47.2	206	59	28.6	137	103	75.2
Truk	1930	562	335	59.6	15	6	40.0	547	329	60.1
	1931	358	332	92.5	42	17	40.5	316	315	99.7
	1932	411	363	88.3	38	11	28.9	373	352	94.4
	1933	676	753	111.4	60	18	30.0	616	735	119.3
	1934	520	428	82.3	76	26	24.2	444	402	90.5
Ponape	1930	296	109	36.8	37	6	16.2	259	103	39.8
	1931	279	140	50.2	24	8	33.3	255	232	51.8
	1932	299	145	48.5	58	16	27.6	241	129	53.5
	1933	320	221	69.1	71	24	33.8	249	197	79.1
	1934	281	115	40.9	57	22	38.6	224	93	41.5
Jaluit	1930	269	121	45.0	16	4	18.8	253	118	46.6
	1931	204	177	86.8	14	4	28.6	190	175	91.1
	1932	167	317	189.8	16	6	37.5	151	311	206.0
	1933	263	199	75.7	17	7	41.2	246	192	78.0
	1934	172	190	110.5	20	9	45.0	152	181	119.1
Total	1930	2,506	1,193	47.6	996	241	24.2	1,510	952	63.0
	1931	2,416	1,450	60.0	1,187	386	32.5	1,229	1,064	86.6
	1932	2,622	1,502	57.3	1,432	307	21.4	1,190	1,194	100.4
	1933	3,279	2,113	64.4	1,717	476	27.7	1,562	1,637	104.8
	1934	3,131	1,642	52.4	1,920	640	28.1	1,211	1,102	91.0

FINANCE

The Budget estimates for the South Seas Office, like the general budget of the Japanese Government, must annually obtain the approval of the Imperial Diet as required by the Constitution. The Financial Law of Japan as well as the special financial law for the South Seas Office applies to the estimates (revenue and expenditure).

The accounts of the South Seas Office are independent of the general account of the Japanese Government, and are dealt with as special accounts. The expenditure of the South Seas Office is met from the revenue collected by the Office plus a subsidy from the general accounts of the Japanese Government. The Government should draw up estimates of the revenue and expenditure under the special accounts of the South Seas Office and submit them to the Imperial Diet together with the general budget of its revenue and expenditure.

The revenue and expenditure for the last few years ending 1935-36 are shown below (in yen):—

Table 8. Revenue and Expenditure

(¥)

Year	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
1931-32	4,699,059	2,999,531	7,698,590	2,432,547	2,143,889	4,576,436
1932-33	4,819,390	3,134,687	7,953,987	2,500,544	2,233,199	4,733,743
1933-34	5,011,282	3,237,488	8,248,769	2,755,171	2,527,324	5,282,495
1934-35	5,118,467	2,979,829	8,098,295	2,914,837	2,478,925	5,393,762
*1935-36	5,827,266	150,430	5,977,696	3,156,214	2,821,482	5,977,696

* Budget accounts.

(a) Revenue

(Continued)

	1932-33 (Settled)	1933-34 (Settled)	1934-35 (Settled)	1935-36 (Budget)
Poll tax	¥ 81,722	¥ 78,705	¥ 72,006	¥ 86,151
Port clearance dues	3,090,000	3,087,228	2,691,586	3,647,390
Customs duties	40,428	36,179	35,189	31,842
Mining tax	143	143	1,005	574
Total	3,212,294	3,152,255	2,799,736	3,765,957
Revenues other than taxes:				
Income from Government undertakings and property	1,573,048	1,756,686	2,272,539	2,021,621
Stamp receipts	14,602	26,565	22,891	18,764
Miscellaneous receipts	19,353	75,675	23,301	20,924
Sales of Government property	12,533	17,244	13,555	50,544
Subsidies	—	—	—	—
Surplus brought over from previous year	3,122,153	3,237,488	2,966,274	99,886
Total	4,741,492	5,096,514	5,298,560	5,977,696

(b) Expenditure

Ordinary:	1932-33 (Settled)	1933-34 (Settled)	1934-35 (Settled)	1935-36 (Budget)
Salaries	¥ 788,147	¥ 836,757	¥ 875,195	¥ 928,762
Office expenses	936,709	1,085,284	1,157,224	1,240,952
Expenses for improvement	646,879	702,815	728,173	754,755
Education	54,375	61,727	66,020	70,550
Sanitation	18,314	7,271	10,065	11,073
Police and prison	8,239	10,285	11,621	7,514
Other expenses	23,052	27,641	26,375	37,930
National debt sinking fund & share in pensions	24,828	28,442	40,163	54,153
Reserves	—	—	—	50,000
Total	2,500,544	2,755,171	2,914,837	3,156,214
Extraordinary:	1932-33 (Settled)	1933-34 (Settled)	1934-35 (Settled)	1935-36 (Budget)
Public and Repair Works	¥ 554,645	¥ 707,604	¥ 639,989	¥ 616,288
Construction of Saipan pier	—	132,429	211,705	211,435
Industry Development	146,286	182,664	187,263	199,895
Construction of Palau ship stand	—	120,628	74,485	—
Improvement of Saipan harbour	62,850	—	—	—
Investigation expense for Industry, etc.	—	16,158	29,696	50,000
Establishments for Aviation	—	—	—	213,336
Encouragements & Subsidies	1,347,890	1,185,401	1,204,123	1,377,030
Land surveying	42,923	44,482	47,088	47,950
Census of 1935	—	—	3,392	32,770
Total Incl. others	2,233,199	2,527,324	2,478,925	2,821,482
Total expenditures	4,733,743	5,282,495	5,393,762	5,977,696

RELIGION

In the mandated territory the propagation of and belief in any religion is entirely free, and no restriction whatever is placed thereon, no matter whether the persons concerned are Japanese, foreigners or natives, as long as it does not prejudice the public peace or good morals. As a matter of fact, since the inauguration of the mandatory administration no instance of any prohibition or restriction on account of prejudice to the public peace or good morals has occurred in the territory.

During the Spanish and German regimes, owing to the zealous evangelistic work carried on by Christian missionaries, many natives embraced Christianity, with the result that it is no exaggeration to say that to-day the religion of the natives is exclusively Christianity. The effects of the propagation of Christianity are so remarkable that the fact of the islanders being generally genial in disposition is said to be due chiefly to Christian influence. The East Hongwanji of Kyoto established a mission station in Saipan in 1919 and another in Palau in 1926 for the benefit of Japanese believers. Then Tenri-kyo, a denomination of Shinto, established a church at Palau and commenced the propagation of its creed in 1929. At the end of April, 1935, churches numbered 33 (composed of Christianity 25, Buddhist 6, and Tenri-kyo 2), preaching stations 116, missionaries 43, believers 67,028 composed of 40,749 Christians, 26,150 Buddhists and 129 Shintoists (Tenri-kyo). In the same period Christian schools numbered 13, staff 36, pupils 1,507 including 679 males.

EDUCATION

In December, 1915, the Regulations for Primary Schools in the South Sea Islands were promulgated and primary schools were established in Saipan and five other places, to commence the education of native children. In July, 1918, the Regulations for Native Schools in the South Sea Islands were enacted and the primary schools were thereafter re-named native schools. The teaching staff was also augmented in force and additional schools were established.

In April, 1919, the Regulations for Primary Schools in the South Sea Islands were enacted for the education of Japanese children, and primary schools were established in Saipan and Truk, and later in Palau, Yap and Ponape.

On the establishment of the South Seas Office, the Regulations for the Organization of the South Seas Primary Schools and the Regulations for the Organization of the South Seas Office Public Schools were promulgated, defining the organization and sphere of these schools. The native schools were thereby renamed public schools, and the regulations governing primary and public schools were revised.

Further, for the vocational education of natives the Apprentice Woodworkers Training School was established in April, 1926, attached to the Korror Public School under the jurisdiction of the Palau Branch Office.

To this school are admitted boys from all districts selected from among those who have completed the course of instruction at public schools and have gone through the supplementary course, and there they are given instruction in building and carpentry.

Primary Schools.—The primary school is principally intended for the primary education of Japanese children and is divided into two courses ordinary and higher. On the 30th of April, 1935 there were throughout the islands 18 primary schools, six of which were provided with higher courses. Teachers numbered 83 and pupils 4,905.

Public Schools.—At the same date or the end of April, 1935 there were 24 public schools with 82 teachers and 2,954 pupils. As a rule, children eligible to attend a public school are those of natives, who are above eight years of age. The institution gives primary education to native children, its fundamental object being the imparting of moral senses as well as of such knowledge and capacity as are indispensible to the advancement of the living of the native population, with due regard at the same time, to their physical development.

Private Educational Institutions.—The educational institutions established by private bodies were formerly confined to mission schools belonging to Christian churches. In 1927, however, two kindergartens and one private public school were established. At the end of April 1935 there existed seven private schools with 16 teachers and 370 pupils.

JUSTICE AND POLICE

Judicature

Simultaneously with the establishment of the South Seas Office in 1922, the Courts of Justice therefore forming part of the machinery of the Civil Administration Department were abolished, and Local Courts and a Higher Court were established in their place, judicial officials independent of the executive being appointed thereto to deal with civil and criminal cases. All judicial affairs in the mandated territory are to be dealt with at these courts, except in such a place where there is no courts of justice, and the head of the branch bureau is authorized to deal with certain civil cases and also to render summary judgment in criminal cases of comparatively minor gravity.

Courts of Justice.—The Courts of Justice are organized on a double instance system. A court of first instance is called Local Court, and a single judge system is adopted in such courts. A court of second instance is called Higher Court, and a bench system is here adopted, three judges constituting the bench.

The Local Court gives decisions in the first instance in civil and criminal cases, besides dealing with non-contentious cases. It also has jurisdiction over judicial reconciliation, summary procedure, compulsory execution against immovable property and vessels, the procedure for public summons, bankruptcy proceedings, reconciliation proceedings, summary proceedings for taking up entrusted criminal cases, etc.

The Judge of a Local Court deals with the drawing up of notarial deeds, the authentification of private documents and other matters included in the functions of notary in Japan, and the clerks of a Local Court deal with the delivery of documents, notifications, summons, compulsory execution against movable property and voluntary sales by auction of movable property, the drawing up of protests for non-acceptance, the collection of fines, the disposal of confiscated articles, the execution of warrants and other matters comprised in the functions of a bailiff in Japan.

The Higher Court reviews cases on appeal from the judgments of the Local Courts, the decisions given being in the second instance and final.

A Public Procurator's Office is attached to each of the Courts of Justice, its sphere of jurisdication being the same as that of the Court to which it belongs.

The Public Procurator directs and superintends the judicial police in the detection of the offenders, bring judicial proceedings, before the Court of Justice and directs and superintends the execution of judgments rendered.

One Public Procurator in regular employment is appointed for all the Public Procurator's Offices and is stationed ordinarily in Palau Island. The function of the Public Procurator is entrusted to Police Inspectors at the Public Procurator's Office attached to the Local Courts at Ponape and at Saipan but grave cases are usually reserved for the direct action of the Public Procurator. The Public Procurator is the central organ of detective service, and Police Inspectors and Police Sergeants, who are administrative police officers, assist the Public Procurator and engage in detective service under his direction in the capacity of judicial police officers. The head of a branch bureau and the Police Superintendent in the capacity of judicial police officers have the same competence as the Public Procurator in regard to detective service. The Local Courts are established in three places, namely Palau, Saipan and Ponape, and the Higher Court in Palau.

In 1934 the number of criminal cases tried at the courts of justice numbered 346, persons found guilty numbered 775 including 378 Japanese.

POLICE

After the complete withdrawal of the naval forces from the Islands in April, 1922, the maintenance of peace and order in the territory was placed exclusively in the hands of the police.

This necessitated an augmentation of the police force. Accordingly, for the management of affairs concerning police, sanitation and the execution of sentences, a police superintendent, police inspectors, police sergeants and policemen have been appointed to the South Seas Office, and police inspectors, police sergeants, policemen and native policemen to each branch bureau. The number of police offices including branches and the personnel of the police at the end of August 1935 were as follow:—

Table 9. Number of Police Offices and of Police

	No. of police offices incl. branches	Police superintendents	Police inspectors	Police sergeants	Chief policemen	Policemen	Native policemen
South Seas Office	—	1	2	2	3	1	—
Saipan Branch Bureau	12	—	3	3	5	37	12
Yap " "	3	—	1	—	1	6	6
Palau " "	8	—	1	1	2	15	10
Truk " "	5	—	1	—	1	8	7
Ponape " "	6	—	1	1	2	9	8
Jaluit " "	3	—	2	—	1	6	6
Total	37	1	11	7	15	82	49

AGRICULTURE

Agricultural industry carried on by natives is in a very primitive state. They have no system of cultivation, growing extensively only a few crops such as tapioca, taro potatoes and yam potatoes by rotation. Though the most part of the best situated and really fertile tracts of land belong to natives, the greater portion of such land still remains undeveloped. If they were more enlightened in agricultural knowledge and taught advanced methods of cultivation, their prosperity would be remarkably advanced. With this in view, since the Islands came under Japanese administration, the authorities have been endeavouring in various ways to instruct and lead them in this respect, but their efforts so far have been rewarded with lamentably poor success. This is due to the bounty of nature, which frees them from the necessity of making any great efforts to obtain a livelihood, as well as to the traditional idea prevailing among them that farming is work for women, which makes them indolent and indifferent towards agriculture. At

the end of 1934, the total area under cultivation approximated 51,320 hectares of which 1,390 hectares are paddy, 16,300 hectares upland, 33,570 cocoa plantations. The area, the number of farming households and of population at the end of December, 1934 are as follow:—

Table 10. Area under Cultivation

(1934)

Branch bureau	Paddy (Hectares)	Upland (Hectares)	Total (Hectares)
Saipan	0.99	13,883.87	13,884.86
Yap	937.44	578.52	1,515.96
Palau	229.26	482.57	711.83
Truk	118.10	218.90	337.00
Ponape	100.73	865.07	965.80
Jaluit	1.98	332.57	334.55
Total	1,388.50	16,361.50	17,750.00
Total for 1933	1,388.87	13.612.94	15,001.81
Total for 1932	1,250.68	12,460.98	13,385.92

Table 11. Number of Farming Households and Population

(1934)

		No. of farming households	Farming population		
			Male	Female	Total
Saipan	Japanese	2,632	4,491	2,901	7,392
	Natives	578	1,062	722	1,784
Yap	Japanese	52	52	—	52
	Natives	1,681	1,820	927	2,747
Palau	Japanese	113	168	105	273
	Natives	740	2,035	1,701	3,736
Truk	Japanese	1	4	1	5
	Natives	2,513	4,308	3,393	7,701
Ponape	Japanese	160	191	87	278
	Natives	1,459	2,287	1,791	4,078
Jaluit	Japanese	—	—	—	—
	Natives	1,696	2,542	1,128	3,690
Total	Japanese	2,958	4,906	3,094	8,000
	Natives	8,667	14,054	9,662	23,716
Total for 1933	Japanese	3,075	4,179	2,183	6,362
	Natives	7,900	12,787	7,745	20,532
Total for 1932	Japanese	2,156	5,572	3,158	8,730
	Natives	8,525	13,018	7,235	20,253

Principal production for 1933-34 and 1934-35 was as follows:—

Table 12. Principal Farm Products

	1933-34		1934-35	
	Kilograms	Yen	Kilograms	Yen
Maize	100,471	10,874	109,842	11,633
Beans and peas	28,809	4,242	27,760	4,485
Sweet potato	1,492,189	70,875	1,600,451	77,916
Yam potato	1,933,036	132,036	2,237,818	160,310
Taro	1,171,627	54,676	2,982,852	126,974
Tapioca	4,437,563	155,793	8,769,327	172,152
Water melon	332,667	47,993	415,242	44,277
Pumpkin	2,563,326	52,158	1,368,020	28,159
Sugar cane	411,686,070	1,451,519	389,414,529	1,636,868
Banana	2,234,747	121,197	2,049,590	112,600
Coffee	2,927,619	199,093	303,770	20,663
Total incl. others	—	3,290,380	—	3,307,204

Sugar.—At present the sugar industry is carried on in Saipan and Tinian, and the cultivation of sugar cane is mostly confined to those two islands, the production of the other islands being small and almost entirely consumed locally. The total area of sugar plantation in 1916-17 was 20 hectares, but it was increased to 455 hectares in 1933-34.

Table 13. Area Under Sugar Cane and Production

Year	Total area (Cho)	Production (Kin)	Year	Total area (Cho)	Production (Kin)
1919-20	459.00	755,599	1930-31	6,144.49	64,278,900
1922-23	1,676.50	2,131,100	1931-32	6,641.89	69.557,200
1925-26	2,756.96	15,267,600	1932-33	6,192.00	72,980,800
1928-29	3,317 13	16,423,400	1933-34	5,967.00	75,030,200
1929-30	4,590.33	34,590,700	1934-35	8,102.57	113,534,500

Coffee.—Coffee suits the climate and soil of the Islands and it has long been grown there. But the production was not large in quantity and was chiefly consumed at home. Recently many Japanese have started its cultivation in Saipan with a good prospect of making a fair profit if the work be afforded encouragement. Accordingly the Government since 1927, has made grants-in-aid to cultivators of coffee.

FORESTRY

As the Islands are small in area, there are no forestry enterprises systematically undertaken, and no regulations have as yet been enacted concerning forestry, which is carried on in conformity with usage.

Timber trees in the Islands are sonneratia acida, calophyllum inophyllum, terminalia catappa, Pterocarpus indicus, intsia bijuga, serianthes grandiflora, kurogaki and elacocarpus sq.

As regards fruit trees, artocarpus incisa, cocos nucifera, cocoa edulis, anona muricata, pangium edule and mangifera indica may be mentioned, while fibre-yielding trees are pandanus sq., cocos nucifera, artocarpus incisa and hibiscus tibiaceus. Except cocos nucifera, however, these trees are not found in such large numbers as to merit mention.

Coco-nut palms have been planted throughout the Islands for many years. They grow very well and the copra obtained from them is not only the chief forest product and one of the most important articles of export, but constitutes an indespensable item of the daily diet of the natives. The area of palm forests and the production of copra obtained from them in 1934 are tabulated as follows, classified according to branch bureau:—

Table 14. Area Under Palm and Copra Production

(1934)

Branch bureau	Area under palm trees (Hectare)	Production of coco-nuts (Pieces)	Production of copra (Ton)	Production of copra (Yen)
Saipan	4,635	6,194,253	895	66,355
Yap	3,350	7,950,121	816	43,103
Palau	1,625	3,481,960	167	10,994
Truk	4,395	24,409,860	2,219	140,217
Ponape	7,461	24,408,384	2,970	139,788
Jaluit	12,106	57,137,925	5,209	176,586
Total	33,572	123,582,503	12,276	577,043
Total for 1933	33,176	122.247,072	10,722	858,680
Total for 1932	31,383	120,683,312	10,063	706,312

The production of timber, fagots and charcoal in 1934 are as follow:—

Table 15. Production of Timber, Fagot and Charcoal (1934)

(¥)

	Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Timber	555	4,633	646	1,225	855	981	8,895
Fagots	2,918	80	819	625	311	6,559	11,312
Charcoal	31,289	1,568	12,681	7,724	5,066	4,576	62,904
Total incl others.	34,762	6,753	14,213	64,576	6,563	12,116	138,982
Total for 1933	25,839	7,092	10,479	53,129	4,392	10,202	111,133
Total for 1932	139,959	1,009	11,831	4,681	2,290	21,824	181,554

FISHERY

The noteworthy branches of fishery have hitherto been confined to the collection of sea-slugs, nilotic-top shells and tortoise shells, and in recent years bonito and tunny fishing has

been started. Some natives and Japanese catch other fish and collect other shells for their own consumption, but these are scarcely worth mentioning.

Nilotic-top shells are collected chiefly in Palau and Yap, and tortoise shells, chiefly in Palau, Yap, Truk and Ponape, but sea slugs are collected in every island. The fishing of bonito and tunny is carried on in the seas of Palau, Saipan and Truk.

In Palau and Ponape, some have been carrying on the culture of the pearl oyster. In Ponape the enterprise has, however, ended in failure owing to a lack of technical skill, but in Palau the industry has made very satisfactory progress.

In 1916 the "Regulations for the Fishing Industry in the South Sea Island" were promulgated. In these regulations it is provided that as a rule persons desiring to engage in the industry shall obtain permission from the authorities, but fisheries recognized by local usage are allowed to continue without going through such a procedure. It is also provided, for the purpose of assuring the proper multiplication of nilotic-top shells, pearl oysters and tortoises, that they shall not be taken at other times than the specified periods. With regard to the acquisition of the fishery rights, no discrimination is made between natives, Japanese and foreigners, any and all persons who have obtained permission being free to engage in that occupation. At present 63 fishing vessels with engines are engaged in fishery (17 in Saipan, 18 in Palau, 16 in Truk, 9 in Ponape and 3 in Jaluit).

The total value of catches of fish, shell-fish and others for 1934 was ¥2,644,803. Of this amount, ¥2,205,050 was accounted for by bonito, ¥116,449 by tunny, ¥135,267 by shell-fish, of which ¥134,386 was represented by nilotic-top shells. Manufactured marine products for the year under review were ¥1,810,838. The following figures show the value of catches and manufactured marine products in the last five years:—

Table 16. Value of Catches of Fish and Others and Manufactures

Year	Total catches (Yen)	Manufactured marine products (Yen)
1930	510,768	484,547
1931	871,490	1,064,341
1932	1,266,866	981,634
1933	1,790,372	1,747,595
1934	2,790,372	1,810,838

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

The natives lead very simple life and are generally self-supporting as regards articles of daily use and consequently they have as a rule little purchasing power. Besides, the Japanese in the Islands number in all only about 20,000. Moreover, as the Islands are scattered over a vast expanse of water, and communication between them is difficult, commerce and industry are still in a primitive stage. Nearly all the persons engaged in commerce are small shopkeepers selling foodstuffs and sundry goods and doing brokerage business in copra. The most important industry is the manufacture of sugar and its by-products, i.e. alcohol and alcoholic drinks in Saipan. Recently a certain number of persons have started the manufacture of refreshing beverages and canned fruits, but the amount of production is still quite small. The only handicraft of the natives is weaving fabrics from the leaves of palm and breadfruit trees, there existing no other worth mentioning. The following table shows the value and quantity of the principal goods manufactured in the Islands for the three years ending 1934:—

Table 17. Principal Manufactured Goods

Year		Sugar	Refreshing beverage	Alcoholic liquor	Alcohol	Total incl. others
1932	Value (yen)	7,317,199	3,445	212,010	333,825	8,312,841
	Quantity (litres)	677,529*	18,237	516,208	1,204,374	—
1933	Value (yen)	10,223,420	8,351	279,451	437,877	11,432,544
	Quantity (kgs.)	44,383,010	37,955*	716,587	1,671,944	—
1934	Value (yen)	10,244,879	13,581	232,280	431,447	11,492,926
	Quantity (kgs.)	45,086,902	86,547	641,127	1,761,689	—

* In piculs

MINING INDUSTRY

The principal mineral products obtainable in the Islands and worthy of mention is phosphate. Sulphur and manganese are also found but only in small quantities, and are scarcely worth mentioning. The mining industry in the Islands is to be undertaken in accordance with the "South Sea Islands Mining Regulations" promulgated in 1916. The Regulations provide that persons desiring to undertake mining enterprises are to apply for and obtain permission from the Director of the South Seas Office, and that any persons irrespective of nationality may obtain mining rights. A person intending to undertake mining operations may enter on land, the property of other persons, and make surveys or investigations thereof or make use of it after obtaining permission from the head of the competent branch bureau. In that case he must pay rent to the owner of the land and pay compensation for all damages sustained.

The head of the competent branch bureau may, with the permission of the Director of the South Seas Office, issue the necessary rule for the safeguarding of public welfare and deposits of minerals.

In case a miner is injured, fallen ill or killed while working, otherwise than by his own negligence, the person undertaking the mining operations is under the obligation to support him or his bereaved family. He is also under the obligation to pay a certain mining tax.

Phosphate is mostly found in Augaur Islands, which was formerly managed by a German company called the South Seas Phosphate Mining Company, Ltd. but is now placed under the management of the South Seas Office. The annual production of the mine is estimated at 60,000 tons. The quantity of refined phosphate exported in the last five years is shown below:—

Table 18. Export of Refined Phosphate

Year	Quantity (Ton)	Value (Yen)
1930-31	55,455	1,153,464
1931-32	59,251	1,125,759
1932-33	64,573	1,205,172
1933-34	65,442	1,308,840
1934-35	71,008	1,778,750

The Products Museums

A new Products Museum was established in 1929 in Korror Island in the Palau Group, which is also the site of the head office of the South Seas Office. In this museum are exhibited specimens of various products of the Islands and materials of geographical, historical and scientific value, collected from various places in the territory. The museum is also intended to function as an organ for finding markets for local products as well as for assisting in transactions in them, with a view to contributing to the industrial development of the Islands and the advancement of local culture.

FOREIGN TRADE

Trade carried on in the mandated territory may be classified as trade between the territory and Japan and dependencies and that between the territory and foreign countries. Most of the trade is conducted between the territory and Japan and dependencies.

Exports and imports between the Islands and Japan and dependencies are carried on at nine ports, namely, Saipan, Tinian, Yap, Palau, Augaur, Truk, Ponape, Kusaie and Jaluit.

No duties are imposed on such imports and exports, in principle, but as an exception there is the institution of port clearance dues. Trade with foreign countries is carried on at Saipan, Palau, Augaur, Truk and Jaluit. No duties are imposed on exports, but customs duties are collected on imports.

Chief exports are phosphate, copra, sugar, and alcohol, their combined value constituting 9 per cent. of the total value of exports. Nilotic-top shells and sea-slugs are gathered, as a rule, every other year out of regard for their replenishment, so that the value of those articles exported differs from year to year. Nearly all the exports go to Japan, the exports to foreign countries being very small quantities of miscellaneous articles going to Guam from Saipan and to the Gilbert Islands from Jaluit.

Chief imports are rice and other foodstuffs and drinks, cloth and articles made of cloth, wearing apparel and trinkets, articles made of metal, timber and articles made of wood, oil and wax and fat and articles made thereof, minerals and manufactures thereof. The combined value of those articles constitutes about 75 per cent of the total value of the imports. Below are given the data of staple articles of export and import in the last five years:—

Table 19. Staple Exports

(In yen)

Items	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Vegetables and fruits	12,736	13,264	16,310	15,331	19,562
Sugar	6,784,853	9,237,201	9,605,252	12,913,101	12,371,224
Dried bonito	298,129	701,180	905,967	1,512,171	1,811,510

(Continued) Items	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Alcoholic liquor	82,532	43,401	96,767	120,926	55,130
Nilotic-top shells	57,218	58,198	77,000	88,900	107,170
Alcohol	261,000	295,344	388,055	391,019	464,613
Phosphate	1,185,736	864,738	1,080,984	1,361,879	1,391,449
Copra	1,709,575	1,126,783	1,173,258	1,509,385	1,076,916
Total incl. others	10,690,002	12,800,217	13,898,188	18,739,675	18,424,369

Table 20. Staple Imports

(In yen)

Items	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Rice and paddies	767,058	756,617	1,053,839	1,245,402	1,525,209
Sugar	56,619	59,790	53,945	60,346	58,087
Alcoholic liquor	237,146	256,827	310,919	413,610	473,531
Cigarettes	262,888	296,325	313,290	404,821	467,884
Oil, wax and manufacturers thereof	299,673	377,553	496,010	646,894	851,531
Cloth and manufactures thereof	396,537	562,160	660,778	818,468	906,276
Copra	75,790	23,068	84,038	202,864	98,928
Wood and manufactures thereof	394,951	499,423	352,989	638,945	956,787
Total incl. other	5,718,925	5,958,766	6,588,177	8,989,740	12,970,101

COMMUNICATIONS

Postal Business.—As the post-offices are located in the islands scattered over a great expanse of water and are widely separated from one another, communications are entirely dependent on ships, and all mail matters are despatched and received when vessels on regular services call at the respective islands. The occasions on which postal matters are despatched and received in a year numbered 25 at the Saipan post-office, 13 at the Yap post-office, 18 at the Palau and Augaur post-offices, and 11 each at the Truk, Ponape and Jaluit post-offices. When casual vessels call, advantage is taken of it to make an extraordinary despatch, so as to secure early delivery. Among the foreign mails, those destined for the Dutch East Indies have been allotted an exchange office, viz., the Palau post-office and they are sent thence to the post-office at Menado in the Celebes by vessels regularly plying between the two places. Also on August 1, 1927, the Jaluit post-office was made an exchange office for the British Gilbert Islands, and the despatch was commenced of postal matters to the Btaritary post-office.

Telegraphic Business.—Telegrams and wireless telegrams in Japanese or European languages, destined to or coming from Japan proper or foreign countries, are dealt with, delivered, and transmitted.

Telegraphic communication is accomplished by means of submarine cables, one being the Yap-Nawa line and the other the Yap-Guam line. The former is used for sending and receiving telegrams to and from Japan proper and foreign countries, and the latter for telegrams to and from the United States and the Philippines.

There is a wireless installation at every post-office, and the business of the coast stations and the fixed stations is dealt with there. The wireless in Palau is in direct communication with Japan Proper, and, besides connecting the Islands with Japan Proper, controls the connections between the post-offices in the Islands. The wireless in Truk chiefly functions as an intermediary between Palau and the Islands in the east, and being in direct communication with Rabaul (Bismarck Group), deals with messages between the Islands and other places in the Southern Pacific. The wireless installations of other post-offices connect with each other.

Telephone Service.—In July, 1927, the "Rules for the Telephone Service in the South Sea Islands" were issued by the South Seas Office and subsequently the Palau post-office opened the service on September 1 of the same year and the Saipan post-office on July 21, 1928.

Postal Money Order and Savings Bank Business.—Postal Money Orders for Japan Proper and foreign countries and the deposit and payment of postal savings are dealt with. The method of handling these branches of postal business is the same as in Japan Proper. Statistics on above-mentioned businesses are tabulated as follow:—

Table 21. Mail Matters

		1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35
Ordinary	Received	971,673	939,143	1,047,933	1,472,360	1,542,129
	Delivered	1,223,947	1,334,487	1,686,323	1,994,746	2,404,228
Parcel	Received	7,808	8,525	10,035	10,758	13,216
	Delivered	29,009	30,628	36,727	43,740	50,583
Total	Received	979,481	947,668	1,057,968	1,843,118	1,555,345
	Delivered	1,252,956	1,365,115	1,723,050	2,038,486	2,452,811

Table 22. No. of Telegrams Dealt with

		1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35
Domestic	Despatched	87,704	108,365	126,029	171,307	214,455
	Transmitted	83,493	111,441	140,567	193,836	267,098
	Received	95,343	105,445	111,572	151,082	184,269
Foreign	Despatched	1,573	1,570	1,751	1,788	1,773
	Transmitted	465	619	642	1,156	561
	Received	351	447	446	463	425
Total number		368,929	327,887	381,007	519,632	668,580
Total charges (yen)		50,557	61,621	60,470	80,859	99,332

Table 23. Postal Money Orders and Postal Savings

	Postal Money Orders				Postal Savings		
	Domestic		Foreign				
Year	Issued (Yen)	Paid (Yen)	Issued (Yen)	Paid (Yen)	Amount of deposits (Yen)	Amount of refundment (Yen)	No. of depositors
1930-31	4,201,040	3,533,871	4,661	1,143	1,305,129	1,044,107	2,787
1931-32	4,661,741	3,758,689	2,692	3,130	1,886,646	1,231,786	2,752
1932-33	4,718,201	4,060,611	5,708	6,584	1,506,641	1,310,751	3,169
1933-34	5,834,020	5,385,546	4,058	4,349	2,131,898	1,685,623	4,276
1934-35	6,784,830	5,890,757	2,198	2,779	2,099,704	1,816,408	4,816

RAILWAYS

There is no railway in the Islands for the public. The only railways existing are a light railway, 11 miles in length, in Angaur, for the carriage of phosphate, and another, 67 miles in length, in Saipan constructed by the Nanyo Kohatsu Kaisha for the benefit of its sugar industry. Of the latter railway, the section between Garapan and Charankanoa, about 4 miles, is open for traffic for the convenience of the public. Vehicles, classified according to kinds, are: automobiles 126, autobicycles 13, bicycles 6,305, wagons 44, carts 2,610 and others 6 the total being 9,104 at the end of December, 1934.

References: Tables 1-7, 9-12 & 14-23—Nanyo Gunto Yoran (Outline of the Japanese Mandated Islands in the South Seas), 1935. Table 8—Okura-sho Nempo (Annual Report of the Dept. of Finance), 1935. Table 13—Researches of the South Seas Development Co.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

SIX PREMIER CITIES

THE CITY PLANNING LAW

The rapid expansion of cities and towns in recent years has been such that their complete reconstruction is considered to be necessary as they hardly meet the radically changed requirements of modern traffic, sanitation, etc. The City Planning Law, first adopted in 1919, provides for the organization of the Central and Provincial City Planning Committees to deliberate on all important measures for preserving and promoting, in and outside the city limits, matters of public welfare and benefit.

The expenditures involved are met either by the Government or by the communal bodies according as one or the other conducts the work. Private individuals materially benefited by the new plans and arrangements may be caused to bear the whole or part of the expenses within a certain limit. For raising the necessary fund, the municipality, with the approval of the Government, may levy upon the citizens special burdens not exceeding 12½% of land tax, 40% of prefectural taxes, etc. The law came into force in January, 1920, for the six premier cities of Tokyo, Kyoto, Osaka, Kobe, Nagoya and Yokohama, the same law being extended later to over forty smaller cities throughout the country including Sapporo, Otaru, Hakodate, Sakai, Amagasaki, Nagasaki, Niigata, Hiroshima, Okayama, Shimonoseki, etc., and is expected to do much for improving them as to street plan, sanitation, sewage systems, etc., in harmony with the City Building Law passed by the Imperial Diet in April, 1919.

It may be noted that in September, 1922, Dr. Charles A. Beard, a noted American expert in municipal administration, arrived in Tokyo in response to the invitation of the Tokyo Municipal Research Board presided over by the then Mayor Viscount (afterward Count) Goto. Before he went home in March, 1923 he handed to the Mayor a report embodying the results of his six months' study of the important problem of Greater Tokyo. It has made a profound impression on the public.

Building Regulations.—The City Building Law came into operation on December 1, 1920, when the Rules for Operation were enforced. They specify the kind of building not allowable in the residential, industrial, or commercial quarters. A building in the residential quarters must not exceed, as a rule, 65 feet in height and in the other quarters 100 feet, though some allowance is made for those with spacious surroundings. such as a park, a road, etc.; in particular the height of a brick or stone building must not exceed 65 feet and that for a wooden one 50 feet.

Area and Population

Of the six premier cities, Tokyo now occupies the foremost place as to area and population in consequence of the expansion of the municipal district effected on October 1, 1932, as a preliminary to the realization of the Greater Tokyo plan. The following comparative table is based on the latest census taken on October 1, 1935:—

Table 1. Area and Population of Six Cities

(Oct., 1935)

	Population	Area (Sq. kms.)	Pop. per (Sq. kms.)
Tokyo	5 875,388	550.85	10,663
Osaka	2,989,866	185.12	16,162
Kyoto	1,080,592	288.65	3,358
Kobe	912,140	82.04	11,123
Yokohama	704,290	135.63	5,179
Nagoya	1,082,814	149.95	7,219

For references' sake, below is given the comparative statistics as to area and population of Tokyo, Osaka, London and four other large cities of the world.

Table 2. Area and Population of Tokyo and Osaka Compared With Foreign Cities

Cities	Area (Sq. kms)	Population	Pop. per sq. kms.	Cities	Area (Sq. kms.)	Population	Pop. per sq. kms.
New York	820.00	6,930,000	8,451	Berlin	878.00	4,288,000	4,884
Tokyo	550.85	5,875,388	10,663	Chicago	545.00	3,376,000	6,194
Osaka	185.12	2,989,866	16,162	Paris	104.00	2,891,000	27,798
London	299.00	4,397,000	14,706				

N.B.—The figures for New York and London are for 1931, Tokyo and Osaka, 1935.

MUNICIPAL FINANCE

Table 3. Tax Burdens

(¥)

	National tax	Prefectural tax	Municipal tax	Total
Tokyo	77,168,264	19,515,878	35,801,411	132,485,553
Osaka	34,220,680	10,732,238	19,668,348	64,621,266
Kyoto	7,737,891	4,994,183	6,712,109	19,444,883
Kobe	8,554,496	4,178,498	5,059,427	17,972,421
Yokohama	4,973,845	3,298,190	4,266,167	12,538,202
Nagoya	7,871,802	3,258,424	5,758,770	16,888,996

Table 4. Tax Burdens per Capita and per Household

(¥)

	National tax		Prefectural tax		Municipal tax		Total	
	Per capita	Per household	Per capita	Per household	Per capita	Per household	Per capita	Per household
Tokyo	14.53	62.52	3.67	15.81	6.74	29.00	24.94	107.33
Osaka	13.23	59.92	4.15	18.79	7.60	34.44	24.99	113.15
Kyoto	7.72	36.79	4.99	23.75	6.70	31.92	19.41	92.46
Kobe	10.43	46.68	5.09	22.80	6.17	27.61	21.69	97.08
Yokohama	7.52	36.00	4.99	23.88	6.45	30.88	18.95	80.74
Nagoya	8.18	34.84	3,39	14.42	5.99	25.49	17.59	74.75

Municipal Budgets

The revenue and expenditure of the six premier cities are shown below (in unit of 1,000 yen):—

Table 5. Revenue

(¥1,000)

	Tokyo	Osaka	Kyoto	Kobe	Yokohama	Nagoya
Revenue from taxes	38,673	18,780	5,061	9,670	4,721	6,350
Fees & charges	7,540	—	—	—	—	—
Subsidies	10,097	—	—	—	—	—
Loans	34,154	—	—	—	—	—
Amount brought forward	1,750	—	—	—	—	—
Receipts from sale of property	1,193	—	—	—	—	—
Total including others	199,724	52,029	15,433	24,977	13,726	36,234

Table 6. Expenditure

Education	25,285	24,387	4,847	5,883	3,032	10,890
Public works	38,744	4,915	1,073	3,464	766	799
Sanitation	11,269	3,324	1,729	1,507	535	3,254
Industry	373	630	991	80	154	543
Social works	4,833	2,075	1,075	1,210	365	2,307
Office	10,364	3,175	1,595	1,730	732	1,737
Loans	26,744	—	1,004	3,996	7,723	7,812
Total including others	200,872	52,029	15,483	24,977	13,989	36,237

Municipal Liabilities

The amount of outstanding liability as existing on April 1, 1935, is as follows (in unit of yen):—

Table 7. Municipal Liabilities (April 1935)

(¥)

	Total	Per household	Per capita		Total	Per household	Per capita
Tokyo	722,712,000	694	128	Kobe	107,777,000	—	126
Osaka	450,607,000	748	166	Yokohama.....	146,790,000	952	200
Kyoto	36,561,000	163	35	Nagoya	83,602,000	388	82

SOCIAL WORKS

With the growing importance of social problems in general, the municipal authorities are attending to various social and relief works, though financial considerations are hampering their activities in this direction.

Among the various social undertakings calculated to give relief to the increasing pressure on living, there are two that deserve mention, as they have been taken up in recent years by various municipal authorities especially in the six premier cities. These are (1) the "public markets" and (2) the "common dining halls."

The Public Market.—The first markets of the kind was established in Osaka in 1918, soon after the "Rice Riots" which broke out in many parts of the country. At first rice was the sole article offered for sale, but subsequently the list has been very much enlarged and at present it covers most articles of food and other commodities of daily necessity. Exempt from tax, supplied direct by producers and enjoying other advantages that tend to reduce the cost, articles on sale at the public markets are reputed cheaper though considered a trifle poorer in quality than those brought by errand-boys of retail-merchants to their regular customers. Those who patronize the public markets are people of middle and lower classes, and it is believed that the habit of buying direct at shops will grow, our people now being so dependent on their regular retailers as to leave them free to bring articles at their option. They are too indolent or shy to do shopping by themselves of such articles. The example set by Osaka has spread to other cities, and at the end of 1932 there were in Tokyo as many as 47 such markets, in Osaka 54, in Kobe 11, in Kyoto 13, in Nagoya 14, in Yokohama 6 and a number in some other cities. The public markets were at first temporary barrack sheds, but many have since been rebuilt in permanent style. At first no fee was charged on retailers using the stalls at a public market, but at present in most places the stall-keepers are charged a certain rate. Rates in Tokyo range from ¥10 to ¥2 per tsubo per month according to the location.

The Common Dining Halls.—Interesting to note the first common dining hall in Japan, that in Tokyo, owes its existence to a philanthropist, who with the idea of supplying cheap and wholesome food to poorer people started in 1918 the "Democratic dining hall" on the modest scale of serving 60 sitters at a time. Then appeared similar establishments in Osaka, Nagoya and other cities, most of them run by religious and other charity bodies, and a few as municipal undertakings. At first the charges were 8 sen for breakfast and 10 sen for either dinner or supper, but the tariff has been somewhat advanced lately owing to a rise of prices. At a model municipal hall in Tokyo 8 sen for breakfast and 10 sen for either dinner or supper is a rule, while in a corresponding establishment in Osaka the tariff is uniform, 12 sen.

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF TOKYO AND YOKOHAMA

Thanks to the indefatigable efforts made by both the authorities and citizens, this stupendous work of reconstructing the devastated area of Tokyo and Yokohama, covering no less than 8,783.33 acres and expending a sum of about 750 million yen, was thoroughly completed in March, 1930, when the Reconstruction Bureau of the Home Office which was created soon after the occurrence of the great disaster of 1923 to supervise the execution of the gigantic task was discontinued some items of minor importance, that unfinished, being taken over by the reconstruction section of the respective municipalities. In Tokyo, the memorable accomplishment of the great work was celebrated with appropriate ceremonies on March 26, 1930. A brief survey of some of the important items of the complicated reconstruction planning and its progress follows.

Street Adjustment

The main idea underlying this principal work of city planning in Tokyo was to increase the percentage of roads to the total area of the urban districts from only 12% before the disaster to 25%, nearly equal to the figures in Paris and Berlin. To enter into some details, the present street system consists of two principal main thoroughfares traversing the city, one running from south to north with a breadth of 33 to 44 meters and the other east to west with the breadth of 33 to 36 meters, these being crossed by 52 lines of secondary main thoroughfares, each with a breadth of 22 meters or over, and 112 lines of auxiliary roads, each 11 to 22 meters wide. The spaces thus divided are again crossed by a number of small streets each 6 to 11 meters wide. In the uptown sections outside the burnt area and the suburban districts, the cob-web pattern consisting of mixed radiating and circular lines has been adopted for remodelling the street lines according to the main road net plan mapped out in the summer of 1927. By the end of 1929 the whole of the 52 secondary main thoroughfares was completed and the auxiliary roads nearly completed in the summer of 1930.

Adjustment of Building Lots

What complicated the work of Reconstruction is that a new comprehensive city planning according to the approved principle of modern time is to be carried out without affecting the private interest of the citizens concerned. The long established system of purchasing or expropriating land necessary for the improvement of roads or canals or the erection of public schools, park, etc. does not answer the purpose for the present reconstruction work which requires a vast area of land, approximately 700,000 tsubo (571.82 acres) being required for effecting the projected city planning. If steps were taken to purchase or expropriate such extensive area of lots and drive out the dwellers from the land thus purchased or expropriated some 200,000 citizens would be rendered homeless. For carrying out the dual work the burnt area was cut up into 65 re-plotting divisions, and in each a re-plotting committee of 16 to 25 members was elected by the landowners and tenants of the division with full authority to decide upon all matters regarding the auxiliary streets, the cutting up of blocks within its division into lots and distributing the new lots among the old owners. All the land taken for streets, parks and other public purposes in excess of 10 per cent. was paid for by the city or by the State according to the location and uses of the land condemned.

Of the 65 re-plotting divisions or sections into which the burnt area had been divided, the work in 15 divisions was taken up by the State as State undertaking and that in the remaining 50 divisions by the Municipality as municipal undertaking. The re-plotting in the entire area was completed by the end of 1929. The number of buildings removed in the re-plotting zone aggregated 203,461, and the removal of these buildings was completed early in 1930.

Bridges

Most of the wooden bridges in Tokyo and Yokohama having been destroyed or badly damaged by the 1923 disaster over 500 bridges (over 400 in Tokyo and about 100 in Yokohama) in important places were reconstructed quake-proof and fire-proof. Among the newly built bridges in the city of Tokyo, special attention is drawn to the six large bridges on the Sumida River which were completed by February, 1928 at the cost of ¥13,000,000.

Parks

The reconstruction programme for Tokyo provided for the establishment of 3 large parks with an aggregate area of over 67,000 tsubo and 51 smaller parks with a total area of over 47,000 tsubo, the aggregate area thus coming to over 114,000 tsubo. The per capita area of parks has thus been increased from 37/100 tsubo before the disaster to 54/100.

The Fire Zones

The zones specified in 1922 for the two cities of Tokyo and Yokohama had to undergo more or less modification in the following year. One of the most important legislations newly adopted since then as regards the fire zones was the enactment in 1924 of the Building Aid Regulation. The Treasury set apart in the Reconstruction Budget a sum of ¥20,000,000 with the object of allowing aid at the rate of ¥20-50 per tsubo to those who construct approved permanent buildings in the fire zones. This aid spread over five years ending 1928-29. The fund has so far been left practically untouched, only about 13% being disbursed. The explanation is that the period of overhauling the temporary buildings in the fire zones has been prolonged till 1938 and also chiefly because, as is generally thought, the calamity has too seriously crippled the citizens financially to enable them to start the construction of costly fire-proof houses. It should be remembered that the building area in the zone of Tokyo and Yokohama as converted to one-storey level area totals 1,352,000 tsubo (1,104.33 acres), but the permanent buildings sanctioned covered only 190,844 tsubo in both cities. In other words, the permanent buildings sanctioned did not exceed 14% of the total building area.

THE SIX PREMIER CITIES

TOKYO

Greater Tokyo

By absorbing the outlying districts comprising five towns and eighty-two villages Greater Tokyo was realized on October 1, 1932, the city being divided into thirty-five section, and rising to the position of the largest city of Japan. In respect of area, the Greater Tokyo ranks fifth among the large cities of the world, covering and area of 550.248 square kilometers, and in respect of population Greater Tokyo with 5,875,388 inhabitants leads all large cities of the world, being second only to New York. Below is given statistics of the area and population of old Tokyo and new Tokyo:—

Table 8. New Tokyo Compared With Old Tokyo

	Area (Sq. kms.)	No. of household	Population
Old Tokyo	84.938	427,000	2,130,790
New Tokyo	550.85	1,216,140	5,875,388

Finance of Greater Tokyo

The finance of the city is divided into two kinds, namely, ordinary and special finances. The ordinary finance covers general revenue and expenditure such as office maintenance, education, public works, sanitation, maintenance of parks, cemeteries, etc., social works, city planning and reconstruction or rehabilitation undertakings, while other items are grouped under the head of special finance. Principal items of the special finance are civic electric railways, electric power supply, motor-houses, harbour work and water-works, etc.

The amount of net expenditure of both ordinary and special finances for 1933-34 recorded an increase of more than fifty-five times compared to that of 1898 (¥3,355,340) when Tokyo because an independent self-governing city. The municipal revenue principally consists of fees and charges, municipal loans, city taxes, government subsidy, payment on transfer, property account, treasury payment, compensation, prefectural subsidy, special assessment, proceeds of sale of property, indemnity, contribution, etc.

Below are given the statistics of net revenue and expenditure of Tokyo for the past five years (the figures covering both general and special accounts):—

Table 9. Revenue and Expenditure of Tokyo
(¥)

Year	Revenue	Expenditure	Per capita Revenue	Per capita Expenditure
1932-33	152,850,000	164,345,000	——	30.94
1933-34	165.727,000	173,489,000	——	31.62
1934-35	191,205.0 0	195,829 000	——	34.58
1935-36	199,724,000	200 872,000	——	35.47
1936-37	224,761,000	225,873,000	——	38.44

N.B.—The figures for 1935-36 & 1936-37 are budgets, others being settled account.

The details of net revenue and expenditure for 1935-36 are as follows (in unit of ¥1,000):—

Table 10. Details of Revenue and Expenditure
(¥1,000)

	Revenue	Expenditure
City (General)	112,385	79,143
Waterworks	44,049	30,859
Sinking fund for public loans ...	197	72,322
Mutual relief against fires	289	438
City poor-house	267	734
Electric Tramway	29,750	12,432
Electric power supply	13,461	8,458
Motor bus service	7,945	7,217
Total incl. others	224,761	225,873

Sewage System.—The comprehensive sewage system first adopted in 1908 and revised in 1924 is based on this datum; population to be served 3,000,000 in old Tokyo; one half of the daily wasted matter to be discharged in 8 hours, supposing the per capita per diem waste to be 0.167 sq. meters; maximum rainfall per hour estimated at 50 mm. The whole city is subdivided into three drainage sections in old districts and into four section in new districts and the sewer-conduits measure 1,721,000 meters in all in old districts and 112,570 meters in new districts. The area to be drained totals 6,992 hectares in old districts and 14,219 hectares in new districts. Started in 1911 the work was partially completed before the seismic disaster of September 1923, which has very much dislocated the prescribed arrangement. At present the work is included partly in the Government rehabilitation and partly in the municipal improvement programme. The former has set apart ¥43,580,000 for the purpose, the work extending from the 1923 fiscal year to 1928.

For completing the remaining sewage work and repairing the earthquake damage something like ¥76,000,000 was necessary, a sum which the city could ill afford to meet. The municipal authorities, therefore, decided to change it to the 1919-30 period work. Meanwhile for 20 places mostly situated in the saved area of the city, which from their natural formation have frequently been flooded on occasions of heavy rain, the authorities began improvement work at the estimate of ¥4,580,000, spread over from 1925 to 1929. With the commencement of the municipal sewage work the suburban towns have, at the instance of the city, also started their own sewage improvement.

The sewage works already completed and under construction as classified according to kind of works are shown below, with the amount of outlay and the period:—

Table 11. Sewage Works Already Completed

	Outlay Estimate (Yen)	Outlay Net (Yen)	Measures completed (meters)	Time
1st-term work	15,000,000	14,618,123	105,030	1911-1913
1st-term urgent work	2,520,000	2,497,989	14,832	1916-1920
2nd-term work	20,000,000	4,311,293	24,052	1920-1923
Construction work	40,211,321	39,603,453	283,080	1923-1931
Sewer-conduits removal work	2,454,911	2,310,518	(102,577)	1923-1931
Temporary repair work	1,600,000	948,402	30,407	1926-1929
Unemployment relief work	3,249,192	2,480,351	23,517	1927 1930
Unemployment relief work	500,000	424,625	12,285	1931-1932
Total	85,535,424	67,194,744	503,203	—

Table 12. Sewage Work Under Construction

Continuing city planning work (urgent) ...	5,740,695	5,689,203	31,224	1825-1932
City planning work (urgent)	3,000,000	2,674,697	40,465	1930-1932
2nd continuing city planning work (urgent)	8,250,000	7,511,696	100,355	1930-1932
Improvement work	8,860,000	1,082,289	10,971	1932-1936
Temporary work	27,000	23,897	637	19 2-1933
Unemployment relief work	500,000	753,686	637	1932-1933
Total	26,367,695	17,735,468	186,276	—
Grand total	111,903,119	84,930,212	688,479	—

Road-making and Improvement.—The road-making and improvement programme of the prefecture and city of Tokyo has undergone radical change since the earthquake disaster of 1923. There were, however, several items for which the design remained unaltered, except for the extension of the period of completion, including one to construct around the city a "circular" 12-ken road extending 19 m. 26 ch. 6 yd., besides the urban termini of a little under 3 m. The whole is estimated to demand ¥25,000,000 approximately. The other is called the "radial" road, comprising the four national highways existing from olden time. The total length is 19 m. 16 ch. 5 yd., besides about half a mile termini in the city. The effective width will be 48 to 72 feet and the expense is estimated at ¥18,750,000. The two road-makings were originally designed for completion in nine years beginning 1921, but the period has been extended five years more.

Pavement Work.—The pavement work was started by the city in the 1921 fiscal year as a six-year programme for principal thoroughfares of 36 feet or over in width, but it was later transferred to the control of the Reconstruction Bureau for the most part. At the same time the city took up on its own account the paving of part of the saved area as a four-year work for completion in the spring of 1926. The area to be treated totals 348,000 tsubo with the cost estimated coming up to ¥3 millions. The area of pavement work completed by the spring of 1926, was, however, only about 190,000 tsubo or 239,000 meters in length, the average cost involved being ¥45 per tsubo. The materials used are wood-blocks, asphalt concrete, and cut stones. Some parts are to be macadamized.

The length and area of roads at the end of 1933 are shown below, including those in new districts:—

Table 13. Length and Area of Roads

	Length of roads (Meters)	Area of roads (Sq. m.)
National roads	80,287	1,802,521
Prefectural roads	812,359	7,340,165
Municipal ,, ...	6,407,062	32,517,041
Total	7,299,708	41,749,727

Table 14. Area of Pavement
(March, 1936)

	Total area of roads (Sq. meters)	Area of pavement (Sq. m.)
Old districts	15,035,324	13,907,665
New districts	32,524,892	10,998,045
Total	47,560,216	24,905,710

Bridges.—The bridges now number more than they were before the earthquake disaster, as those burnt have been either reconstructed or repaired while several have been newly constructed. The River Sumida is now spanned by ten large bridges of which four are new. Many more were constructed in other parts of the city. Taught by the tragic experience of the 1923 disaster they have been constructed quake-proof and fire-proof. At the end of December 1934 the bridges numbered 4,701, the total length extending 42,702 meters and area amounting to 401,886 square meters.

Waterworks.—The water supply arrangements in Tokyo date back more than 350 years ago to the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate, when the primitive mode of conducting water by wooden pipes was adopted. This device was continued well into the Meiji era. In 1892-98 the work of renovation was carried out at an estimated outlay of ¥9,189,000 met by means of foreign loans. The work was based on the plan of providing for 1,500,000 people at the rate of 4 cubic feet per head. To meet the demand of the fast growing population a further expansion was decided upon in 1912 at an outlay of ¥20,720,000 on a 7-year programme, further to be increased in 1920 to ¥47,600,000 in anticipation of the probable rise of prices by 1928. The seismic disaster of 1923 retarded the expansion work intended to supply 17,280,000 cubic feet a day on an average for 3,000,000 people. In 1924, the construction of part of the second period work requiring speedy execution was started with an outlay of ¥4,700,000 as a work spread over 3 years, and in 1926 the construction of two new additional reservoirs for completion by 1933 at an estimated cost of ¥22,360,000 was taken up. At the end of March, 1932 the area supplied totalled 8,300 hectares, houses supplied 359,647 and people supplied 2,311,164. To meet the growing demand, the municipal authorities contemplate further extension work on the plan of providing 2,600,000 persons and to increase the daily supply capacity to 500,000 cubic meters or 185 litres per day per capita, the total outlay from the beginning to the completion aggregating to ¥74,434,248. The condition of water supply in the last three years is as follows:—

Table 15. Total Length of Service Pipes
(Meters)

Year	Main	Branch	Total
1931	160,622	1,594,751	1,755,374
1932	229,552	3,348,313	3,577,864
1933	235,975	3,414,462	3,650,438
1934	285,343	4,007,058	4,292,401

Table 16. Volume of Water Supplied
(1,000 cubic meters)

Year	Total	Ayerage per day	Per day per capita
1931	153,634	420	—
1932	186,911	512	—
1933	241,816	663	174.2
1934	258,682	709	174.6

The water faucets for private use at the end of 1934 numbered 693,471 those for communal use 29,074, and the number of houses supplied totalled 629,450.

Electric Tramways.—The municipalization of street tramways was realized in 1911. The purchase of the three tramways was effected at the cost of ¥63,915,000. At the end of March, 1935 there were 2,538 male conductors, 778 female conductors, 2,117 drivers, and 251 assistants, totalling 5,684. The results of the municipal tramways in recent years are tabulated below:—

Table 17. Result of Municipal Tramways

Year	Working mileage (km.)	No. of cars: 4-wheels	No. of cars: Bogies	No. of cars: Total	No. of passengers carried (1,000)	Receipts (¥1,000)	Index: Passenger	Index: Receipts
1930-31	345.318	297	1,297	1,594	369,738	23,799	77	75
1931-32	345.283	294	1,181	1,475	335,439	21,562	70	68
1932-33	345.210	227	1,112	1,339	300,782	19,198	63	60
1933-34	346.779	227	1,131	1,358	295,686	18,853	61	59
1934-35	346.647	198	1,129	1,327	287,461	18,025	60	57

Motor Bus Service.—As an auxiliary traffic organ, the Municipality runs auto bus service in various part or sections of the city with a number of cars amounting to 935 and the total mileage extending 160.625 kilometres at the end of March, 1936. In contrast to the decline shown in the tramway business, the municipal authorities have met with marked success in their bus service. The results of the motor service in recent years are shown below:—

Table 18. Results of Motor Service

Year	Working mileage (kms.)	No. of Cars: Total	No. of Cars: Per day	Average daily car (kilometers)	No. of Passengers: Total (1,000)	No. of Passengers: Per day	Receipts: Total (¥1,000)	Receipts: Per day (Yen)
1930-31	122.874	652	490	58,190	39,621	141,005	3,476	9,417
1931-32	135.494	658	502	59,803	39,081	106,779	3,277	8,953
1932-33	144.600	662	508	59,498	41,233	112,968	3 096	8,481
1933-34	148.600	809	571	70,963	48,589	133,116	3,527	9,662
1934-35	158.300	935	694	93,461	71,998	197,256	4,953	13,569
1935-36	160.625	935	—	106,089	—	199,819	—	14,013

Subways.—The first subway line in Japan extending 1.27 miles between Asakusa and Ueno was constructed by the Tokyo Subway Co., and opened to traffic in December, 1927. As at the end of August, 1936 the total mileage operated was 8.0 kilometres. The number of passengers for 1934-35 was 25,412,773 (daily average being 69,624) and earning ¥1,711,656 (daily average being ¥4,689.47).

Electric Lighting.—The Municipality also operates electric lighting business which it took over from the Tokyo Street Tramway Co., when the electric tramways were municipalized. The intrusion of the Municipality in this field has proved an occasion for breaking down the monopoly so far held by the private electric companies, and in lowering the tariff. At the end of March, 1935 the total lamps installed number 1,400,691, electric power supplied amounting to 61,293 k.w.

Municipal Assets and Liabilities

At the end of October, 1935 the total assets of the Tokyo municipality amounted to ¥881,183,731,076. It showed an increase of ¥31,334,119,848 over the like date of the previous year. The details are as follows:—

Table 19. Municipal Assets

(¥1,000)

	General accounts	Waterworks accounts	Electric bureau accounts	Total
Securities	1,086	139	—	1,551
Deposit & Cash	2,334	3,524	2,208	8,208
Loans	40,623	—	—	40,623
Land	319,274	32,954	16,798	370,687
Buildings	40,425	2,541	10,912	55,604
Structures other than offices	98,558	118,427	457	217,780
Ships	4,527	31	—	4,560
Electric tramways	—	—	49,839	49,839
Electric wires & routes	—	—	49,363	49,363
Vehicles	—	—	36,942	36,942
Others	14,941	9,121	21,719	46,028
Total	521,771	166,740	188,243	881,183

The outstanding issue of the municipal loans as at the end of February, 1936 stood at ¥778,832,828.70. It is 398 times the corresponding figure as at the end of 1891 or soon after the municipalization of the city. This amount of loans works out at ¥653.00 per household and at ¥132.00 per capita.

OSAKA

By the absorption of the outlying district in 1926 the industrial city of Osaka outstripped Tokyo (old Tokyo before its expansion in Oct., 1932) in area and population, the ambitious programme for realizing the Greater Osaka plan having been effected by 1928 with a fund of ¥200 millions. To mention the principal features of improvement, the main thoroughfares have been widened; all wooden bridges replaced by new structures of fire and earthquake-proof materials, the plan also providing for the construction or extension of subways, elevated street car lines, and surface electric railways. A central city market with a site of about 30 acres was established in 1928, and water supply capacity is to be increased to 128,000,000 gallons a day from 84,000,000. With the completion of the consolidation of the two adjacent countries

(Higashinari and Nishinari) with the city. It must be added, the industrial capacity has been augmented by about 150 per cent., the value of industrial production amounting to ¥110,610.000 at the end of December, 1933.

Finance

The municipal account for 1933-34 as settled on May 31, 1934 amounted to ¥140,757,000, approximately in net revenue and ¥141,693,000 in expenditure. Contrasted with 1898 when Osaka became an autonomic city, revenue shows forty-four-fold increase and expenditure a forty-six fold increase. Of the total amount of expenditure for the year under review, general account for 22 per cent., municipal undertakings 31 per cent. and others for 47 per cent., as shown in the table appended:—

Table 20. Revenue and Expenditure

	Net Revenue		Net Expenditure	
	Amount (¥1.000)	%	Amount (¥1.000)	%
Total	140,757	100.00	141,693	100.00
General account	32,635	23.00	31,242	22.00
Special account	108,122	77.00	110,451	78.00
Municipal undertakings	56,130	40.00	44,217	31.00
Others	51,992	37.00	66,234	47.00

The revenue of ¥140,760,000 consisted of ¥59,470,000 (42%) for commission and charges for utilization (charges for electric light and power, car fare, charges for the use of waterworks, charges for bus fare, charges for the use of the central market and the bays and harbours), ¥39,010,000 (28%) for municipal loans, ¥20,910,000 (15%) for municipal taxes, ¥4,310,-000 (3%) for government subsidies, and ¥17,-070,000 (12%) for others. It will thus be seen that receipts from taxation were 15 per cent. as against 85 per cent. claimed by other resources.

The expenditure of ¥141,690,000 consisted of ¥42,130,000 (33%) for municipal loans, ¥28,080,-000 (20%) for engineering expense, ¥20,380,000 (14%) for supply of electric light and power, ¥14,960,000 (11%) for education, ¥14,270,000 (10%) for electric railway and trams, ¥5,030,-000 (4%) for waterworks, ¥4,530,000 (3%) for construction of high speed railways, ¥3,870,000 (3%) for sanitation, ¥3,610,000 (3%) for municipal expenses, ¥1,510,000 (10%) for social works, ¥950,000 (0.7%) for industries, and ¥2,380,000 (2%) for others.

The total net revenue and expenditure for the last five years are as follows:—

Table 21. Revenue and Expenditure for Five Years

	Total		Of which General Account		
Year	Revenue (¥1,000)	Expenditure (¥1,000)	Revenue (¥1,000)	Expenditure (¥1,000)	Expenditure per capita (yen)
1930-31	134,584	133,473	31,857	29,723	54.40
1931-32	125,737	124,989	29,818	26,685	49.61
1932-33	154,394	155,860	31,781	29,795	60.26
1933-34	140,757	141,693	32,635	31,242	53.39
1934 35	155,220	168,580	—	39,222	61.92

Principal Municipal Undertakings

1. **Waterworks.**—The genesis of the Osaka waterworks dates back to 1895 when the River Yodo that runs through the city was utilized for supplying water to 610,000 persons. This was next extended so as to provide for 800,000 and further for supplying a million more. The last work was the 4th waterwork programme commenced in 1925 and finished in February 1930, at the cost of ¥7,710,000. By the completion of this work the supplying capacity per day increased to 320 million koku, the total outlay amounting to over ¥930,000 including another construction work of water pumps and faucets commenced in 1929 to be completed by 1931. The total area supplied reached upward of 83,000 tsubo and the number of persons provided totalled 300,000. In 1933 the municipal authorities undertook the fifth expansion work in view of the fast increasing demand in recent years, as a 5-year programme with an outlay amounting to ¥17,000,000 to provide for 3,300,-000 persons and to increase the daily supply capacity to 862,000 cubic meters.

At the end of 1933-34 the number of houses supplied totalled 500,435 and the total volume of water supplied in the fiscal year 1933-34 amounted to 110,688,000 cubic meters, the average daily volume of water supplied for the total population in Osaka city amounting to 320,-000 cubic meters.

Table 22. Statistics of Water Works

Year	*No. of houses supplied	Volume of water supplied (1,000 cubic meters)	Average daily volume of water supplied (1,000 cubic meters)	Volume of water supplied Per household (cubic meter)
1929-30	454,345	95,719	262	211
1930-31	463,663	100,809	276	217
1931-32	473,093	105,009	287	222
1932-33	471 049	107,938	296	229
1933-34	500,435	116,688	320	233

* At the end of December.

2. **Electric Tramways.**—From the very outset the Street Electric Tramway within the city limits was a municipal undertaking, and at the end of March, 1936, 104 kilometres were open to traffic and the number of passenger cars totalled 765. Data on traffic service for the six years ending December, 1935 are as follows:—

Table 23. Results of Tramways

Year	Mileage (kms.)	No. of passengers carried (1,000)	Receipts (¥1,000)
1930	102.81	285,568	16,036
1931	103.93	257,747	14,170
1932	103.93	232,804	13,133
1933	103.93	238.432	13,456
1934	1 3.93	250,078	14,064
1935	104.00	260,705	14,623

Since January, 1930 the Municipality has been constructing a high speed railway partly for the purpose of relieving unemployment. On May 20, 1933 a section of the railway was opened to traffic.

The working mileage of the railway at the end of December, 1934 was 3 kilometres and the number of cars in operation 10. The number of passengers for the year under review was 5,610,000 and receipts from fares ¥480,000.

The electric tramway service in the suburban districts is maintained by over ten lines conducted by seven private concerns, all connecting with the city lines at important points, their open mileage totalling 874.4 kilometres as at the end of March, 1934. The results of those private lines for the same period were returned as follows:—

Table 24. Results of Private Lines

	Mileage (Kms.)	Passengers (1,000) Total	Passengers (1,000) Per day
Hanshin	72.3	64,001	175
Hankyu	74.8	51,238	140
Keihan	136.4	55,641	152
Osaka Electric	137.9	41,216	113
Sangu Kyuko (Express)	175.9	4,164	11
Nankai	150.7	96,492	264
Hanwa	62.8	13,466	37
Hankai	9.5	2,917	8
Osaka Railway	54.1	12,266	34
Total	874.4	341,401	935

As auxiliary transport organs in the city the Municipality is running the auto bus service in different sections, the total mileage of lines being 164.4 kilometres (at end of 1933) and the service being maintained with 610 cars. The results of the service for the last four years are shown below:—

Table 25. Results Bus Service

Year	Working mileage (kms.)	No. of passengers carried (1,000)	Receipts (¥1,000)	No. of passengers per day (1,000)
1931	143.3	34,559	2,256	94
1932	146.1	44,286	2,634	121
1933	152.2	48,531	2,890	133
1934	164.4	56,456	3,368	155

In 1924 the Osaka Bus Service was inaugurated. As at the end of 1935 the working mileage was 173 kilometres, the number of vehicles in operation 737. Earnings for 1935 totalled ¥4,254,000.

3. **Harbour Works.**—The harbour works first started in 1897 on an 8-year programme at the estimated cost of ¥22,570,400, of which ¥4,680,-000 and a portion of land valued at ¥1,900.000 came from the State treasury was followed by an extension work involving ¥2,200,000 on a 10 year programme in 1906. The whole work was completed in April 1929 after a period extending 33 years from the start, the total cost involved being ¥45 millions. The harbour covering 1,980,000 tsubo waterfront embraced by two breakwaters (54 cho and 38 cho in length respectively) and a reclamation covering 1,300,000 tsubo is capable of taking in 41 steamers of

5,000 ton capacity or 8 steamers of 10,000 ton capacity at one time. As the port suddenly gained in importance with regard to import trade after the World War, further expansion work was planned and started in 1929 to be completed by 1936 at the cost of ¥9,160,000 of which ¥3,840,000 is supplied by the State treasury. In 1933 another reclamation work covering 920,000 square meters was started with a fund amounting to ¥5,220,000 on a ten-year programme, the land to be utilized for aerodrome and harbour.

4. **Sewage Works.**—Warned by the outbreak of virulent epidemics in 1886 and 1890 the city undertook the improvement of sewage work in 1894-99 as regards the old city. In 1911 a further improvement was planned on a 10-year programme at an estimated outlay of ¥4,500,000, one-third of which was supplied from the State treasury. The work was started in 1909 and completed. In September 1928 further improvement work was planned on a 10-year programme at an estimated cost of ¥17,500,000. Another improvement work is in course of construction to be finished by 1941 as a continuing work from 1931 with a fund amounting to ¥17,000,000.

KYOTO

Municipal Finance

Classified according to items the net revenue and expenditure of the city in the last six fiscal years are tabulated as follows, the figures for 1936-37 being budgets and not net accounts (in unit of yen):—

Table 26. Revenue and Expenditure of Kyoto

(¥)

Year	General Account		Special Account		Total	
	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1931-32	9,150,208	12,592,105	31,397,730	27,452,065	40,547,938	40,444,170
1932-33	8,972,736	11,662,689	28,543,977	25,339,083	37,516,713	37,001,672
1933-34	14,804,000	12,021,000	40,490,000	34,057,000	55,295,000	46,078,000
1934-35	11,937,125	11,937,125	44,797,292	44,691,792	56,734,416	56,628,917
1935-36	15,433,000	15,433,000	46,861,000	46,861,000	62,295,000	62,295,000
1936-37	13,726,000	13,726,000	50,550,000	50,550,000	64,276,000	64,276,000

Municipal Undertakings

The three leading municipal undertakings, i.e. Canal and Water-power works, Waterworks, and Electric tramway, are briefly described below:—

1. **Canal & Water-power Works.**—The first Biwa Canal, completed in 1895 at the cost of ¥1,838,317, was designed for the conveyance of passengers and goods and also for the supply of waterpower, while the second canal, completed lately at the cost of ¥4,477,805, supplies water for drinking, fire brigade and for purposes of hydro-electricity, etc.

2. **Waterworks.**—The waterworks started in 1908 were completed in March 1912, at the cost of ¥3,000,000 of which ¥750,000 came from the State treasury. The water is drawn from Lake Biwa by means of the second canal and was designed as the first term work to provide for 500,000 people and the second work for 200,000 people. At the end of March, 1933, the condition of water supply stood as follows: Length of water pipes 654,564.01 meters; No. of houses supplied 138,824; No. of water faucets 176,737; Volume of water supplied 26,782,000 cubic meters; Receipt ¥1,403,246; Volume of water supplied per day per capita 0.136 cubic meter.

3. **Electric Tramways.**—The municipal street tramway service commenced in 1908 now extends for 60.03 kilometres.

The results of the municipal tramways in the six years ending March, 1936 are as follows:—

Table 27. Results of Tramways

Year	Open mileage (Kms.)	No. of cars	passengers carried	Passenger receipts
1930-31	56.1	417	102,978,000	¥5,914,000
1931-32	59.5	421	97,996,000	5,627,000
1932-33	59.5	421	93,324,000	5,400,000
1933-34	60.03	409	95,112,000	5,481,000
1934-35	62.66	410	97,276,000	5,601,000
1935-36	66.30	411	101,441,000	5,830,000

At the end of 1935 the municipal auto bus service involved 140 cars and the operating length of lines of 430 kilometres. The number of passengers carried during 1935 was 10,675,000 and the fare receipts amounted to ¥931,000

YOKOHAMA

In April 1927, the Greater Yokohama plan was put into effect by absorbing the outlying districts comprising two towns of Tsurumi and Hodogaya and seven villages, all these embracing 22,922 households with 109,193 inhabitants. By the absorption the city has had its area trebled and its population increased over 100,000 as shown in the following table:—

Table 28. Yokohama Old and New

	Area (Sq. kms.)	No. of households	Population
Old Yokohama (1911)..	24.800	59,377	405,888
New Yokohama (1934).	52.129	82,229	515,081
present Yokohama			
(1934)	133,875	154,181	703,900
(1935)	135.635	—	704,290

Tsurumi being a promising thriving industrial town lying between Yokohama and Tokyo, its annexation is judged as an important addition to the prosperity of the city, which being hilly in the rear and rather narrow in extent is unfit for industrial activity. Tsurumi and adjacent district, while facing the water front of the harbour have sufficient level space in the rear to enable the new Yokohama to grow as an industrial city. Following this absorption the new city was divided into the following five sections on October 1, 1927:—

Table 29. Divisions of Yokohama

Municipal Finance

	No of household	Population	Pop. per household
Tsurumi-ku	23,357	113,963	4.88
Kanagawa-ku	32,024	155,908	4.87
Naka-ku	75,372	348,941	4.63
Hodogaya-ku	9,578	47,642	4.97
Isogo-ku	8,214	37,836	4.61
Total	148,545	704,290	4.74
Do for 1934	154,181	703,900	4.57

The annual revenue and expenditure, both general and special of Yokohama follow:—

Table 30. Revenue and Expenditure of Yokohama

Fiscal year	Revenue	Expenditure	Per capita
1930-31 (estimate)	¥48,372,000	¥48,372,000	¥83.37
1931-32 ,,	41,558,000	41,558,000	67.61
1932-33 ,,	37,615,000	37,615,000	58.74
1933-34 ,,	46,225,000	46,255,000	69.87
1934-35 ,,	43,289,906	43,289,906	—
1935-36 ,,	42,611,299	42,611,299	—

Special account of the Municipality consists of 13 items including Reconstruction work, Waterworks, Electric business, Gas works, Hospital, former Concession account, Cemetery and Crematory, etc.

Municipal Undertakings

Electric Tramways.—As at the end of March, 1936 the working mileage of the municipal tramways was 46.43 kilometres and the number of cars 200. The number of passengers carried during 1935-36 was 43,543,943, or the daily average of 119,298. Fare receipts were ¥2,789,291, which works out at ¥7,642 a day. At the end of March, 1936 the municipal motor bus service was conducted with 112 cars, the total working mileage being 71.39 kilometres. The number of passengers for 1935-36 was 12,286,708, or 336,622 a day on the average. Fare receipts were ¥776,668, the daily average being ¥21,279.

Gas Works.—The business was first started as a private enterprise but was municipalized in 1892. The estimated account for 1934-35 put revenue and expenditure at ¥1,780,882. The pipes laid measure about 317.24 miles and about 170,000 households have connection.

Waterworks.—The Yokohama waterworks enjoy the honour of being the pioneer in Japan and the estimated account for 1934-35 is ¥4,074,824 both for revenue and expenditure.

Harbour Works.—The harbour works, originally started in 1900 and practically finished in 1917, sustained an extensive damage in the great earthquake disaster of 1923, and the 3rd period work which had been going on since 1921 had to be temporariiy suspended. The repair of the work damaged in the disaster was mostly finished in February, 1925 and the remaining work completed in 1930 at the cost of ¥22,000,000.

The Municipality obtained in June, 1928 an approval for a railway loan of ¥16,477,000 to be appropriated for the re-filling-in work of the water fronts of 641,438 tsubo at Tsurumi and Koyasu in order to establish an industrial belt there on a grand scale. The work was started in 1933 by the Government and a part of the piers was opened in the spring of the same year.

KOBE

Finance

The annual finance of Kobe City has shown a marked decrease in recent years as shown below (figures including special accounts):—

Table 31. Revenue and Expenditure of Kobe

	Revenue (¥1,000)	Expenditure (¥1,000)	Per capita (Yen)
1931-32	101,852	93,364	116.15
1932-33	87,553	79,830	110.84
1933-34	43,023	43,023	51.41
1934-35	52,967	52,967	58.06
1935-36	58,724	58,724	68.78
1936-37	52,967	52,967	58.06

N.B.—The figures for 1935-36 & 1936-37 are budgets, others being settled accounts.

The municipal liabilities outstanding at the end of March, 1935 totalled ¥107,777,000.

Municipal Undertakings

Water supply is the only undertaking Kobe conducts on its own resources, electric lighting, urban tramways, and gas works being all left to private enterprise while the reconstruction of the harbour is a State undertaking to which the city has been obliged to contribute about ¥3,000,000. Kobe is, however, free from foreign encumbrances, all the loans being domestic.

Waterworks.—The waterworks were at first designed in 1909 to supply 3 cubic feet per capita a day to 250,000 inhabitants, but the plan was later altered in scope and made to provide for 100,000 families, 25 cubic ft. a day. The work extended till 1923 and required the expenditure of ¥12,858,720 of which the State grants amounted to ¥3,403,000. In 1926 the Municipality carried out an expansion work of the water supply for the city by laying pipes in the eastern suburbs to draw more water from the Chikari pond behind Mt. Rokko. The work has already been finished.

Electric Tramways.—The tramway system within the city limits is operated by the Municipality. There are five private tramway companies attending to the suburban service, these being the Shinyu Railway (operating Kobe-Arima line), the Sanyo Electric Railway (operating Hyogo-Himeji line), the Hanshin Electric Railway (operating Kobe-Osaka line), the Hanshin Express Electric Railway (operating Kobe-Osaka line), and the Hanshin Kokudo Electric Railway (operating the line laid in 1927 along the national road between Osaka and Kobe and forming a parallel line to the State railway).

The number of passengers carried by the municipal tramways during 1935 was 88,824,009 and earnings ¥4,879,855.

Besides the electric tramway services, the Municipality runs an auto bus service, the number of cars in operation at the end of 1935 being 203 and the working mileage 69.61 kilometres. The number of passengers carried during 1935 was 15,001,785 and earnings ¥1,301,698 or ¥3,557 a day on an average.

Harbour Works.—The first term work extending over 16 years, started in 1907 at the total cost of ¥15,090,000 of which ¥3,660,000 was borne by the Municipality, was completed in March, 1922. The harbour now has four quays (1,592 ken long) with berth for 19 boats of 3 to 20 thousand tons (about 400,000 tons) at the same time. The second term work which was taken in hand in 1919 as a 15-year programme with a view to reclaiming a water-front of about 91,600 tsubo at the estimated cost of ¥50,320,000, is now nearing completion. Upon its completion the harbour will have capacity for 15 more steamers of large type.

NAGOYA

Finance.—The municipal finance of Nagoya, according to the estimates for 1935-36, both in revenue and expenditure, amounted to ¥36,234,000 approximately for general account and ¥17,810,000 for special account.

Annual account of revenue and expenditure (settled account), both general and special, for the last seven fiscal years is shown below (in unit of yen):—

Table 32. Revenue and Expenditure of Nagoya
(¥)

	General Account		Special Account	
Year	Revenue	Expenditure	Revenue	Expenditure
1929-30	25,390,085	25,254,185	22,430,115	18,388,394
1930-31	31,477,355	30,424,634	21,253,898	19,115,791
1931-32	37,963,010	36,073,557	20,992,182	20,259,933
1932-33	45 421,218	43,807,068	12,596,672	12,082,007
1933-34	84,689,082	84,089,785	10,667,774	10,418,829
1934-35	37,887,000	33,132,000	13,456,000	12,259,000
1935 36	36,234,000	36,234,000	17 810,000	17,810,000

N.B.—The figures for 1934-35 & 1935-36 are budgets, others being settled accounts.

Municipal Undertakings.—Nagoya manages on its own resources its waterworks, sewage, street tramways, slaughter-houses, public cemetery, and the disposal of garbage, etc., none of which is of a nature to embarrass the municipal finances as in the case of Osaka and Kobe. The waterworks, first completed in 1918 at the cost of ¥5,279,882, provided for supplying 4 cubic ft. per day per capita to a million people, but owing to the fast increasing consumption and the expansion of the city limits in 1921 the 2nd-term extension work was started in 1923 with an outlay amounting to ¥346,048 and the 3rd-term extension work was taken in hand in 1926 to supply 3,880,000 cubic ft. a day to 970,000 more people at the cost of over ¥6,996,603 spread over 6 years. The work was partially finished in 1928 and supplied 47,021 cubic ft. a day to 83,837 households as at the end of September 1929. In 1929 the 4th-term work extending to 1932 was started at a cost of ¥3,750,000. This being completed in March, 1933, another extension work was taken in hand in 1933 at a cost of ¥2,485,000, the total outlay from the beginning amounting to ¥18,857,533.

The results of waterworks in the last ten years are shown in the following table:—

Table 33. Results of Water Works

Year	Volume of water filtered (cublic meters)	Volume of water supplied (cublic meters)	No. of houses supplied	Total No. of pipes incl. fire hoses	Receipts (yen)
1924	16,098,095	14,519 260	61,364	46,181	716,079
1925	16,439,648	15,106,604	66,177	51,156	1,090,218
1926	16,213,943	14,867,941	71,112	55,249	1,211,435
1927	17,254,526	15,940,678	77,343	59,265	1,234,495
1928	18,356,278	17,716,565	85,816	66,407	1,255,333
1929	21,081,730	19,205,493	98,947	75,898	1,315,745
1930	21,297 948	19,701,709	106,396	81,303	1,325,622
1931	25,548,244	25,191,755	122,324	94,913	1,508,878
1932	28,853,673	28,578,712	134,187	104,807	1,624,190
1933	34,433,159	34,333,350	135,436	112,051	1,697,905

Street Tramways.—The street tramways formerly conducted by a private concern was municipalized in 1922 at the cost of ¥11,927,364. The lines, which extended for 51.16 miles and numbered 15, increased to 22 lines in 1930-31. The 1st-term improvement work was started in 1922 as a 5-year program with an outlay of about ¥10,040,000 of which ¥6,460,000 was raised by loans. In 1926 the 2nd-term improvement work was taken up as a 9-year work with a fund amounting to ¥24,200,000, which was completed in 1930, and in 1931 the authorities undertook another extension work spreading over 3 years with a fund amounting to ¥2,960,000. The business results in recent years show some decrease yearly as shown below:—

Table 34. Results of Tramways

Year	Working kilometers	No. of cars	No. of passengers (1,000)	Train-kilometers (1,000)	Total receipts (¥1,000)	Total expenses (¥1,000)
1930-31	53 5306	—	67,917	15,580	3,715	2,217
1931 32	53.5306	—	62,516	15,379	3,411	2,155
1932-33	54.1750	—	60,399	15,693	3,286	2,101
1933-34	54.6070	314	62,755	16,237	3,505	2,836
1934-35	55.0190	—	62,924	16,671	3,503	2,193

Motor-bus.—Started in February, 1930, the monthly receipts averaged ¥27,933.50, the number of cars 40 in the beginning but increased to 174 at the end of March, 1935. The results of the business in the last 5 years are shown below:—

Table 35. Results of Motor-bus Service

Year	Working mileage (kms.)	No. of cars	No. of passengers (1,000)	Train kilometers (1 000)	Total receipts (Yen)	Total expenses (Yen)
1930 31	54,612	—	10,358	6,495	613,589	506,801
1931-32	67,347	—	13,802	8,413	817,037	716,036
1932 33	69,847	—	16,266	9,266	963,709	770,453
1933-34	101,047	174	19,172	—	1,164,334	933,636
1934-35	102,040	—	21,391	—	1,266,022	909,098

Harbour Works.—The first work was started in October, 1907. At present the harbour has a capacity for 10,000 tons of steamers. The 4th period expansion work is in course of construction at the cost of ¥2,120,000.

Annual liabilities stand as follows:—

Table 36. Liabilities of Nagoya
(In unit of yen)

Fiscal year	Total	Rate per household	Rate per capita
1929-30	62,179,042.49	290.31	62.06
1930-31	67,324,014.31	304.50	64.86
1931-32	74,259,306.48	328.64	69.35
1932-33	79,684,354.27	352.68	74.69
1933-34	83,602,977.00	—	—
1934-35	92,411,423.00	—	—

FOREIGN TRADE OF YOKOHAMA AND OTHER PORT CITIES

The following tables will serve to show the general situation of the foreign trade of Yokohama, Osaka, Kobe and Nagoya in recent years:—

Table 37. Trade of Yokohama
(¥1,000)

(a)

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Exports of Raw Silk
1930	449,838	392,838	842,676	290,794
1931	370,662	305,637	678,299	250,694
1932	400,658	355,357	756,015	261,252
1933	500,888	456,354	957,242	274,691
1934	490,201	537,316	1,027,517	204,641
1935	626,016	616,588	1,242,604	283,771

(b)

Continents	Exports (1935)	Imports (1935)
Asia	182,444	134,923
Europe	85,467	130,292
North America	306,331	242,717
South America	8,776	11,786
Central America	8,163	2,423
Africa	13,487	18,555
Others	21,343	73,096

Osaka: Exports and imports for 1935, classified according to countries, were returned as follows (figure being in ¥1,000):—

Table 38. Trade of Osaka
(¥1,000)

Countries	Exports	Imports	Total
Manchoukuo	71,905	35,143	107,048
Kwantung	108,248	4,828	113,076
China	67,130	38,665	105,795
British India	111,115	61,394	172,509
Straits Settlements	10,617	3,846	14,463
Dutch East Indies	72,682	9,242	81,924
Great Britain	4,157	23,236	27,393
U.S.A.	11,251	215,738	226,989
Egypt	17,944	18,182	36,126
East Africa	16,507	1,439	17,946
Australia	8,817	38,767	47,584
Others	119,770	96,270	216,040
Total	620,143	546,750	1,166,893
Do for 1934	588,180	523,290	1,109,470
Do for 1933	463,529	441,692	905,221

Table 39. Kobe
(¥1,000)

(a)

Year	Exports	Imports	Excess of Imports
1932	499,302	535,647	36,345
1933	650,539	641,121	9,418
1934	790,601	791,544	943
1935	910,899	821,641	—88,257

(b)

Countries	Exports	Imports
U.S.A.	177,986	270,945
British India	91,671	203,914
Manchoukuo & Kwantung	75,553	40,275
Oceania	42,333	35,981
Dutch East Indies	50,432	26,654
Great Britain	47,722	25,552
China	32,622	36,139
Germany	14,699	47,704
Egypt	28,874	13,828
Philippines	30,897	9,838

Table 40. Nagoya
(¥1,000)

	1933	1934	1935
Exports	89,420	115,515	129,478
Imports	91,178	88,526	95,528
Total	180,598	204,041	225,006

References: Tables 1-7, 30, 34-35—Municipal Offices of Six Premier Cities. Tables 8-17 & 18—Tokyo Municipal Office Tokyo Shisei Gaiyo (Outline of Tokyo Municipal Administration), 1936. Tables 19, 29, 31, 32-40—Jiji Nenkan (Jiji Year Book 1937, published by the Jiji Shimpo-sha). Tables 20-24 & 25—Osaka Shisei Gaiyo (Outline of Osaka Municipal Administration), 1935. Table 33—Nagoya Shisei Gaiyo (Outline of Nagoya Municipal Administration), 1935.

CHAPTER XXXIX

SPORTS

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Virtually every known sport is played in Japan. The principal machinery that controls sports in the Empire consists of the Japan Amateur Athletic Association, to which matters concerning international competition are generally referred to, the Nippon Rikujo Kyogi Renmei (Japan Amateur Track and Field Federation), the Nippon Suijo Renmei (Japan Swimming Federation), and the Japan Student League of Track and Field Sports. Headquarters of these organizations are located in Tokyo.

SWIMMING

The Japanese have shown ability particularly in swimming, and in this sport the country has enjoyed world-wide fame. Among the recent aquatic achievements of Japan may be mentioned the championship she won at the 10th and 11th Olympic Games at Los Angeles in 1932 and at Berlin in 1936. There are swimming meets, well organized in every detail necessary, for students from the grammer schools up to the universities. Thus is seen the reason why talent is discovered and then developed.

Performances at aquatic meets held in 1935 are shown below:

Table 1. 1935 All-Japan Men's Championships
October 4–6, at Meiji Shrine Pool

Event	Winner	Time
100 meters freestyle	Taguchi	59 secs.
200 meters freestyle	Sugiura	2:18.4
400 meters freestyle	Negami	4:51.2
1,500 meters freestyle	Honda	19:43.8
100 meters backstroke	Kojima	1:11
200 meters backstroke	Kojima	2:33.4 (new Japanese record)
100 meters breaststroke	Hamuro	1:15.4
200 meters baeaststroke	Hamuro	2:44.6
800 meters relay	Hamana Bay Yuei Kyokai (Makino, Tabata, Terada, Utoh)	9:16.4

Table 2. 1935 All-Japan Women's Championships
October 4–6 at Meiji Shrine Pool

100 meters freestyle	Miss Furuta	1:14.6
200 meters freestyle	Miss Morioka	2:50.8
400 meters freestyle	Miss Morioka	6:04.4
100 meters backstroke	Miss Araki	1:30.8
200 meters breaststroke	Miss Mayehata	3:07.8
400 meters relay	Nagoya Taiiku Kyokai (Misses Komatsu, Tatematsu, Mayehata, Koga)	5:18.0

Table 3. 1935 All-Japan Students Championships
September, 1935 Meiji Shrine Pool

Event	Winner	Time
50 meters freestyle	Takahashi (Waseda)	26.0 secs.
100 meters freestyle	Yusa (Nihon)	58.0 (tie, Japanese record)
200 meters freestyle	Yusa (Nihon)	2:14.2
400 meters freestyle	Negami (Rikko)	4:45.2 (new Japanese record)
800 meters freestyle	Makino (Waseda)	9:55.8 (new World's record)
100 meters backstroke	Kiyokawa (Tokyo Commercial Univ.)	1:10.6
200 meters backstroke	Taniguchi (Waseda)	2:38.8
100 meters breaststroke	Koike (Keio)	1:13.6 (new Japanese record)
200 meters breaststroke	Hamuro (Nihon)	2:42.4 (new Japanese record)
200 meters relay	Waseda (Takemura, Shimura, Sakagami, Takahashi)	1:46.0
800 meters relay	Rikkyo (Taguchi, Tsuruoka, Utoh, Negami)	9:04.0

Table 4. 1935 U.S.-Japan Dual Meet, Won By Japan, 36 to 27

August 17, 18, 19 At Meiji Shrine Pool

200 meters breaststroke: won by Koike (J); 2. Hamuro (J); 3. Higgins (US), Time: 2.42.6, (new Japanese record).
200 meters freestyle: won by Yusa (J); 2. Macionis (US); 3. Lindegren (US); Time: 2:13.2.
1500 meters freestyle: won by Ishiharada (J); 2. Makino (J); 3. Negami (J); Time: 19:12.
300 meters medley relay: won by US (Drysdale, Kasley, Fick); Time: 3:20.8 (new Japanese International record).
100 meters backstroke: won by Drysdale (US); 2. Branch (US); 3. Kawazu (J); Time: 1:10.2
100 meters breaststroke: won by Koike (J); 2. Kasley (US); 3. Hamuro (J); Time: 1:13.6 (new Japanese record).
400 meters freestyle: won by Medica (US); 2. Negami (J); 3. Makino (J); both Medica and Negami timed at 4:45.2 (new world's record).
400 meters relay: won by US (Chrostowski, Lindegren, Wolf, Fick), Time: 3:53.8 (new Japanese International record).
800 meters freestyle: won by Negami (J); 2. Medica (US); 3. Ishiharada (J); Time: both Negami and Medica timed at 10:02.4.
100 meters freestyle: won by Fick (US); 2. Yusa (J); 3. Arai (J); Time: 57.2 (new Japanese International record).
200 meters backstroke: won by Yoshida (J); 2. Zehr (US); 3. Kawazu (J); Time: 2:35.6 (new Japanese record).
800 meters relay: won by Japan (Yusa, Ishiharada, Makino, Negami); Time: 8:52.2 (new world's record).

Table 5. Men's Japanese Swimming Records

Event	Holder	Time	Year
50 meters freestyle	N. Takahashi	25.8 secs.	1934
100 meters freestyle	M. Yusa	57.2 secs.	1935
200 meters freestyle	M. Yusa	2:11.2	1935
300 meters freestyle	H. Negami	3:32.0	1935
400 meters freestyle	H. Negami	4:45.2	1935
500 meters freestyle	S. Makino	6:09.8	1935
800 meters freestyle	S. Makino	9:55.8	1935
1000 meters freestyle	H. Negami	12:41.8	1934
1500 meters freestyle	K. Kitamura	19:08.0	1933
100 meters backstroke	M. Kiyokawa	1:08.6	1932
200 meters backstroke	K. Yoshida	2:35.2	1935
100 meters breaststroke	R. Koike	1:13.0	1995
200 meters breaststroke	R. Koike	2:41.2	1935
300 meters medley relay	Yoshida, Koike, Yusa	3:20.8	1035
400 meters relay	Arai, Shimura, Hirano, Yusa	3:55.6	1935
800 meters relay	Yusa, Sugiura, Taguchi, Arai	8:51.5	1936

Table 6. Women's Japanese Swimming Records

50 meters freestyle	Miss H. Matsuzawa	31.6 secs.	1933
100 meters freestyle	Miss K. Kojima	1:14.6	1935
400 meters freestyle	Miss K. Kojima	5:43.1	1936
50 meters backstroke	Miss M. Yokota	39.4 secs.	1933
100 meters backstroke	Miss M. Yokota	1:25.1	1932
100 meters breaststroke	Miss H. Mayehata	1:25.7	1935
200 meters breaststroke	Miss H. Mayehata	3:02.4	1935
400 meters relay	Nihon (K. Kojima, M. Yokota, H. Morioka, Y. Arata)	5:06.7	1932
300 meters medley relay	Chubu (Kitamura, Mayehata, Kojima)	4:13.4	1935

BASEBALL

Baseball is without question the most popular sports in Japan, being a favorite game among all classes of boys, from primary school children to college students. It is played during the greater part of the year on every available park in the country. It was first introduced by the American professors who were engaged in 1876 for the newly created Sapporo Agricultural College (now Hokkaido University). In reviewing the history of the sport, we may note that in 1905, the Waseda University team made the first expedition to the United States and in 1907, Keio University invited the St. Louis team of Honolulu, Hawaii. Since then, Japanese teams and those of American universities have frequently exchanged visits. Baseball has progressed to such a state in this country that it can be safely said that the leading university teams of Japan today are stronger than most of the collegiate teams of the United States.

The creation of the Tokyo Six University Baseball League (Keio, Meiji, Rikkyo, Hosei, Tokyo Imperial and Waseda) in 1925 placed the sport on a firm basis. Games of this league are played during the spring and fall and comprise the greatest event of the nation's annual sports program. The Keio-Waseda series are synonymical of the world series of the American major leagues with crowds of more than 50,000 seeing each game.

The standing of the universities in the Autumn series of 1936 is given below:

Table 7. Baseball Standing

(Autumn 1936)

	Won	Lost	Tied	Pct.
Waseda	7	2	1	.750
Meiji	6	4	0	.600
Hosei	5	3	3	.600
Rikkyo	4	5	1	.450
Keio	2	5	3	.350
Teidai	2	7	1	.250

The visit of an All-American team, headed by Connie Mack of the Philadelphia Athletics, and including such stars as Babe Ruth, Lou Gehrig, Lefty Gomez, Earl Averill and Charley Gehringer, in November, 1934, was one of the bright features on the baseball program in recent years. The major league played eighteen games in 12 different places of the country, won them all and cracked out a total of 47 home runs.

Harvard university's team arrived at the invitation of Keio university in August, 1934 and played the following games:

Defeated Tokyo Imperial, 4-2; lost to Tokyo Club, 8-6; lost to Hosei university, 12-3; lost to Rikkyo. 9-3; lost to Meiji, 10-8; defeated Keio, 9-7; lost to Waseda, 17-2; lost to Keio, 6-5; defeated Kansai university, 3-2. defeated Keio, 13-7.

Yale university's team arrived at the invitation of Waseda university in August, 1935. The results of the games played follow:

Lost to Waseda, 8-5; defeated Waseda, 7-0; lost to Keio, 10-0; defeated Tokyo Club (night game at Tozuka), 7-5; played tie with Waseda, 8-8; lost to Meiji, 5-0; lost to Rikkyo, 4-1; defeated Waseda, 7-3; lost to Waseda, 14-0; lost to Waseda, 9-3; lost to Kansai university, 7-3.

The visit of the American major leaguers was instrumental in the formation in February of 1935 of the first professional baseball team in Japan, comprised in the main of ex-university league players. This team toured the United States under the name of "Tokyo Giants" for five months up to June, 1935 and returned to Japan with a creditable record of 75 victories and one tied game out of 110 games played.

GOLF

Golfing in Japan dates back to 1907 when the first All-Japan amateur championship was played and won by a Mr. Lawson. While the game has been played chiefly by the moneyed classes, there is no doubt that it is growing in popularity. Waseda, Meiji and Keio universities, for instance, have organized a Kanto Students Golf Federation and its first championship tournament was played in August, 1935. At present, there are no fewer than 13 clubs in the country and some of the course compare favorably with the best in the world.

Winners in the All-Japan Open Championship since 1927 are given below:

Table 8. Open Championship

Year	Winners	Location
1927 (first)	Akaboshi	Hodogaya
1928 (second)	Asami	Komazawa
1929 (third)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki
1930 fourth)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki
1031 (fifth)	Asami	Hodogaya
1932 (sixth)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki
1933 (seventh)	Nakamura	Fujisawa
1934 (Cancelled because of rain.)		
1935 (eighth)	Miyamoto	Ibaraki

Past title-holders of the All-Japan amateur crown since the year 1919 are as follows:

Table 9. Amateur Championship

Year	Holders	Location	Year	Holders	Location
1919	Kawasaki	Yokohama	1928	Akaboshi	Ibaraki
1920	Malcolm	Kobe	1929	Brown	Mutsumi
1921	Tanaka	Tokyo	1930	Akaboshi	Komazawa
1922	Otani	Kobe	1931	Nitta	Musashino
1923 (not held because of great Kanto earthquake)			1932	Narumiya	Fujisawa
1924	Kawasaki	Tokyo	1933	Nabeshima	Tokyo
1925	Kawasaki	Tokyo	1934	Nabeshima	Tokyo
1926	Akaboshi	Hodogaya	1935	Nabeshima	Tokyo
1927	Nomura	Komazawa	1936	Sato	Hiroshima

Table 10. Professional Championship

Year	Holders
1931	Rokuzo Asami
1932	Larry Montes
1933	Larry Montes
1934	Tomekichi Miyamoto
1935	Toichiro Toda

Past winners in the Inter-sectional Kanto-Kansai championship are as follows:

Table 11. Inter-sectional Championship

Year	Men's Division	Women's Division
1927	Kanto	
1928	No return	
1929	Kanto	Kansai
1930	Kanto	Kanto
1931	Kanto	Kanto
1932	Kanto	Kanto
1933	Kanto	Kansai
1934	Kanto	Kanto
1935	Kansai	Kanto

Leading golf links in and aoout Tokyo, Yokohama and other places are as follows:

Table 12. Leading Golf Links

Name	No. of holes	Length (yards)	Area (tsubo)	Location
Kawana Golf Link	18	7,084	—	Ito, Shizuoka Prefecture
Tokyo Golf Club (Asaka Course)	18	—	220,000	Tokyo
Kobe Golf Club	18	5,000	—	Mt. Rokko, near Kobe
Hodogaya Country Club	18	6,105	—	Hodogaya, Yokohama
Yokohama Golf Club	9	2,312	—	Negishi, Yokohama
Maiko Country Club	9	2,482	—	Tarumi, Hyogo Prefecture
Naruo Golf Club	9	3.300	—	Naruo, Hyogo Prefecture
Inagawa Golf Course	18	6,557	160,000	Inagawa, near Naruo, Hyogo Prefecture
Ibaraki Country Club	18	6,300	—	Ibaraki, Osaka Prefecture
Musashino Country Club	18	6,475	—	Kazama mura, Chiba Prefecture
Nagoya Golf Club	18	6,063	—	Aichi Prefecture
Kasumigaseki Golf Club	18	6,600	—	Kasumigaseki, Saitama Prefecture
Fujisawa Golf Club	18	6,350	180,000	Fujsawa, Kanagawa Prefecture
Hirono Golf Club	18	—	250,000	Mino-gun, Hyoga Prefecture
Fujigaya Link	18	6,750	—	Fujigaya, Higashi Katsushikagun, Chiba Prefecture
Takanodai Golf Club	18	6,720	200,000	Koushibashi-mura, Chiba-gun, Chiba Prefecture
Sagami Country Club	18	6,535	—	Yamato-mura, Koza-gun, Kanagawa Prefecture
Abiko Golf Club	18	6,374	—	Abiko, Chiba Prefecture

BOXING

For boxing, Japan is much indebted to Captain Warren J. Clear formerly of the American Embassy, who at the invitation of General Ugaki, then Minister of War, began instruction in 1924 of a class of 45 officers and non-commissioned officers in the art of self-defense. To the 9th Olympic Games at Amsterdam in 1928, Japan sent two champions, Usuda and Okamoto. The former had had experience and fought his way to the semi-finals in his division. In 1932, five men were sent to the Olympic Games in Los Angeles.

Through the organization of the All-Japan Professional Boxing Federation in the fall of 1934, professional boxing took a great spurt. For the first time, champions for the respective divisions were decided after an elimination tournament between November 5 and December 26, 1934, the finals being held at the Kokugikan wrestling arena of Tokyo. The following champions were crowned:

Flyweight: Yoichiro Hanada, Imperial Boxing Club.
Bantamweight: Otsu, Kyokuto Boxing Club.
Featherweight: Tsuneo (Piston) Horiguchi, Nippon Boxing Club.
Lightweight: Kotaro Suzuki, Imperial Boxing Club.
Welterweight: Yoshio Natori, Tokyo Boxing Club.

Amateur boxing is an important sports event in the country's inter-collegiate circles and is gaining in popularty. The All-Japan amateur championships were held at the Hibiya Public Hall auditorium on December 15-16, 1934. The winners were:

Flyweight: Nakano, Kanto district.
Bantamweight: Hiraoka, Kansai district.
Featherweight: Boku, Korea.
Lightweight: Nagamatsu, Kanto district.
Welterweight: Sakurai, Chubu district.

Results of inter-college dual tournaments in 1934 follow:

Kansai university defeated Keio, 6.5 to 2.5 points.
Meiji defeated Keio, 5 decision, 3 defeats, two draws.
Meiji defeated Kansai university, 5 to 4.
Meiji defeated Waseda, 7 to 3.

BASKETBALL

Basketball had a hard struggle to get a start in Japan, and it was not until the fall of 1921 that a tournament was run off in connection with the annual track and field championships. four teams responding, all from the Y.M.C.A.'s of Tokyo, Yokohama and Osaka. Eager to master this sport, the Japanese have been practising conscientiously and have developed players to such a stage that a representative all-star Japanese team is able today to provide interesting competition for the best clubs in the world.

The visit of an American team, comprised of collegiate stars in May, 1935, was a highlight in the basketball program during the past year. While the visitors won all 10 games played, they were impressed with the development shown by the Japanese in this sport.

In the 14th All-Japan championships played at the outer court of the Meiji Shrine grounds in January, 1935, the Tokyo Imperial university five won the title by defeating the All-Keijo team from Korea, 54 to 36 in the finals. The same Tokyo Imperial university quintet won the Kanto Students' championships for the year 1934 with 10 straight victories.

In the women's division, the Kisarazu team emerged champions by defeating the Kyoto Prefectural second school team by the score of 32 to 28.

TRACK AND FIELD ATHLETICS

The tremendous development of Japan in track and field athletic was shown by her champions in a series of meets held in the autumn of 1934 with an All-American team comprised of the following: John Anderson, Cornell university; Robert Clark, University of California; Frank Crowley, Manhattan College; Glenn Cunningham, University of Kansas; Gordon Dunn, Stanford university; Donald Favor, University of Maine; Phil Good, Bowdoin College; Howard Greene, Abilaine Christian College; Charles Hornbostel, Indiana university; Walter Marty, Fresno, Calif.; Ralph Metcalfe, Marquette university; Charles Parsons, University of Southern California; Wirt Thompson, Yale university; Dudley Wilkins, Louisiana. John J. Magee was coach and manager of the team.

The American team won by 84 to 75 points in the first America-Japan meet at the Meiji Shrine grounds on September 8 and 9 but the Japanese athletes scored revenge by 77½ to 75½ points in a return meet at the Koshien stadium, near Osaka, on September 15 and 16. Track and field records of past years are given below:—

Table 13. Japan Track and Field Records

(a) Men's Japanese Records

Event	Holder	Time, Distance or Height	Year
100 meters dash	R. Yoshioka	10.3 Secs.	1935
200 meters dash	R. Yoshioka	21.2 Secs.	1933
400 meters run	I. Nakashima	49.1 Secs.	1932
800 meters run	K. Aoji	1:54.0 Secs.	1934
200 meters hurdles	Y. Fukui	24 3 Secs.	1926
400 meters relay	(K. Sasaki, B. Suzuki, M. Taniguchi, R. Yoshioka)	41.5 Secs.	1934
800 meters relay	(T. Takano, B. Kondo, M. Taniguchi, B. Suzuki)	1:28.0 Secs.	1934
Running High jump	K. Tanaka	2.01 meters	1935
Runing Broad jump	C. Nambu	7.98 meters	1931
Hop, Step and jump	K. Oshima	15.82 meters	1934
Shot Put	S. Takata	14.13 meters	1934
Discus throw	K. Kikumoto	44.76 meters	1935
Javelin throw	S. Nagao	68.59 meters	1934
Pentathlon	T. Yoshizumi	3.710 Points	1933

(b) Women's Japanese Records

Event	Holder	Time, Distance or Height	Year
50 meters dash	Miss K. Hitomi	6.4 Secs.	1927
100 meters dash	Miss K. Hitomi	12.2 Secs.	1928
200 meters dash	Miss K. Hitomi	24.7 Secs.	1929
400 metsrs run	Miss K. Idota	1:1.6 Secs.	1935
800 meters run	Miss K. Idota	2:28.6 Secs.	1934
80 meters hurdles	Miss M. Nakanishi	12.2 Secs.	1934
400 meters relay	(M. Muraoka, T. Shibata, A. Tsuchikura, S. Watanabe)	50.2 Secs.	1932
800 meters relay	(T. Yamato, S. Makino, H. Nakamura, F. Takino)	1:52.0 Secs.	1935
Running high jump	Miss Y. Hirohashi	1.52 meters	1935
Running broad jump	Miss K. Hitomi	5.97 meters	1928
Hop, step and jump	Miss S. Watanabe	11.43 meters	1932
Shot Put	Miss F. Kojima	11.84 meters	1935
Discus throw	Miss M. Ishizu	39.64 meters	1935
Javelin throw	Miss S. Yamamoto	41.28 meters	1934
Pentathlon	Miss H. Tanaka	220 Points	1935

VOLLEY-BALL

Volley-Ball was introductd to Japan hand in hand with basketball, and is now quite popular among school girls. The National Championship games are held annually. At present the Kobe Higher Commercial School holds the honor. Girls' championship games also take place every year.

SOCCER AND RUGBY

Perhaps as a result of the presence of the then British Ambassador Sir Conyngham Greene at the Kanto matches, a silver cup was presented in March, 1919 by the Football Association in England to the Japan Football Association, which latter, however, did not come into existence until October, 1921, when it was organized in Tokyo with Mr. J. Imamura as president and Prince I. Tokugawa and the British Ambassador as honorary presidents. With the formation of the Association the National Championship game was started.

Soccer.—In January 1932, the Japan Football Association invited Canadian Rugby team, the first foreign team that has ever made a trip to Japan to play the game, and Japanese made a fair showing against such a team of year's tradition and practice. Soccer is less popular than Rugby but it is contested every year at the Meiji Shrine Stadium among the leading Universities and Colleges. At the 1935 contest of Kwanto vs. Kwansai University league held at the Meiji Shrine stadium, the Waseda University got the cahmpionship beating the Kwansai Gakuin with a score of 12—1. The annual record is as follows:—

Table 14. Soccer Results

1929	Tokyo Imperial University	8–2	Kwansai Gakuin
1930	,, ,, ,,	2–1	Kyoto Imperial University
1931	,, ,, ,,	2–2	Kwansai Gakuin
1932	Keio University	2–1	Kyoto Imperial University
1933	Waseda University	5–2	,, ,, ,,
1934	,, ,,	6–0	,, ,, ,,
1935	,, ,,	12–2	Kwansai Gakuin

Rugby.—First introduced by Mr. G. Tanaka who studied at Cambridge the sport is now as well developed in the Kwansai district as in the Kanto district.

In January and February, 1934, a series of international football tournaments was held between various Japanese teams and the visiting students rugby team from Australia, the matches being held in Tokyo and Kobe. The scores were as follow:—

Table 16. Rugby Results

Australian	33—15	All-Kwansai team
Keio Univ.	16— 8	Australian
Meiji ,,	36— 8	,,
Australian	21— 6	Waseda Univ. team
,,	18— 8	All-Univ. League
,,	23—11	Doshisha Univ.
All-Univ. League	14— 9	Australian

At the Kwanto vs. Kwansai 9th contest for 1935 the Kwanto team won with a score of 56—11. Past winners are given below:

Table 17. Football Results

1928	Kwanto	9— 6	Kwansai
1929	,,	17— 6	,,
1930	,,	37— 5	,,
1931	,,	13— 8	,,
1932	,,	33—22	,,
1933	,,	54—16	,,
1934	,,	40— 3	,,
1935	,,	8— 6	,,
1936	,,	56—11	,,

The first full-fledged American style football game in Japan was played on Thanksgiving Day, November 29, 1934 at the Meiji Shrine grounds between an all-collegiate team against the Yokohama Country and Athletic Club eleven. Though outweighted heavily, experience was a stronger factor and the students won by a 26 to 0 score.

With the view to educating the public on American football, the Asahi Shimbun of Tokyo invited a groupof 35 American collegiate football stars, comprising blue and red teams under the management of Albert Maloney, former star player of the University of Southern California, to Japan in early spring of 1935. They played exhibition games in Tokyo and in the Kwansai. Needless to say, the visitors had no trouble winning from Japan in the first dual competition held in this sport.

Five university teams battled for the 1935 cnampionships, which was won by Meiji University.

HOCKEY AND CRICKET

Hockey.—This Western game is of the latest introduction in Japan, and it was only in November, 1926, that the first national championship tournament was held, when the Waseda team came out first in the final. This same team with the strong addition from other colleges made up a newly combined Japanese team and participated in the 10th Olympic Games at Los Angeles and acquired a second position beating the United States team by 9—2, and trailing the British-Indian team with 10—1. It was rather a remarkable achievement for any hockey team to score even a single point against the strong and well-balanced team such as Indian. In the All-Japan Championship contest held at Toyama School grounds (Tokyo) in the autumn of 1935, the Tokyo University of Commerce won the championship beating the Kyoto Imperial University with a score of 4—1. The annual record is as follow:—

Table 15. Hockey Championship

	Winner
1923	Keio Univ.
1924	Toyama School
1925	Meiji Univ.
1926	Waseda Univ.
1927	Meiji Univ.
1928	Keio Univ.
1929	Waseda Univ.
1930	Tokyo Univ. of Com
1931	Waseda Univ.
1932	Keio Univ.
1933	Keio Univ.
1934	Tokyo Univ. of Com.
1935	,, ,, ,, ,,

An event of international importance was the visit in March, 1930 of the Battlesford Millers ice hockey team of Saskatchewan, Western Canada, which won all seven matches played against the best talent available in the Empire. The Canadians displayed excellent teamwork in their passing attack and the handling of their sticks superb. Though they won with one-sided scores, the Japanese team seemed to improve with each game and clearly demonstrated they were learning much from the performance of the visitors.

LAWN TENNIS

Lawn tennis has the distinction of being the first Japanese sport that has laid a claim to international notice and gained for Japan entree in the world tournament of Davis Cup. It was Kumagai, Shimizu and Kashio, who for the first time in 1921 played for Japan. In the 1929 competition Japan, represented by Harada, Ohta and Toba in the American zone tournaments, defeated Mexico, then Canada, but in the final contest was beaten by the French team. Since then the Japanese team has been fighting its way through the European zone instead of American zone where repeatedly Japanese were repulsed by the team from the United States and never has it been fortunate enough to reach the final of Inter-zone matches. In 1933, Japan went to the second round without having the first matches, beat the Greek team five to nothing, Denmark five to nothing, but in the semi-final challenge round was beaten by the strong team of Italy by three matches to two. Kuwahara, Satoh and Miki were Japanese representatives. Later in the same season J. Satoh and Miki went to England and showed their skill and stamina in the Winbledon Tournament, though beaten by Austin of England in the semi-final of men's single.

To the Davis Cup contest (European zone

tournament) held in May and June, 1934, Japan sent Satoh, Yamagishi, Nishimura and Fujikura. In the singles, Japan (Yamagishi and Fujikura) was defeated by Australia with 1 to 3, and in the doubles too, Japan (Nishimura and Yamagishi) was again defeated by Australia with 1 to 3. It was a great loss not only to Japan but also to the world athletic circles that Satoh who had established a world-wide fame in this branch of athletic in the previous contests died while on way to Europe. It is, however, gratifying that the Japanese champion Miki secured the championship honor with Miss Round of England at the All-British Championship Tournament at Winbledon in July the same season.

For the 1935 Davis Cup international tennis competition, Japan sent only two players, Jiro Yamagishi and Hideo Nishimura, both of Keio university and first and second ranking players, respectively, of the country, to the European zone. Although they defeated Holland in the opening round at The Hague, they were eliminated in the second round by Czechoslovakia at Prague. Japan was not represented at the 1936 Davis Cup Tournament.

Among the landmarks in the world of tennis in Japan in 1936 was the visit of three well known tennis stars, namely, William Tilden, Ellsworth Vines and Miss Sharp. These players came to Japan under the auspices of the Yomiuri Shimbun on October 5th and played a series of games in Tokyo, Nagoya and at Koshien. Their professional status as players hindered the holding of matches between them and the top ranking amateur players of Japan. The Yomiuri Shimbun, however, was able to turn several Japanese stars into professionals to play against the visitors, as well as in getting the consent of the American players in "coaching" the Japanese amateurs. The exhibition matches between Tilden and Vines were witnessed with keen interest in Tokyo and in the Kansai and conferred much to improving the play of the Japanese tennis men.

The matches between Miss Sharp and Miss Sanae Okada, the women's champion of Japan, who had turned professional, were closely fought. Miss Sharp, however, was able to win most of the matches in the Kansai and all of those played in Tokyo.

ROWING

This sport was originated by the Tokyo Imperial University about the year 1880, and fostered by the young Englishman, Prof. Strange. The Sumida River in Tokyo, the Seta River and Lake Biwa, both near Kyoto, are regular scenes of contest for the championship in spring or autumn every year. The adoption in 1920 of the international standard boat with eight outrigger sliding seats at the instance of Dr. S. Kishi (late Chairman of Japan Athletic Association) revived this sport which had lost much of its interest. In that year the Japan Amateur Rowing Association with Dr. S. Kishi as chairman was organized by all the collegiate institutions of the country.

In the 1932 Olympics, Waseda represented Japan in eight oar boat and Keio in four oars in the water contest. Though both of them did not come through in the first preliminary beats, Japan experts much from this branch of sports in the coming Olympics

In the All-Japan Championship contest for 1934 the Keio University won the honor in eight oars and the Nihon Medical University in four oars.

WRESTLING

Though a national game of Japan of ancient origin and still popular among all classes of people, this manly sport suffered decadence after the overthrow of feudalism, but it soon recovered popularity with the rise of militarism. It is now in danger of again losing its hold on popular fancy, owing to the encroachment of the more thrilling display of modern sports imported from the West.

The Tokyo Professional Wrestlers' Association possesses an amphitheatre at Ryogoku, Tokyo, capable of accommodating 13,000 persons. Tokyo and Osaka are two headquarters of the game where there are some 200 professional wrestlers who are classified into nine grades of which only those of the first two or three, numbering in all ten, occupy the front rank. Grandmatches are given twice a year, January and May, ten days on each occasion. For convenience of public display, the wrestlers are divided into two opposing "camps," eastern and western, and each wrestler is pitted with one on the opposite side, till the whole ten in the rival camps have gone through the matches in the prescribed ten days. There are two grades of champions, namely the Yokozuna (who alone is entitled to hang round his waist the honored straw festoon) and next the Sanyaku (or three services which are the Ozeki, Sekiwaki and Komusubi). The Association is composed of retired champion wrestlers, limited to 80 in number, wrestlers on active service and umpire. Regular income of wrestlers is very small, and it is on account of the share they are allowed in the profit of the Association and especially of the gifts they receive from their regular patrons that the wrestlers are able to maintain themselves. Wrestlers indeed are considered from former times as pets of society, from their simplicity and disinterestedness as compared with more artful and worldly actors. The traditional tricks and dodges of wrestlers number forty-eight based on the fundamental "hand," viz., "nage" (to throw), "kake" (feet entagling), "hineri" (to twist) and "sori" (to uplift). In practice, however, tricks as used on the ring number some two hundreds.

Wrestling is also popular among college boys and several times a year they hold matches at either Tokyo or Osaka to contest the championship.

WINTER SPORTS

SKATING AND SKIING

Skating is an ancient pastime in north-eastern Japan but regular skating dates some thirty years back and was introduced by foreigners. As a sport for general public a performance was first given about 1907 on Lake Suwa (in Nagano prefecture), about 40 miles north-west from Tokyo, and with the shores abounding in hot springs. Lake Matsubara, also in Nagano, is another popular skating rink. Several lakes at the north-eastern foot of Mt. Muji are also visited by skaters. The Ice Sports League now exists as rival to the Japan Skating Association. The 7th All-Japan championship contest for speed skating was held at the Hosoo iink, Nikko, on January 22-23, 1936, the 1st winners for contest being as follow:—

Table 18. Skating Championship

Figure:			
7 points.....	school.....708.80	Kitagawa,	
	free.....561.20	Osaka	
Speed:			
500 m.....	46.4″	M. Mitsuhiro (Manchuokuo)	
1,500 m.....	2′ 28.4″	R. Sai (Chosen)	
5,000 m.....	9′ 05.4″	K. Adachi (Manchoukuo)	
10,000 m.....	19′ 03.3″	J. Ri (Chosen)	
Hockey:			
Waseda.....	5—4	Nikko Furukawa	

Miss Fritzi Burger, Austrian queen on the ice, who placed second in the women's figure skating competition at the last Olympics in 1932 was in Japan early in 1935 through an invitation extended by the Asahi Shimbun. Her exhibitions at the Shibaura rink of Tokyo and at Osaka, withut a doubt, contributed greatly to the development of this sport in Japan. She took particular pains to coach Japanese talent while on her visit.

Skiing was introduced about 1910 by an Austrian officer attached to a Japanese regiment in Takata, Niigata-ken, one of the most snowy districts in Japan. The favorite skiing slopes as they exist at present are Seki, Taguchi and Akakura on the slope of Mt. Kyoko, about 10 hrs. from Tokyo; Numajiri at the foot of Mt. Bandai (about 8 hrs. from Tokyo) which was chosen by the Waseda Ski Club in 1923 as its training ground; Goshiki about 2 m. up Mt. Azuma, situated close by Itaya station on the O-u Railway Line, about 10 hrs. from Tokyo. Owani in Aomori-ken, Takata in Niigata-ken, Sapporo and other slopes in Hokkaido are also good skiing grounds. Skiiers in the Kyoto-Osaka district enjoy the sport on Mount Ibuki standing near the shore of Lake Biwa.

Hannes Schneider, noted Austrian skier, came to Japan in the spring of 1930 and made a lecture on skiing in Tokyo. He visited leading skiing grounds in Northern Japan and Hokkaido, where he gave lectures or coached the Japanese skiers.

The 13th All-Japan Ski championship contest was held in February 9-11, 1935 at Miyanomori near Sapporo, Hokkaido, the winners of the 1st honor being as follow:—

Table 19. Japanese Skiing Records

Records for Young Men

Events	Records	Holders
50 kms.....	5′ 22.22″	Okazaki (Oyubari)
18 ,, ...	1′ 20.23″	Yamada (Aomori)
Doubles	393.5 points	Sekiguchi (Hokkaido Imp. Univ.)
Jumping	219.0 ,,	Adachi (Sapporo Ry. Region)
32 km. relay	2′ 57.25″	Aomori team

Records for Adults

Event	Records	Holders
18 kms.	1′ 36.7″	Minami (Sapporo)
Doubles	420.7 points	Takahashi (Morioka)
Jumping	201.0 ,,	Akino (Otaru)

Records for Boys

18 kms	1′ 25.54″	Murai (Nayori Middle Sch.)
Doubles	384.0 points	Fuyeno (Toyohara)
Jumping	207.7 ,,	Kamegamori (Hokkai Middle Sch.)

HORSE RIDING AND RACES

Horse racing has revived prosperity with the permission of pari mutel tickets under strict restriction in 1923. The Government is encouraging racing by granting aids. Eleven race clubs exist, as Hanshin at Naruo, Tokyo at Fuchu and Nippon at Yokohama, etc. There are 8 others in the provinces, races being held semi-annualy, namely in spring and autumn.

In the spring races of 1933 there were altogether 507,445 admissions, prizes awarded amounting to ¥1,700,982, tickets sold ¥37,342,000 and amount distributed ¥31,501,000.

The fastest records published in July, 1934, are as follow:—

Table 20. Japanese Bred

Gallop

Distance	Name	Age	Record	Club	Year
1,600 meters	Yae-hiraki	4	1′ 42.0″	Hanshin	1934 (Spring)
1,800 ,,	King II	7	1′ 52.4″	Fukushima	1932 (,,)
2,000 ,,	Efford	5	2′ 05.2′	Hanshin	1934 (,,)
2,000 ,,	Yamayasu	5	2′ 05.2′	Niigata	,, (,,)
2,400 ,,	Hanryu	5	2′ 32.0″	Fukushima	,, (,,)
2,600 ,,	Asahagi	6	2′ 45.3″	Hanshin	,, (,,)
3,200 ,,	Hakuko	5	3′ 26.0″	Nakayama	1933 (Autumn)
3,400 ,,	Hakuryu	5	3′ 44.0″	Tokyo	1932 (Spring)
4,000 ,,	,,	5	4′ 23.4″	Nakayama	1932 (,,)
2,000 ,,	Royal Cup	5	2′ 12.1″	Hanshin	1933 (Autumn)
2,200 ,,	Pino	7	2′ 29.2″	Sapporo	1933 (Spring)
2,400 ,,	Shaidai-Noboru	6	2′ 38.0″	Hanshin	1934 (,,)
2,600 ,,	Yamamichi	7	2′ 52.2″	,,	,, (,,)
2,800 ,,	,,	6	3′ 06.1″	Niigata	1933 (,,)
3,200 ,,	Asbel	6	3′ 35.0″	Sapporo	1933 (,,)
3,300 ,,	Shaidai-Noboru	6	3′ 59.2″	Hanshin	1934 (,,)

Trot

3,200 meters	Yamajiman	6	5′ 31.2″	Kokura	1933 (Autumn)
3,400 ,,	Manri	4	5′ 11.1″	Hanshin	1934 (Spring)
3,600 ,,	Bordeaux	4	5′ 31.4″	,,	,, (,,)
3,800 ,,	Fast arrow	4	5′ 58.0″	,,	,, (,,)
4,000 ,,	Manri	4	7′ 00.0″	,,	1933 (Autumn)
4,200 ,,	Harbin	4	6′ 51.0″	Nippon	,, (Spring)
4,400 ,,	Seiyu	4	7′ 04.2″	,,	,, (,,)
4,800 ,,	,,	4	7′ 20.3″	Hanshin	,, (,,)
5,000 ,,	,,	4	7′ 56.0″	Tokyo	,, (,,)
5,200 ,,	Tokachi Faster	4	8′ 11.2″	Kyoto	,, (,,)
6,000 ,,	King Trotter	4	10′ 10.4″	Hanshin	,, (,,)

Table 21. Foreign Bred

Gallop

	1½ miles			1 mile		
Year	Place	Name	Speed	Place	Name	Speed
1926	Tokyo	Sonohana	2′ 45.59″	Tokyo	Sonohana	1′ 47.00″
1927	,,	Asbel	2′ 44.00″	Yokohama	Shirano	1′ 46.40″
1928	,,	Chishima	2′ 40.55″	Tokyo	Bisk	1′ 47.85″
1929	,,	Virginia	2′ 51.78″	,,	Rina	1′ 48.70″
1930	,,	,,	2′ 51.90″	,,	Chishima	1′ 48.10″

Leading horserace clubs are as follows:—

Table 22. Horse Race Clubs

	Established	Location
Tokyo Race Club	May, 1919	Fuchu-machi, near Tokyo
Nippon Race Club	December, 1905	Negishi, Yokohama
Hanshin Race Club	March, 1907	Naruo-machi, Hyogo Prefecture
Kyoto Race Club	March, 1907	Mukojima-machi, Fushimi-ku, Kyoto
Kokura Race Club	July, 1910	Kokura, Kyushu
Niigata Race Club	December, 1907	Sekiya-machi, Niigata City
Nakayama Race Club	July, 1907	Katsushika-machi, Chiba Prefecture
Hakodate Race Club	May, 1900	Yukawa-mura, near Hakodate, Hokkaido
Sapporo Race Club	April, 1907	Sapporo, Hokkaido
Fukushima Race Club	April, 1908	Fukushima City, Fukushima Prefecture
Miyazaki Race Club	September, 1907	Miyazaki City, Kyushu

Horsemanship has also gained some popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 equestrian clubs in larger cities while many universities and collegian schools have their students' horse-riding societies.

MOUNTAINEERING

Mountaineering as a pious act of religious people is an ancient custom among the Japanese, but it is only about fifteen years ago or so that the practice began to appeal to the sporting sentiment of those who are inclined to test their sturdy legs and power of endurance by mountain climbing. The example was first set by foreigners.

Sacred peaks visited by mountain pilgrims are found almost everywhere in Japan, but of these the most popular are Fuji, Ontake, Tateyama, etc.

Fuji (12,387 ft.)—Fuji, though the highest in Japan proper, is the easiest ascent, and also in the season best provided with accommodations and facilities. Even a post office is opened then. There are five regular paths leading to the summit, viz., Omiyaguchi (about 20 m. to top), Gotemba-guchi (20 m.), Subashiri-guchi (13 m.), Suyama-guchi (18 m.) and Yoshida-guchi (18 m.). The first four lie along the Tokaido railway while the last is approached from the opposite side.

"Japanese Alps."—It is generally believed that this name was first given by an English mountaineer to the mountain ranges extending from the Pacific to the Japan Sea, the broadest region of Honshu, and lying approximately between 35°–37° N. and 137°–139° E. The Japanese Alps are commonly divided into three groups, viz., Northern Alps, Central Alps, and Southern Alps, with peaks standing 10,000 ft. or thereabout as follow:—

Table 23. Peaks

Northern Alps:—	
Ontake	Yarigatake
Norikuradake	Tateyama
Yakedake	Shirouma
Hodake	Jonendake
Arakawadake	Dai-tenjodake
Tsubakurodake	
Tsurugidake	
Central Alps:—	
Kiso-Komagatake	**Southern Alps:—**
Enadake	Kai-Komagatake
	Jizodake
	Senjogatake
	Akaishidake
	Shirane-Kitadake

N.B.—The Japanese words "dake," "take," "yama," or "san" signify "mount" or "peak."

Of the three groups the northern one is most popular, on account of comparatively easy access, presence of several thermal springs existing in the valley, as Kamikochi (5,000 ft.), Shirahone (4,000 ft.) and Hirayu (4,000 ft.), and richness of flora. The Southern Alps are deep and their peaks are difficult to ascend owing to the presence of foothills and primeval forests; also wild beasts are still met with now and then.

Hodaka, consisting of three peaks, is noted for rock-climbing, for which fact the chain is compared with the European Alpine peaks, and as the three Hodaka stand lofty, steep, liable to crumble, and therefore require help of roping, appeal strongly to the adventurous spirit of bold climbers. It was probably on that account that Prince Chichibu (Hon. Mem. of the Alpine Club), climbed Hodaka in 1928 with Mr. Maki, a mountaineer of international fame who scaled Mt. Alberta of the Canadian Rockies in July, 1925, and with some other mountain climbers of note.

Mountaineering and Exploration

Peak-hunting is no longer the main object of mountaineering in Japan as no peak worthy of name is left unexplored. The attention of a mountaineer of any pretension is now chiefly directed to exploring little known valleys and river sources, or a primeval forest district as in the so-called "Kishu Alps." By calling in the help of ski, the explorers have in the winter season extensively covered Shirouma, the Tateyama range and other peaks.

JAPAN IN THE 11TH OLYMPIAD

Selection of Tokyo as the site of the 12th Olympic Games in 1940 by the International Olympic Committee at Berlin on July 31, 1936 by a vote of 36 for Tokyo and 27 for Helsinki was in itself the greatest event in Japan's sports for the year 1936. World recognition of Nippon's development in sports came 24 years after Japanese athletes, two of them, had competed for the first time in an Olympiad—that at Stockholm in 1912.

Despite the long distance of travel to Berlin, Japan sent a delegation of 230 officials and athletes to the 11th Olympic Games held in the German capital between August 1 and 16, 1936, as compared with a representation of 130 at the 10th Olympiad at Los Angeles in 1932. Teams to Berlin included track and field, swimming, diving, water polo, rowing, wrestling, equestrian, field hockey, calisthenics, soccer, yachting and basketball for men; and track and field, swimming and diving for women, or a total of 16 events. Japan sent representatives in soccer and yachting for the first time while a basketball team was a new addition automatically for the reason that the sport had been included in the Olympic program for the first time.

The Japanese delegates made a most creditable showing, capturing six Olympic championships, shattering the world's records in four and creating a new Olympic record in one of them. They also won four second places and eight third places, all of which means that 18 Japanese flags were hoisted on the Olympic victory masts. They also won seven fourth places, six fifth and six sixth places, as well as having three men tying for sixth place in two events.

Out of 32 nations scoring at least one third place, Japan placed eighth in the number of first, second and third places. A tabulation for the first ten follows:

Table 24. Standing at the Olympiad

		First Places	Second Places	Thirds Places
1.	Germany	33	26	30
2.	United States	24	20	12
3.	Hungary	10	1	5
4.	Italy	8	9	5
5.	Finland	7	6	6
5.	France	7	6	6
7.	Sweden	6	5	9
8.	Japan	6	4	8
9.	Netherlands	6	4	7
10.	England	4	7	3

SWIMMING

Japan retained its championship that was won at the Olympic Games in Los Angeles in 1932 in the men's swimming events but only after a fierce duel with the United States. Victories in the 200-meter breaststroke and the 100-meter freestyle events by Tetsuo Hamuro and Noboru Terada respectively on the final day of the swimming competition gave Japan three first places against two for the United States. Japan won all first places at Los Angeles except the 400-meter freestyle event, which was captured by Clarence Crabbe of the United States. Incidentally, Jack Medica of the American team once again stopped the Nipponese swimmers from winning this race when he defeated Shumpei Uto in the last 25 meters of the race in a new Olympic record of 4 minutes 44.5 seconds.

On the unofficial scoring of points on a 10–5–4–3–2–1 basis for the first six places, Japan scored a total of 73 points against 47 points for the United States in the speed swimming races. The scoring by events follows:—

Table 25. Unofficial Swimming Scores

	Japan	U.S.	Hungary	Germany	France	England
100-m. freestyle	12	1	10	2	0	0
400-m. freestyle	11	13	0	0	1	0
800-m. relay	10	5	4	2	3	1
100-m. backstroke	7	18	0	0	0	0
200-m. breaststroke	16	3	0	6	0	0
1,500-m. freestyle	17	7	0	0	0	1
Total	73	47	14	10	4	2

The results of the events were:

100-meter freestyle: won by Ferenc Csic (Hungary), 57.6 seconds, new Olympic record; second, Masanori Yusa (Japan), 57.9 seconds; third, Shigeo Arai (Japan), 58 seconds; fourth, Shoji Taguchi (Japan), 58.1 seconds; fifth, Helmut Fischer (Germany), 59.3 seconds; sixth, Peter Fick (U.S.), 59.7 seconds.

800-meter relay: won by Japan (Masanori Yusa, Shigeo Sugiura, Shoji Taguchi, Shigeo Arai), 8 mins. 51.5 seconds, new world and Olympic record; second, United States, 9 mins. 3.2 secs.; third, Hungary, 9 mins. 12.4 secs.; fourth, France; fifth, Germany; sixth, England.

400-meter freestyle: won by Jack Medica (U.S.), 4 mins. 44.5 secs., new Olympic record; second, Shunpei Uto (Japan), 4 mins. 45.6 secs.; third, Shozo Makino (Japan), 4 mins. 48.1 secs.; fourth, Ralph Flanagan (U.S.), 4 mins. 52.7 secs.; fifth, Hiroshi Negami (Japan), 4 mins. 53.6 secs.; sixth, Jean Taris (France), 4 mins. 53.8 secs.

100-meter backstroke; won by Adolf Kiefer (U.S.), 1 min. 5.9 secs., new world and Olympic record; second, Albert Vande Weghe (U.S.), 1 min. 7.7 secs.; third, Masaji Kiyokawa (Japan), 1 min. 8.4 secs.; fourth, Taylor Drysdale (U.S.), 1 min. 9.4 secs.; fifth, Kiichi Yoshida (Japan), 1 min. 9.7 secs.; sixth, Yasuhiko Kojima (Japan), 1 min. 10.4 secs.

200-meter breaststroke: won by Tetsuo Hamuro (Japan), 2 mins. 42.5 secs., new world and Olympic record; second, Sietas (Germany), 2 mins. 42.9 secs.; third, Reizo Koike (Japan), 2 mins. 44.2 secs.; fourth, John Higgins (U.S.), 2 mins. 45.2 secs.; fifth, Saburo Ito (Japan), 2 mins. 47.6 secs.; sixth, Joachim Balke (Germany), 2 mins. 47.8 secs.

1,500-meter freestyle: won by Noboru Terada (Japan), 19 mins. 13.7 secs.; second, Jack Media (U.S.), 19 mins. 34 secs.; third, Shumpei Uto (Japan), 19 mins. 35.5 secs.; fourth, Sunao Ishiharada (Japan), 19 mins. 48.5 secs.; fifth, Ralph Flanagan (U.S.), 19 mins. 54.8 secs.; sixth, Robert Leivers (England), 19 mins. 57.4 secs.

Only one Japanese flag was hoisted on the Olympic mast in the women's swimming competition when Miss Hideko Maehata won the Olympic title in the 200-meter breaststroke event in the new Olympic record time of 3 minutes 3.6 seconds, nosing out Miss Martha Genenger of Germany in the last 25 meters of the race. The Japanese mermaid lost out by a touch to Miss Clare Dennis of Australia at the 10th Olympic Games in Los Angeles in 1932.

Of the six other Japanese girl swimmers, Miss Kazue Kojima wrote a new page in Japan's swimming history by becoming the first Japanese girl to enter the final of a freestyle event at the Olympic Games. She placed sixth in the 400-meter freestyle which was won by Miss Rita Mastenbroek of the Netherlands in the Olympic time of 5 minutes 26.4 seconds. Miss Kojima's time was 5 minutes 43.1 seconds for a new Japanese record.

Tsuneo Shibahara placed fourth with 144.29 points in the men's springboard diving which was won by Dick Degener of the United States with 163.57 points. He was sixth with 107.40 points in the high diving which was won by Marshall Wayne of the United States with 113.58 points.

In the women's diving, Miss Reiko Osawa placed sixth with 73.94 points in the springboard competition which Miss Marjorie Gestring of the United States won with 89.28 points. Miss Osawa was fourth with 32.53 points and Miss Fusako Kono sixth with 30.24 points in the high diving which was won by Mrs. Dorothy Poynton Hill of the United States with 33.93 points. Miss Kaethe Koehler of Germany defeated Miss Osawa for third place by only 10/100 of a point.

TRACK AND FIELD

Japan captured two Olympic championships in the track and field events. For the third straight Olympiad, the hop, step and jump title went to Japan when Naoto Tajima leaped 16 meters for a new world and Olympic record. Mikio Oda had won it at Amsterdam in 1928 and Chuhei Nambu had repeated for Japan at Los Angeles in 1932.

Kitei Son was crowned Olympic champion in the marathon in the new Olympic record of 2 hours 29 minutes 19.2 seconds, winning the most prized race for Japan.

Besides capturing one more Olympic title than at the Olympic Games in Los Angeles, the Japanese track and field athletes also scored two second and three third places, or one and two more respectively than at the 1932 Olympiad for a vast improvement in Japanese performance. They were:

Pole vault: Shuhei Nishida and Sueo Oye defeated William Sefton of the United States in the vault-off for second place after Earle Meadows of the United States had won with a height of 4:35 meters, and Oye conceded second place to Nishida without competition. The vault-off started after Nishida, Oye and Safton had cleared 4:25 meters and failed at 4:35 meters.

Hop, step and jump: Masao Harada, second with 15.66 meters.

Marathon: Shoryu Nan, third in 2 hours 31

minutes 42 seconds.

Broad jump: Naotn Tajima, third with 7:74 meters.

Other point scorers were:

Kohei Murakoso; fourth in the 5,000-meter run in 14 minutes 30 seconds, tying the Olympic record and establishing new Japanese record; fourth in 10,000-meter run in 30 minutes 25 seconds, establishing new Japanese record.

Miss Ko Nakamura: fourth in women's discus throw with 38.24 meters.

Miss Hide Mineshima: fifth in women's discus throw with 37.35 meters.

Miss Sadako Yamamoto: fifth in women's javelin throw with 41.45 meters.

Kimio Yada: fifth in high jump with 1.97 meters.

Kenkichi Oshima: sixth in hop, step and jump with 15.07 meters.

Kiyoshi Adachi: tied with 10 others for sixth place in pole vault at 4 meters.

Zenro Asakuma and Hideo Tanaka: tied with two others for sixth place in high jump at 1.94 meters.

ROWING

Although the Japanese Olympic eight-oared crew, which was represented by the Tokyo Imperial University crew, won the Marlowe-on-Thames Grand Challenge Cup, it was fourth in one of the heats of the opening trials at the Grunau 2,000 meter course and was eliminated from the finals when it placed second to Italy in the consolation trials. The United States won the Olympic title.

The four-oared crew, represented by Waseda University's combination, was third in the first heat of the trials and was second to Denmark in the consolation trials to fail of qualifying for the finals. Germany won.

In the pair with coxswain competition, Japan was fifth in the second heat of the trials and fourth in th teconsolation trials to be eliminated. Germany won.

BOXING

Shumpei Hashioka of Hosei University entered the semi-finals of the bantamweight division in the boxing competition and placed fifth when he lost to Cederberg of Sweden. The other soxers were ranked as follows: Chiyondo Nakana, flyweight, ninth; Sajiro Miyama, featherweight; thirteenth; Eikichi Nagamatsu, lightweight, seventh; and Keiiku Li, welterweight, seventeenth.

WRESTLING

Eichi Kazama, lightweight, placed fifth and Mitsuzo Mizutani, featherweight, sixth in the freestyle wrestling.

EQUESTRIAN

Captain Baron Takeichi Nishi, who won the Prix des Nations at the 10th Olympic Games at Los Angeles, failed to place in this event, riding on a domestic bred mount. Neither did any of the four other members of the Japanese team place in any of the other equestrian events.

MISCELLANEOUS RESULTS

The Japanese Olympic water polo team lost its first game to Czechoslovakia by 4 goals to 3, then to France by 8 goals to nil and to Germany by 13 goals to one to be eliminated. Hungary won the championship by beating France 5 goals to one in the final.

The Japanese Olympic field hockey team defeated the United States by 5 goals to one and the Hungarian team by 3 goals to 1 but lost to India by 9 goals to nil to be eliminated. India won the title by defeating Germany by 8 goals to 1 in the final.

Japan defeated Sweden by 3 goals to 2 in the soccer competition but was eliminated by Italy by 8 goals to nil. Italy won the championship by defeating Austria by 2 goals to one in the final in an over-time clash.

In basketball, the Japanese Olympic quintet defeated the Chinese team by a 35 to 19 score in the opening round, then defeated the Polish team by 43 to 31 but was eliminated by Mexico by a 28 to 22 score. The championship went to the United States by a 19 to 8 victory over Canada in the final.

IV OLYMPIC WINTER GAMES

Shozo Ishihara was the only member of the Japanese delegation to the Fourth Olympic Winter Games, which were held at Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany, between February 6 and 16, 1936, to place when he took fourth place in the 500-meter speed skating race. His time was 44.1 seconds as compared with 43.4 seconds set by Ivar Ballangrud of Norway, the winner.

But Masaji Iguro took seventh place in the ski-jumping as further proof of Japan's advance into the realms of a sport where formerly its representatives were not conspicuous. He jumped 74.5 meters and 72.5 meters in his two trials

and scored 218.2 points, style and distance considered. This was a most creditable showing when compared with the performance of Birger Ruud of Norway, the champion, who jumped 75 and 74.5 meters for 232 points.

Miss Etsuko Inada, 12-year-old sensation from Osaka, was the smallest and youngest contestant in the women's figure skating competition, but she won the plaudits of the world by placing tenth. She scored 217 points in the compulsory figures and 151.1 points in the free skating for a total of 368.1 points. Miss Sonja Henie of Norway retained her Olympic championship, scoring 251.9 points in the compulsory figures and 175.6 points in the free skating for a total of 427.5 points. Miss Henie herself predicted the petite Japanese star as a coming champion.

Toshiichi Katayama was the best performer among the men's figure skaters, placing fifteenth with 201.2 points in the compulsory figuers and 146.2 points in the free skating for a total of 347.4 points. Karl Shafer of Austria retained his Olympic title with 250.9 and 171.8 points respectively for a total of 422.7 points.

The Japanese ice hockey team lost to Sweden by 3 goals to nil and to England by the same score in the preliminary round to be eliminated.

References: Tables 1-6, 8, 10-19—Undo Nenkan (Sports Year Book), 1936, published by the Asahi Shimbunsha. Tables 7 & 9—Kokumin Nenkan (1936 Published by the Kokumin Shimbun-sha). Tables 20-22—Tokyo Horse Race Club. Table 23—Japanese Year Book.

SUPPLEMENT I

JAPAN'S INDUSTRIAL OUTLOOK IN NORTH CHINA

The Continental Policy

It is conclusively proved that Japan committed herself definitely to her "Continental policy" in September 1931 when the ruling power of the Changs was overthrown in Mukden. When the new state of Manchoukuo was raised to the status of an empire less than a couple of years later and Japan at the same time assumed responsibility for the national defence of the new Empire, the military and political policy of the Tokyo Government became well defined and clear-cut so far as Manchuria was concerned. It was in pursuit of her Continental policy that Japan has since increased military forces in Manchuria in face of the continually growing Soviet armies in Eastern Siberia, and from the same consideration proposes further to expend quite respectable sums of money as part of her contemplated 5-year plan, involving an outlay of over three thousand millions beginning 1937, for the purpose of strengthening and consolidating her military position in Manchuria. It is also because of the same policy that Japan has already invested upwards of seven hundred millions in Manchuria in the past few years, and proposes to invest more through the South Manchuria Railway Company and otherwise. It would meet to say, therefore, that no phase of Manchoukuo's development or Japan's expanding enterprise therein would be understood without proper estimation of the policy to which the Tokyo Government has given character and direction since 1931.

When Japan's military and political activity was extended in 1933 to the west and south of the Great Wall, forming the natural boundary of Manchoukuo, her action was again explained on the ground of her Continental policy, or intimations were given at least to that effect. Japan could not suffer the presence in that part of China of the Blue Shirt men and other Nanking agents active against the interests of Japan or Manchoukuo.

Two New States

In consequence, there followed a new autonomous state over the area lying, roughly speaking, between the Great Wall on the north and the river Paiho on the south.

Almost in the same hour there emerged another state in North China of avowedly autonomous rule but of dubious allegiance, as later developments proved. The second new state, though the term is rather misleading, is formed with the province of Hopei or the former province of Chihli as its geographic and political centre, taking in the cities of Peiping and Tientsin, and borders the first mentioned autonomous state on the north. Into the area from which the Chinese military forces had been withdrawn in compliance with the Japanese wishes now advanced the Japanese troops to reinforce the garrisons in Tientsin, Peiping and elsewhere, though no disclosure has been made as to the numbers of these reinforcements.

Under these circumstances, Japan's continental policy assumed complexity and indicated a visible extension in scope of operation. General Sung Choh-yuang, Chairman of the Administrative Committee of North China and Chahar, may be regarded as a national hero guarding the last northern stronghold of his country against the advancing forces of Japan, or as a man who has his own reason to sit on the fence, while Tokyo and Nanking keep at their game. Whatever may be his final decision or whatever form the relations between Japan and China may eventually take with regard to North China, it is now generally realized that the final determination of North China's position "will be the key to the relations beween Japan and China." It has been made no less clear that whatever may be Japan's political interests in North China, she is first and foremost interested in the development of that part of China as an important factor in that economic structure which she evidently intends to erect, and without which the "Japan-Manchou Bloc" or whatever else she might conceive or attempt would be without meaning or value. Again, it is Japan's Continental policy that we come face to face as we observe recent developments in north China; but here it is more of the economic aspects of the same policy that we come in contact with as we survey the ground.

New Epoch in North China

"Our Continental policy consists of two eras," writes the Economist, an economic organ of the

Tokyo Nichi Nichi and the Osaka Mainichi, in its issue of June 21, 1936. "The first era covers those years in which Manchuria after the outbreak of the military incident (of September 1931) consumed the undivided attention of Japan: the second era, those years in which the province of Hopei came to the fore, following the establishments of two states in North China in 1935. What characterizes the latter is (Japan's) activity to extend beyond the Great Wall, having set limits to the scope of operation in Manchuria. This situation will not escape our attention whether our economies see depressing or encouraging developments during the current year."

Referring to the same subject, Professor Masutaro Kimura, a well known writer on economics, says: "It is perhaps inescapable that our Continental policy which aims at consolidation and adjustment of the economies of Japan, Manchoukuo and China for the purpose of intensifying our national policy of industry and defence has to be recognized as an established and inexorable fact. But it would be wrong to expect that such policy would bear fruit in the near future. Unless we should prepare ourselves to meet continuing expenditures in manifold forms over a fairly long period of time and lay the foundations from the same point of view, our whole scheme might end in disaster such as can not be foreseen."

Divergent Views

How is it to be done? Japan herself seems as yet unable to form very definite ideas as to the question of how to proceed with the undertaking to which she has set her hand. Seiichi Kojima, a well-known Japanese economist, writing of his recent experience in North China, ruefully remarks that even on such a fundamental question as determining the objectives of exploiting North China sharp disparities in opinion may be noted among men working on the spot. "For instance," he says, "you may go to Tientsin and ask experts and others who are actually charged with important duties. It will be found that men working for the South Manchuria Railway Company have one opinion; 'experts' from Machoukuo another; and the army men, have still a different "idea."

The first school of thought, according to the same economist, is opposed to any idea of developing or fostering North China as an entity independent of the rest of China. North China is conceived only as being involved in the policy to be directed to the economic development of the whole country, as a link in the chain forming the economic bloc of Japan, Manchuria and China. Importance is attached to the matters of division of industry and of interdependency between Japan and Manchuria, on one hand, and Middle and South China, on the other. Above all, emphasis is laid on the idea of expanding Japan's activity in North China to the end of drawing the Nanking Government into more intimate economic relations with Japan. North China, therefore, should not be isolated, economically or politically, from Central China. Here Japan must strengthen her foothold; but at the same time she must aim at friendly cooperation with the remaining part of China.

A diametrically opposite view is held by those experts who are working for Manchoukuo, says the same writer. These men insist on the development of North China as an economic entity independent of the rest of China as much as of Japan or Manchoukuo. The area may be developed by mobilizing its own resources, seeking little from outside beyond capital and technical aids at early stages. Institutions of revolutionary character should be set up, it is held, in order adequately to meet the needs and wishes of the inhabitants. It is only when the populace has become well alive to the rule of benevolence and justice that the inroad of Communism from the west may be effectively checked. From the same point of view importance is attached by this school to the economic relief of the agrarian population. It is also this school, says the writer, that embraces those who unsuccessfully hoped to develop Manchoukuo in her early years as an independent economic organism potent enough to give cause to great economic changes in Japan herself.

The military in Tientsin, observes Kojima, take a position nearer, if anything, to the first school of thought. While not opposed to an autonomous North China, they scout the isolationist policy of the second school as infantine. They are well aware of the importance of capitalistic cooperation of Japan and Manchuria. From strategic and other considerations, they attach the greatest importance to the construction of railways and harbours and to the exploitation of resources for heavy industries.

Whoever has followed the work of the Japanese military in Manchuria can have little doubt which of these three bodies of opinion will eventually prevail. It is in evidence that more liberal views are being taken with regard to North China than those which were obtaining in the case of Manchoukuo in her early days. It is also of interest that it has been given out as the opinion of high military authorities in Tokyo

that the development of North China should be approached as it was done toward Manchuria, not after the incident in 1931, but after the war with Russia. Controlled economies as in Manchoukuo are discountenanced, official promises being given for inducement of free in-come of capital from outside.

Geographic Definition

North China which has since of old constituted one of the three main geographic divisions of China comprises, roughly speaking, the extensively basin of the Huang Ho or the Yellow River, which runs west to east between the Yinshan Mountains on the north and the Peilingshan range on the south. The former range, running in a northeasterly direction, crosses the border of Manchuria to be known from that point on as the Great Hsingan mountains. The latter mountainous range rises far out in the west as a branch of the Kuen Lun Mountains and runs eastwards, forming the natural boundary of North China. Numberless streams rising in these mountains flow together to form the Yellow River.

Politically speaking, North China consists of five provinces, namely, Shansi, Hopei, Shantung, Suiyuan, Chahar, not including Honan, Shensi and Kansu. Geographically, North China comprises the region of loess, the plains of Hopei, and the mountainous area of Shantung. The region of loess, lying to the west of Hopei, includes the whole of Shansi, Shensi, Kansu, and a major portion of Honan, Ninghsia, Suiyuan, Chahar, and a part of Hopei. From the point of view of administration, North China is formed of the six provinces of Kansu, Shensi, Shansi, Hopei, Honan, Shantung. The same geographic area also includes the special cities of Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Siking (former Changan), all of which are under the direct administration of the National Government.

Area and Population

The above six provinces of North China have an area of 1,204,173 square kilometres or slightly less than twice the total territory of Japan. The aggregate population of these provinces is estimated to be twenty millions less than that of the Japanese Empire.

The plain of Hopei which constitutes the economic and cultural centre of North China is an extensive stretch of level land bounded on the north by the Great Wall, on the west by the peaks of the Taihsingshan and on the east by those of the Huishan. This level land has an area of 125,078 square miles (324,036 square kilometres) and a population of 80,979,025 or an average of 547 for every square mile or 250 for every square kilometre. The density of population in this part of North China is brought out in clear relief when it is seen that the area under cultivation is 82,812 square miles or 66% of the total. The remaining area represents either land unfit for cultivation, being used as villages, roads, graveyards, and pastures, or "sand soil" or soil highly saturated with alkali. The population of 80 millions mostly of agrarian workers live within an area of some 80,000 square miles with positively no hope of extending the tillable acreage.

While statistical figures of China are highly unreliable, the returns issued by the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce in 1934 may be taken as a basis for estimation of the situation as regards populations and areas of the North China provinces.

Table 1. Area and Population of North China By Provinces

Provinces	Area sq. mile	Population	Average population sq. mile
Hopei	140,526	31,232,131	222.25
Shantung	153,711	30,336,001	197.35
Shansi	161,842	12,228,155	75.56
Chahar	258,815	1,997,015	7.71
Suiyuang	304,058	2,123,768	6.98
Honan	172,155	29,090,180	168.98
Shensi	195,076	11,802,446	60.50
Kansu (inclusive of Ninghsia).	683,314	6,403,339	9.37

Note:—Population figures are for the year 1928.

North China's Position in China's National Finance

The importance of North China in the national financial structure of China largely derives from its position as a sources of maritime customs revenue. In 1934, the total national revenue from this source amounted to $315,500,000 of which the maritime customs in North China accounted for approximately $70,200,000 or 22% of the total. The figures for the respective customs offices were as follows.

Table 2. Figures for Customs Houses

Tientsin	$41,064,000
Tsingtao	22,313,000
Chefoo	5,407,000
Chinwangtao	1,438,000
Total for North China..	70,223,000

Note:—The figure for Tientsin includes those for Lungkou and Weihaiwei.

The port of Tientsin, with a gross revenue of over 41 million dollars, stood second only to Shanghai.

In the field of salt revenue North China occupies a position of scarcely less importance, especially the salt district in Hopei deing credited with a figure higher than any other individual salt administrative unit in the whole country. The gross National revenue from this source amounted in 1934 approximately for something like $42,900,000 or more than 23% of the total. In the revenue from the consolidated taxes, another of the three major sources of revenue, North China accounted in the same year for 13% of the total.

Industry

North China, on the whole, is very backward from the economic point of view. It lingers under feudalistic systems little changed since the centre of political life was transferred to the south in 1911, reducing the region to a position of secondary political importance scarcely above border provinces. In the field of financial and commercial activities, it lags far behind the central part of the country. Naturally, industry in this part of the country has made not little development. The only exceptional place is Tsingtao, where under German administration some foundation was laid for industrial activity, giving impetus, if to a limited extent, to local capital. Tsingtao also owes its growth to its geographic conditions favourable to industrial activity.

Far less favoured is the region of which Tientsin is the centre. While the seat of the national government was in Peiping the port of Tientsin formed a veritable gateway to the political and financial centre of the country; it was the main channel through which foreign capital found its way into the interior. The whole situation changed when the seat of the Government was transferred to Nanking. The situation, however, might have remained far better but for the geographic conditions of Tientsin and neighbourhood. Mention must be made, first of all, of the river Paiho, which has considerably hampered the growth of Tientsin as an open port. The river, silted with mud, is navigable only by vessels of light draught. Ocean-borne freight has often to be trans-shipped from Japan, Dairen, or Shanghai. Under these circumstances, the possibility of Tientsin as a commercial port is necessarily limited. What is more, the provinces forming the hinterland of Tientsin, viz., Szechuan, Tsinhai, Kansu, Shensi, Ninghsia, and the area even stretching out to Chinese Turkestan and Outer Mongolia, though extensive enough in area, are decidedly backward as compared with other provinces, and offer but limited possibility as markets for general merchandise.

Local Native Industry

Industrial development in this part of the country is more or less notable in those few lines which are locally provided with raw material, such as manufacturing of cement, soda, and carpets and rugs. The manufacture of cement is represented only by factories under native enterprise. The soda manufactories are mostly under Chinese enterprise, though some are being run by British interests. The carpet and rug manufacturing industry in which some American and Japanese capital has been invested is in large part carried on in the form of handicraft by Chinese. The cotton textile industry, though well distributed in North China, is still little developed beyond the stage of handicraft. Its importance is diminishing, if anything, through the steady inroad of manufactures produced under capitalistic systems.

Cotton Textile Industry

There are two distinct features of the industry; one is the rapid and steady expansion of Japan, chiefly based at Tsingtao; and the other, the tendency of Chinese industrialists to withdraw into the interior in the face of the growing competition of Japanese capital. The urban and suburban markets are being steadily encroached on by Japanese products. Additional handicaps are seen in high costs of transportation and distribution because of lack of facilities of transportation and manifold taxes adding to the costs. As these conditons serve the same purpose as tariff barriers against the in-coming goods, so they serve as effectively as protection for goods produced well back in the interior. For this reason, the native textile industry developed with a view, not to the urban, but to the provincial markets, or close to the sources of the raw material generally. The Hsian factories, in the province of Shensi, the municipal factory in Peiping and the Huifeng mill at Paoting, both in the province of Hopei, the cotton mills at Changte in the province of Honan, the Limin mill at Nansheng, Chia feng mill at Chiating, both in the province of Kiangsu all may be regarded as notable instances, in contrast with the Toyoda mills in Tsingtao and Japanese factories at Shanghai and Tunghsing.

The native industrialists have also been experiencing considerable difficulty on account of the rising price of silver. Increased exports of the metal resulted in low supply of credit facili-

ties and higher rates of money in the country. In addition to these financial conditions, the enhanced value of silver was also reflected in heavier imports of foreign manufactures and proportionate contraction in exports of native produce, resulting in steep falls in the market. Under these circumstances, mills at Tientsin as well as elsewhere in some instances, found it impossible to cope with this financial situation, or in others, found it expedient to turn over their management to foreign interests.

The cotton mills in Tientsin are placed under conditions such as are seen nowhere else in the country. In addition to the adverse factors mentioned above, the loss of the Manchurian market, the unsuitableness of Hopei cotton for fabrication, and the heavy debts by which the industrialists are mostly weighed down, must be mentioned as factors of no small significances. The Hengyuan mill had to be liquidated in 1934 on account of financial difficulty, and the Yu-yuang concern, operating three mills, was closed down in 1935 for kindred reasons.

Though in the same province of Hopei, the Huahsing mill at Tangshan, and the Tahsing mill at Shihkiachuang, thanks to their locations closer to the consuming markets and to the sources of the raw material, are found in better financial conditions.

The industry in the province of Shantung is divided between Tsinan and Tsingtao. The former is represented by four mills of which the Lufeng mill, equipped with 28,000 spindles, is the largest. Comparatively free from political or military disturbance, the mills in this part of the country have enjoyed unbroken prosperity. The production of these mills is approximately 53,600 bales per year, the same being consumed by the hand loom industry in the same locality as well as in the region of Hsuchou. The textile industry in Tsingtao is for the most part under Japanese enterprise. The only mill under Chinese enterprise is the Huahsing which was set up in 1922 with a capital stock of $2,700,000 and an annual capacity of 23,000 bales of yarn. The six mills under Japanese enterprise have an aggregate spindle number or 377,000 and an annual production of 132,500 bales of yarn and 2,922,000 pieces of cotton tissue.

In the interior, the industry has chiefly been developed in the two provinces of Shansi and Honan. In the former, there are three mills with an aggregate capital stock of $6,210,000 and 77,700 spindles. Under the official policy pursued to attain a self-sustaining position in clothing, the industry is expected farther to develop in this part of the country. The province of Honan is credited with four mills with capital stock of approximately $5,760,000 and 107,280 spindles.

Wool Yarn and Carpets

The wool yarn and carpet industry of China is practically concentrated in the region of Tientsin. The total production of wool in China is estimated to be in the neighborhood of 540,000 piculs, of which Tsinhai accounts for 163,000 piculs and Kansu for 80,000, the other wool producing provinces being Ninghsia, Chahar, and Shansi. Peiping and Tientsin are logical outlets for the product.

"Tientsin carpets" are produced in and about the city of Tientsin. There are two mills under American enterprise and five under native enterprise. In the boom period around 1923 there were in the region of Peiping and Tientsin as many as 600 wool and carpets factories, the latter city alone accounting for 530. In consequence of foreign competition, the above number has been reduced to 90 at Tientsin and 30 at Peiping. The exports of carpets from Tientsin are now estimated at less than $4,000,000 a year.

Recent declines in exports of Chinese wool have given rise to the tendency to turn the material to the manufacture in the interior of crude fabrics for daily use. Such an instance is the wool factory in Suiyuan, which has been under the management of the provincial government since December 1934. A similar official undertaking has also been set up in Ninghsia. The woolen mill at Hsipei in the province of Shansi, in operation since 1934 under official direction, is said to be one of the most successful among the industrial lines newly undertaken in the same province.

Flour Industry

The consumption of flour in China is almost entirely confined to North China. The production of wheat is also confined to the same part, the provinces of Honan, Shantung and Shansi being chief producers. The manufacture of flour in North China is concentrated in Tientsin and Tsinan.

In Tientsin the industry originated in 1915 when a company was organized under joint enterprise of Japanese and Chinese capital. During the war period there were added as many as 10 new factories. Most of these establishments were later forced out of business as a consequence of foreign competition, internal disorder, and financial difficulty. At present four mills remain in business. These mills are supplied with wheat mostly from Shantung, Hopei, Honan, some quantities also being taken from Shanghai and other places in Central China as well as from foreign sources. The total production of wheat is estimated at appproximately 8,000,000 bags of which 60% is consumed in Tientsin and 20% at Peiping, the remainder at places along the Tientsin-Pukow and Tientsin-Tangshan railway lines

The milling industry in Tsinan dates from 1913 when a factory was set up with a modest capital of $50,000. The field became over-crowded around 1921, generally bad business prevailing since. There are at present six mills in operation. The raw material is mainly supplied from Shantung, Honan, and Hopei.

In addition to the output by these native mills considerable foreign and internal sources are made to meet the requirements of the North China population. In 1929 the imports at Tientsin alone amounted to 5 million piculs. Increasing imports from Shanghai and corresponding declines in foreign flour are recent features of the trade.

Table 3. North China's Imports of Flour
(In piculs)

	Imports from Chinese sources		Imports from foreign countries	
	1932	1933	1932	1933
Tsinhuangtao	494,894	429,585	26,678	5,166
Tientsin	4,263,645	5,300,264	1,134,367	1,618,302
Lungkou	177,607	376,584	—	1,255
Yentai	392,353	438,799	31,341	31,266
Weihaiwei	41,560	91,260	2,960	2,094
Tsingtao	306,646	247,415	434,635	237,370

Chemical Industry

The chemical industry has been developed in North China with Tientsin and the region to the east as its centre. The salt supply of the Changlu district has formed a basis for the soda industry of considerable importance. Paints and cement are being produced on a fairly large scale. Paper manufacturing, extraction of oil, making of matches are other industrial lines of more or less importance.

In the field of the soda industry the factories in Tangku are most important with production of 350,000 metric tons of soda ash, 1,500 tons of caustic soda, 1,300 barrels of sodium silicate, 6,000 bags of dry soda.

Soda Exports of Tientsin

China exports soda to the amount of approximately $600,000 a year, most of which is accounted for by the port of Tientsin. The total exports for 1932 reached $280,000, of which Tientsin accounted for $270,000; of the total export value $550,000 for 1933 $540,000 was credited to Tientsin. As shown in the accompanying table, Japan is the best customer. Tientsin also has a growing import trade in soda and soda products, revealing tradal conditions common to all lines of Chinese industry. In 1933 the total imports of soda ash reached 80,000 piculs, valued at ¥380,000, caustic soda 10,000 piculs, valued at $70,000. In 1934 the former imports moved up to 84,000 quintals valued at $620,000 and the latter to 9,000 quintals valued at $120,000.

Table 4. Soda Exports of Tientsin

	1933		1934	
	Quantity Piculs	Value $	Quantity Quintals	Value $
French Indo-China	—	—	193	1,447
Hongkong	12,471	56,413	4,056	31,210
Japan	94,555	538,847	37,051	279,500
Straits Settlements	4,200	19,630	3,981	29,500
Kwantung Province	1,131	8,686	1,302	13,016
Great Britain	—	4	—	—
U. S. A.	2,520	11,778	—	—
Total	114,888	538,847	46,520	354,397

Sulphuric Acid Industry

The Lichung Sulphuric Factory, in operation since 1934, is the only industrial undertaking in this line. On the strength of tariff protection, the factory has been enjoying fairly good business, having practically put an end to imports through Tientsin.

Cement Industry

Of the seven cement factories now in operation in China, with a total production of some 4,200,000 barrels, two are found in North China, one of them being the largest undertaking in the whole country. The Chee Hsin Cement Works, placed at Tangshan in the province of Hopei, dates from the close of the last century, being originated under the enterprise of the Kaiping Mining Administration. After an unsuccessful career the company was turned over to a private Chinese interest in 1907. The company in 1914 took over the management of the Huachi factory with a rated capacity of 300,000 barrels, at Tayeh in the province of Hupei. The present factory at Tongshan, capitalized at $8,800,000, is the largest in the country, with an annual production of 1,600,000 barrels. The factory is locally supplied with the raw material.

The Chih Ching Cement Company at Tsinan, capitalized at $200,000, has an annual output of 90,000 barrels, which are locally consumed. In the province of Shansi a cement factory has been in operation under official enterprise since 1935, with a daily output of 400 barrels (each of 140 pounds). The same factory plans to increase its capacity to supply the product to the region of Peiping and Tientsin as well as in the direction of Hankow. The raw material is supplied from Chuyang within the province.

Match Industry

The match factories in North China number 160 in all. What with tariff protection and occasional dumpings of Russian produce, and expanding activity of foreign manufacturers within this part of the country, imports have been reduced to next to nothing. The industry is mainly concentrated at Tientsin, Tsinan and Tsingtao.

Japanese capital operates two factories at Tientsin with a combined daily output of 50 to 60 cases. Of a number of Chinese undertakings, formerly in existence, there now remains only the Tanhua company, capitalized at $1,000,000, operating a factory in Tientsin and another in Peiping. The former factory has a daily capacity of 60 cases (each of 1440 packages).

The match factories in Tsinan, Tsingtao and other places in the interior are estimated to be about 30 in number with a rated aggregate capacity of 200,000 tons a year. In Shansi 6 factories are in operation, though no detail is available. The largest undertaking in the province is the Hsipei Match Company which was set up in 1934 with a capital stock of $130,000 and a daily capacity of 20 cases. The company is to expand its production to 60 cases per day, by increasing its capital to $400,000, with the object of placing the province in a self-sufficient position. In the province of Honan there are some 10 factories with Kaifeng and Loyang as centres. Shensi and Kansu have also match factories of more or less importance, though no detail is known.

The growing match industry of North China is being reflected in increasing imports of the raw materials, which consist for the most part of timber from Japan, Russia and Manchuria, and some quantities of red and other phosphorus as well as other chemicals, which are chiefly supplied by Germany.

Paints and Coatings

The industry is confined to only sulphur black, paints and enamel. The black which is indispensable for dying Chinese tunics is in universal demand in the country. Despite the recessive trends of recent years, Tientsin alone imports the dyestuff to the amount of $800,000. Two factories are in operation under Japanese enterprise in Tientsin and one in Tsingtao. Indigo which is also in country-wide demand is sought entirely from foreign sources, Germany and Japan being chief suppliers.

The most important producer of enamel and paints is the Chung Kuo Yu Chi under purely native enterprise, with a nominal capital of $200,000. The list of products consists of 30 kinds, including paints and enamel. The Tung Fang Yu Chi, capitalized $5,000, is credited with annual output of some $40,000. The raw material used are sesame, nut and other oils all of native origin.

Japanese industrial Activity

While Tsingtao is the scene of Japanese industrial activity, there being a number of factories on a large scale, there is hardly a Japanese industrial undertaking of importance in any other part of North China. This situation is due to the unsettled political conditions of the region and also to the highly alkaline quality of water locally available for industrial purposes. The factories under Japanese enterprise, equally on a modest scale, are engaged in the manufacture of dyestuffs, nails, rubber goods, and matches. The association of Japanese manufacturers, formed in August 1934, consisted of 31 member companies.

MINERAL RESOURCES

Coal

The coal deposits of China are variously estimated at anything between a minimum of 21,200,000,000 tons and a maximum of 996,610,000,000 tons. Of the actual production the provinces of Hopei, Shansi, Honan, and Shantung are responsible for a major proportion. The miners engaged at the mines in operation number approximately 175,000, of which as many as 160,000 are found in these four provinces.

Table 5. Coal Production in North China

(In tons)

	1927	1930	1931
Hopei	5,182,379	7,363,721	7,660,025
Shantung	1,634,015	1,458,637	2,093,772
Shansi	1,777,766	2,204,618	2,266,334
Suiyuan	200,000	93,100	91,200
Honan	1,021,480	1,070,462	1,844,740
Chahar	130,000	102,360	114,500
Shensi	100,000	237,020	227,287

Coal in Hopei

The province of Hopei, with estimated deposits of 3,000 million tons, ranks 8th in the country in point or coal reserve. Mining is conducted on quite a large scale at Kailan and Chinghsing. The province produced in 1931 a total of 7,660,000 tons or approximately 40% of the total national production, exclusive of Manchuria.

There are registered 19 mining companies of which 9 are not operating. Among the operating organizations the Kailan Mining Administration in which British capital holds a controlling share is the largest, with a capital stock of £2,000,000 and an annual production of 5,205,000 tons. The second largest is the Chinghsing Mining Administration which is under joint enterprise of German capital and the provincial government, the latter holding shares to the amount of $3,750,000 or three-fourths of the total. The output for 1934 reached 753,444 tons.

The largest concern under native enterprise is the Shengcheng Feng Mining Company, capitalized at ¥6,600,000, which operates a mining area at Chinghsing with an annual production of 220,000 tons.

Japanese capital is only interested in the joint undertaking which owns the mine at Yangkiato, though the mine has suspended work some years, since.

Coal in Shansi

The coal reserves of Shansi are estimated at 127,100,000,000 tons or 51% of the total deposits of China, though the actual production in 1933 was 3,745,000 tons, being far less than that of Hopei. The mining is for the most part carried on in primitive ways. The Pao Chin Mining Company, operating four mining districts within the province, is by far the largest undertaking, having been capitalized at $2,863,000. The company produces 5 to 6 hundred thousand tons of coal a year or about 60% of the total output in the province. In consequence of the bad market condition, the company has suspended payment of interest on stock since some years ago. The First Northwestern Mining institution which was organized in 1933 as part of the local government's 10-year plan with a capital stock of $360,000, is at present producing 200 tons per day.

Coal in Shantung

The coal deposits in Shantung province are estimated at 3,071,000,000 tons. The companies capitalized above $100,000 number 9, of which four are in operation. The largest organization is the Chung Hsing Kung Ssu, with a capital stock of $10,000,000 and an annual output of 762,681 tons. The mining companies under joint enterprise of Japanese and Chinese capital number three of which one is out of operation. The two operating companies, both working at Liuchuan, have a combined capital stock of $4,000,000 and had an annual output of 629,500 tons in 1931.

In the districts of Liuchuan, Changluan, and Poshan the small-scale mines producing anything between 100 and 200 tons per day number 20 in all.

Coal in Honan

The coal deposits in the province are estimated at 6,624,000,000 tons. The Fu Kung Ssu under British enterprise is the largest organization, having a capital stock of £1,243,000 and an annual output of 700,000 tons. The Chung Yuan Mining Company, capitalized at $4,000,000, is the largest native undertaking, having an annual production of 525,607 tons in 1930. The second largest undertaking is the Lu Chuan Kou Mining Company, capitalized at $3,000,000 and producing something over 500,000 tons a year.

Coal in Other Provinces

In the provinces of Suiyuan and Chahar, credited with coal deposits of respectively 400 million and 500 million tons, the mining work is carried on only in small ways. In Shensi, with a deposit of 70,000 million tons, the industry remains unorganized, there being a negligible output of only 230,000 tons.

Iron in North China

No reliable information is available as to the iron deposits in China. The estimated reserves in the North China provinces are as shown in the accompanying table.

Table 6. Iron Deposits in North China

(In thousand tons)

	More reliable estimates	Other estimates	Total
Hopei	16,479	24,721	41,200
Shantung	14,200	——	14,200
Honan	2,020	2,000	4,020
Shansi	——	30,000	30,000
Chahar	45,645	46,000	91,645

In the province of Hopei the deposits at Ssukiaying, Changkiachuang, and vicinity are estimated to be some 32,000,000 tons, though in no instance has mining been undertaken as yet. In the province of Shantung the iron reserves at Shinlingchen near the boundary of the country of Hsincheng are owned by the Lu Ta Kung Ssu under joint enterprise of Chinese and Japanese capital, though work has been suspended for some time. In Honan haematite, containing a high percentage of iron is known to occur, though work has been suspended all along the line. In Shansi the Pao Chin Kung Ssu in the county of Pingting, capitalized at $700,000, produced for 1931 12,226 tons of ore and 5,560 tons of pig iron. The mines at Chincheng, Changchin, Kaoping, Hsihsien, Chuyang, Linhsien and others are equally operated in a primitive way.

The iron mines in Chahar are in large part owned by the Lung Yen Works which is under joint enterprise of official and private capital, with some Japanese capital also interested. The company, capitalized at $5,000,000, was placed in operation in 1918, though the work had to be suspended three months later for political and other reasons. In the province of Suiyuan no industrial undertaking has been attempted, though the ore occurs in the regions of Kuyang and Wuchuan.

Other Minerals

Gold, limestone, clay, manganese, all of unimportant quantities, are found in the province of Hopei. The only mineral of any importance is asbestos which is produced to the amount of 300,000 tons per year. Close to the boundary between Hopei and Shansi provinces manganese is said to occur, though no detail is known. In Shantung gold is being mined under the enterprise of the provincial government, though no information has been given out as to the results of operation.

Oil in Shensi

The only items of importance in this field is petroleum in occurrence in the province of Shensi. The reserves, according to some American engineers, are so enormous as to meet the needs of the whole world for 300 years. The veins are said to run in a straight line northward from Tungkuan to Yenan. The oil field now in operation at Yenchang is said to be only a small portion outlying in the northern portion close to the border of the province of Shansi. In 1934 the Ministry of Communications took active interest in operating these fields. The official undertaking was reported to have been rewarded with success, though nothing more has been heard of since. When it is recalled, however, that the Standard Oil Company, under its contract with the Chinese Government, went over the field in 1914 and met with unencouuraging results, the oil proposition of Shensi for the most part still remains problematical.

The oil concern now in operation at Yenchang under official enterprise is capitalized at 200,000 taels. It produced in 1929 1,127 barrels (each of 42 gallons), in 1930 1,094 barrels and in 1931 552 barrels. Because of relatively high transportation and other costs, the product is in little demand in other parts of the country.

Cotton Industry in North China

The annual production of cotton in China is on an average 9,000,000 piculs, of which 4,000,000 is consumed on the spot, and 1,000,000 exported. The requirements of the domestic mills amount to approximately 9 million piculs. Supply falls short of demand. Reduced production in the United States and higher tariffs have also served to stimulate native agriculture to give increasing attention to cotton cultivation. Another fact in this line of agriculture is that when the prices of farm produce fell below costs some years ago, cotton became one of the few profitable products, and as such has been attracting Chinese agriculturists, the growing of American species being found especially profitable. According to returns for the year 1933, while millet and wheat resulted in actual loss, and soya beans in a modest profit of $1.90 per unit of tillage, the native cotton netted a profit of $3.08 per unit and American species a profit of $7.90.

Cotton Production in North China

The latest available statistical data for cotton cultivation in North China are as in the table below:

Table 7. Figures for Cotton Cultivation in North China

	Closing estimates for 1934		Closing estimates for 1933	
	Acreage under cultivation Mow	Production of ginned cotton Piculs	Acreage under cultivation Mow	Production of ginned cotton Piculs
Hopei	7,807,442	2,836,127	6,121,971	1,444,012
Shantung	5,493,362	1,334,053	5,357,335	1,468,932
Shansi	1,796,771	601,096	1,310,761	502,412
Honan	4,091,771	1,022,357	3,707,637	816,650
Shensi	3,710,938	1,004,114	2,106,667	543,935
Total	22,900,284	6,797,747	18,604,371	4,777,841

Principal collecting and distributing markets for cotton in North China are Tientsin, Tsinan, and Chengchou. The first named city is at present a market almost exclusively for the cotton of Hopei, although formerly produce in Shensi and Shansi used also to find its way here. The product directed to the Tientsin market is mostly of coarse fibre which is in the main exported abroad, the finer fibre suitable for spinning being shipped out to Shanghai. Tsinan is an outlet for the product of Honan, Shantung, and Hopei. While a portion of such produce is consumed locally and at Tsingtao, no small part is shipped to Shanghai through Tsingtao. To Chengchou is shipped cotton from Honan, Shensi, and Shansi, and most of these shipments are again sent to the mills in Shanghai.

Native and American Species

In Shantung the native and American species are grown at the rate of respectively 40 and 60%, and in Hopei the former species at 70% and the latter 30%. The native cotton, because of its coarse fibre, is in little demand for spinning purposes. Japan's decreasing takings of ginned cotton in recent years have had serious effects on the market. The official policy pursued to encourage cotton cultivation as a means of effecting economic regeneration of rural cosmunities entirely discards the native species.

Export of Hopei Product

From a tradal point of view, the cotton of Hopei province occupies a peculiar position. Unlike the product of Shantung and some other provinces, which is either consumed on the spot or sent out to the mills at Shanghai, the cotton of Hopei which consists for the most part of the native species, though consumed on the spot to a degree, is exported in greater quantities, constituting in fact a major proportion of China's cotton exports. The cottons brought to the Tientsin market fall into the two brands of Hsi Chuan Mien (West River cotton) and Ya Chuan Mien (Imperial River Cotton). The former is produced in the basin of the five rivers which join at Tientsin to form the river Paiho, and make up the bulk of the Hopei production. This fibre, coarse and unfit for spinning, is used in mixed weaving with wool, and for making explosives, and in some instances, for yarns of medium counts. Japan and the United States are the best customers. The Yu Chuan Mien is produced mostly in Shantung and in some part in Honan along the canal region. Pure white like the other species, this fibre is softer, being from ½ to ⅝ of an inch and usable in mixed weaving and for making of coarser counts. The American cotton raised in Hopei is known as Tung Chuan Mien (East River Cotton) which is used for the making of counts from 32 to 42.

Tientsin has a progressively growing trade in raw cotton with other parts of China, as shown in the table below, Shanghai occupying a position of preeminence in this point. This situation strikingly contrasts with China's cotton export which, on the whole, is on the decline. The consumption in Tientsin reaches some 560,000 piculs, there being recessive trends due to the closing down of mills and reduced production. Under these circumstances, the cotton of Hopei must seek greater outlets in the south promoting the tradal dependence of the north on the south.

Table 8. Cotton Shipments from Tientsin to Other Chinese Ports

	Volume Piculs	Value $
1930.....	115,370	5,751,187
1931.....	162,672	8,870,504
1932.....	221,735	6,688,396
1933.....	293,262	12,447,367
1934.....	281,180	12,449,341

The declining export trade of cotton is due to excessive amounts of moisture and impurities contained in Chinese cotton and also to Japan's expanding use of Indian cotton as a substitute.

More recently, the high exchange of silver has also had visible effects on the outgoing trade.

Table 9. Tientsin's Cotton Exports

	Volume Piculs	Value $
1930	715,659	35,679,895
1931	706,089	37,752,829
1932	619,293	30,126,407
1933	456,956	19,801,947
1934	268,519	12.033,839

Tientsin's foreign trade in cotton, classified by countries, as indicated in the undergiven table, shows that the great bulk of the trade is with Japan. In 1919 Japanese purchases made up 98.8% of the total of 340,000 piculs, in 1924 84.5% of 280,000 piculs, and in 1926 78.5% of 610,000 piculs. The under-given table, presenting the returns of cotton exports by countries in more recent years, shows that Tientsin's outgoing trade is steadily falling off in all directions except Germany. This situation, due to the reasons such as mentioned above, will necessarily be met by an increased production of finer fibre at the cost of coarse native fibres which are falling in disfavour for the making of even medium counts.

It must also be noted that even in the case of finer fibres China's position is anything but secure or reassuring, so long as China's market is subject to the movement of prices in the United States, and to serious effects of the fluctuating exchanges of silver. The outcome of the official plan now pursued for the economic revival of the countryside through encouragement of cotton cultivation must be said uncertain as long as the product is exposed to hazards of an international character.

Table 10. Tientsin's Cotton Exports By Countries

(In piculs)

	1933	1934
Japan	305,781	213,268
U. S. A.	125,373	31,668
Germany	7,049	10,225
Britain	1,294	742
France	3.979	2,098
Others	13,480	10,518
Total	456,956	268,519

WHEAT AND OTHER AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS

Wheat

The production of wheat in China, according to official returns, is approximately 400,000,000 piculs the bulk of which is grown in Shantung, Honan, Hopei, Shansi. In Chahar and northwestern provinces wheat is in the main consumed on the spot. In Shansi and in the provinces to the east and the south the product above domestic requirements is offered on the market. In practice, however, the surplus grain is generally suffered to lie in storage in the interior on account of high costs of transportation, distribution and internal taxes on movement of merchandise. Foreign produce, coming into the country in increasing quantities under these circumstances, has been continually forcing down the price of native wheat. In North China the average price of $11.10 in 1930 dropped to $9.72, $9.01, and farther to $7.45 in the successive three years until in 1933 it registered a record low of $6.74. It is a feature of the trade in this part of the country that bad crops boost up the price temprorarily, only quickly to be forced down by the imported grain. Such being the state of trade, the price of wheat lingers at low points despite reduced production.

Table 11. Wheat Production in China

(In thousands piculs)

	1931	1932	1933
Shansi	16,540	20,110	23,230
Hopei	31,460	29,950	35,990
Shantung	68,450	67,390	68,320
Honan	60,480	60,890	66,440
Chahar	1,630	2,160	1,250
Suiyuan	2,790	4,050	2,310
Ninghsia	1,100	1,200	1,050
Kansu	14,840	12,530	13,200
Shensi	22,290	15,080	13,970
Others	192,620	197,150	176,600
Total	412,200	410,510	402,360

Other Cereals

North China is also a chief producer of such cereals as kaoliang, Indian corn, and millet. These products, being staple articles of daily food in the agricultural communities, seldom find their way abroad save under exceptional conditions. For instance, in the period 1934-35 millet and kaoliang were exported in fairly large quantities as chicken feed, the reason being the failure of crops in Manchuria. Excepting such uncommon development, the prices of wheat as well as other kinds of cereals as a rule are tending downwards.

Tobacco

Tobacco is produced in China to the amount of 5,400,000 piculs, of which a major portion is grown in Honan and Shantung. Shansi also grows tobacco, though its output is not above the point of self-sufficiency.

Beans

In consequence of the closing of the national market to Manchurian beans, there is growing production of soya beans in China, especially in North China provinces. The gross output of beans in China was 146,000,000 piculs in 1932, 160,600,000 piculs in 1933, and 129,900,000 piculs in 1934. If the present trend in northwestern provinces continues the beans of Manchuria are expected to be materially affected. At present the five provinces of North China, exclusive of Chahar, produce soya beans approximately to 45% of the total output of 145,346,000 piculs.

Linseed and Ground Nut

Of the seed group linseed is the most important product in North China. It is in demand as raw material for making linoleum and other industrial purposes. The provinces of Shansi, Suiyuan, Chahar and Ninghsia, the chief producing areas in the country, are credited with an annual production of 300,000 piculs.

While there is an output of walnuts of more or less importance in North China, the ground nut is the most important of this group from the commercial point of view. The province of Shantung dominates the field as producer, as shown in the table below:

Table 12. Production of Ground Nuts By Province

	Tillage acreage Thousands of Mow	Annual production Piculs
Honan	2,298	4,349,580
Shantung	4,076	12,541,570
Hopei	2,766	6,329,120
Shansi	67	253,530
Shensi	86	182,610
Others	8,363	20,168,030
Total	17,655	43,824,440

PASTORAL AND OTHER PRODUCTS

Hides & Skins

In the foreign trade of North China in general, and of Tientsin in particular, pastoral products constitutes the most important individual group of exports. In wool Tientsin's outgoing trade comprises a major proportion of China's whole trade in the same line. The principal products that pass through Tientsin for export are shown in the table below in relations to their respective totals for the whole country.

Table 13. Tientsin's Export Position in Pastoral Products, 1934

	Whole China	Tientsin
Goat hair	$ 649,580	$ 507,687
Camel hair	1,374,032	1,093,570
Sheep wool	12,263,904	10,939,939
Pigs bristles	15,127,155	3,985,668
Dog skins	901,560	881,381
Lamb furs	6,985,060	6,159,742
Marmot furs	223,811	194,477
Sheepskins	309,244	197,377
Other furs	939,139	374,322
Horse hides	429,146	413,443

Wool

Of the production of sheep's wool in China no accurate information is available. According to the returns of the Ministry of Commerce, the gross output for 1934 was 540,000 piculs, which was distributed as shown in the table below.

Table 14. Distribution of Sheep's Wool Production, 1934

	Piculs
Hopei	38,000
Szechuan	33,000
Shansi & Shensi	26,000
Shantung	20,000
Jehol	27,000
Ninghsia	20,000
Chinghai	166,000
Kansu	80,000
Suiyuan & Chahar	64,000
Outer Mongolia	52,000
Others	24,000
Total	540,000

According to the figures given out by the South Manchuria Railway Company, the total output of wool is estimated at 601,880 piculs, inclusive of 16,000 piculs for Manchuria, 15,000 piculs for Holumbuir, and 45,750 piculs for East Inner Mongolia. In the same estimate Chinghai is credited with 71,500 piculs, Sinkiang, Kansu and Shensi, combined, with 160,260 piculs, and the three provinces of Hopei, Shantung and Shansi with 55,320 piculs.

Chinese wool is as a rule coarse and of low commercial value. It is in demand for the making of carpets and cashmere. Tientsin is the most important collecting and distributing point in North China.

Table 15. Geographic Distribution of Tientsin's Wool Exports

	1933		1934	
	Volume Piculs	Value $	Volume Quintals	Value $
Belgium	40	2,478	551	54,511
France	85	7,851	22	2,672
Germany	1,661	98,902	4,004	319,199
Britain	976	55,764	1,097	98,351
Hongkong	9	594	—	—
Netherlands	—	—	3,954	262,179
Italy	74	9,240	93	9,182
Japan	856	51,205	2,267	214,464
U. S. A.	182,433	9,968,597	112,358	9,979,381
Total	186,134	10,194,631	125,346	10,939,939

Note: 1 quintal=1,654 piculs.

Camel's Hair

Tientsin is the most important collecting and distributing centre of camel's hair in the whole China. The product is brought to the port by two routes, eastern and western. The former route is followed by the product collected at Changchiakou from places in Inner Mongolia, while the latter is taken by the wool collected at Kueihua and Paotou. In addition, the product in the region of Yulin is first collected at Yutzu in the province of Shansi whence it is transported to Tientsin by the Peiping-Hankow line.

Table 16. Geographic Distribution of Tientsin's Exports of Camel's Hair

	1933		1934	
	Volume Piculs	Value $	Volume Quintals	Value $
Belgium	689	110,076	30	4,989
France	37	6,321	—	—
Germany	462	40,727	559	69,905
Britain	11,947	1,437,799	6,155	825,911
Hongkong	8	1,131	1	238
Italy	—	—	2	407
Japan	140	20,226	532	85,443
Netherlands	—	—	657	95,513
U. S. A.	399	24,719	657	95,513
Kwantung	6	912	11	2,166
Total	13,688	1,641,911	8,026	1,093,570

SALT INDUSTRY

Production in North China

There are four salt manufacturing plants in North China, all of which follow a new process of manufacturing from sea water. These companies, placed in Hopei and Shantung, have an aggregate capital stock of $6,220,000 and an annual production of 1,210,000 piculs.

The export of salt had always been prohibited in China until the time of the retrocession of Shantung to China by Japan, when a special arrangement was made to the effect that China may export salt to Japan between a maximum of 300,005,000 pounds and a minimum of 300 million pounds per year. In view of the rapid growth of her chemical industry, Japan will have to seek increasing supplies of salt from abroad. The province of Hopei, where natural conditions are most favourable for the manufacture of salt, will naturally receive attention as a source of salt to meet Japan's expanding demand.

JAPAN'S RIGHTS AND INTERESTS IN NORTH CHINA

Japan's industrial, commercial and financial career in China entered on a new era after her war with Russia in 1904-5 when she established her foothold in Manchuria. Japan entered on the second era during the period of the World War, when she shared the markets not only of China but the whole Far East with only the United States. As a consequence, Japan's total investment in China advanced from some 400 million yen in 1915 to more than 1,100 million yen in 1919. At the same time her loans to China gained the same levels as those of other countries. Under these circumstances, Japan offered increasing advances to finance the mining, railway and other projects with the result of stimulating the movement of industrial enterprise among the Chinese people; and Japanese merchandise followed in steady streams to win growing markets on the continent.

Japan's Investment

While no detail is available as to Japan's total investment in North China, it is commonly estimated to be something like 1,000 million yen. The Economist, (Osaka), in its issue of July 21, 1935, classifies the total sum under the three general heads as shown below.

Table 17. Japan's Investments in North China

(1) Loans

Financial loans	¥142,000,000
Communication loans	76,000,000
Railway loans	164,000,000
Military loans	103,000,000
Commercial loans	245,000,000
Total	730,000,000

(2) Investment in Native Enterprises

Shantung Province	¥140,000,000
Hopei "	43,000,000
Total	183,000,000

(3) Investment under Japanese Enterprise

Cotton textile industry in Tsingtao	¥ 50,000,000
Match, flour, warehouses, oil extraction, canning, etc., in Shantung	150,000,000
Investment at Tientsin by Oriental Development Co., tobacco, bone powder, refrigeration, match, fertilizer, leather	35,000,000
Yokohama Specie Bank, Ton Industrial, Industrial Bank, Furukawa Co., Mitsui Co., Mitsubishi Co., Okura Co., Chujitsu Jitsu-Gyo Co., in Peiping	7,000,000
Total	¥ 242,000,000
Grand Total	¥1,155,000,000

Concessions

In a broader sense, Japan holds concessions in North China at the three cities of Tientsin, Chefoo, and Tsinan, but, in a narrower sense, only at the first named city, since the concessions at the other places are shared with other powers. From the administrative point of view, the 1 Legation quarter in Peiping may be considered as a form of concession. Japan also holds commercial concessions, or the treaty rights to reside and carry on business, in the four places of Choutsun, Weihsien, Tsingtao, Chengchou.

Non-cession Territory

By virtue of the diplomatic correspondence exchanged between the Japanese Minister in Peking and the Chinese Foreign Minister in May, 1930, China is under no circumstance to "lease or cede" to a third party any place within the province of Shantung, or its coastal region, or islands in its neighbourhood. While this arrangement failed to win international recognition at the Washington Conference in 1923, the agreement nevertheless remains in force between the contracting countries.

Consulates & Consular Jurisdiction

Japan maintains in North China Consulates-General at Tientsin, Tsinan, Tsingtao; Consulates at Chefoo, Changchiakou; and consular branches at Fangtzu, Chantien, Poshan. The consulate in Tientsin was opened in 1875. By virtue of the treaty of commerce and navigation concluded in 1896 Japan instituted the consular police. By the same treaty and also by the treaty of peace concluded at Shimonoseki in the previous year, Japan acquired the right of consular jurisdiction in China.

Japanese Population in North China

The total number of Japanese people in North China was 18,318 on June 30, 1935. This number was distributed roughly as follows: Tientsin, 8,377; Shanhaikwan, 1,101; Tangshan, 663; Tsinhuangtao, 242; Peiping, 2,254; Tangku, 231; Tsingtao, 1,450; Chihfu, 300; Tsinan, 1,911; Changtien, Poshan, etc., 1,100; outside jurisdiction of Consulate at Tsinan, 700.

Japanese Garrison in North China

The Japanese garrison in this part of China dates from 1901 when in accordance with the final protocol relating to the Boxer uprising, Japan, in common with other powers, acquired the right to maintain bodies of troops in Tientsin, with small detachments on the various stations, between Peking and Shanhaikwan on those sectors of the Peking-Mukden Railway which provide direct communication between Peking and the sea, and also at the places necessary to guard the legation, consulates and Japanese residents. The garrison stationed at the time was some 2,600 strong.

The staff and equipment of the garrison before it was reenforced in 1935 was composed as follows:

Commander; officers, 100; non-commissioned officers, 1,889; machine-guns, light 153 and heavy 62; artillery, chase-guns 6; trench motors 12, mountain guns; 8, field-guns; 6, armoured cars, 2.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF NORTH CHINA

Essentials

Japan's loans and investment in North China, though amounting to huge sums, have been left in a state of uncertainty. She has failed to realize any returns except in a few cases; she has failed to recover capital, not to say interest. It would require more than mathematical skill or economic subtlety to make not a few forms of investment operative and profitable. It would call for political arrangement of no simple character to project a new life into those loans, by no means few in number, which have been left as "sunk in the mud." Nor is it to be doubted that Japan's economic and political moves in North China will in. no few instances be directed from those considerations.

However that may be, North China in essentials derives its importance from the fact that Hopei and Chahar occupy a position of strategic importance with regard to Manchuria. It is therefore important that this area should be cleared of military institutions and pledged to peaceful purposes. From the economic point of view, the value of North China must be enhanced to make it attractive to Japanese capital. Various institutions must be set up to raise the purchasing power of the people who are for the most part essentially agrarian. Technical aids must be given to agriculture. Mining activity must be encouraged on scientific lines. However, in directing all these efforts it would be futile to regard and treat North China as an entity isolated from, and independent of the rest of China. North China now is a vacuum in many respects. While Japan's political influence has been actively at play the stage has not been set for her economic activity in any direction. It is therefore urged that Japan should set up in North China central economic organ to function as the South Manchuria Railway Company has done in Manchuria. As a matter of fact, the need of such an institution seems to be emphasized in some section of the military; nor is it improbable that such an idea will assume definite form.

Laying Down Industrial Policy

However, this body of opinion is opposed by another to which, for one, Seiichi Kojima, a popular writer on economics, has given expression. He hardly thinks there is any occasion for institution of any composite, collective capitalistic organ. For the construction in North China of railways, roads, harbours, and undertakings of the sort may as well be left with the South Manchuria Railway Company. The work of coal mining and iron industry, on the other hand, may be placed under private enterprise; nor does the same economist think that conditions for such undertaking are necessarily so unattractive for private capital as have been pictured by some. A few years ago, he recalls, it was feared that the increased production of coal in Manchuria would flood the Japanese market with excessive imports. Today, however, the Fushun mine, though worked at full capacity, can not meet the demand within the country. In a period of rapid industrial expansion, a period on which Japan undoubtedly intends to embark in North China, one should take a more elastic view of the situation as regards demand and supply.

"In the development of Manchuria after our war with Russia," writes Kojima, "we had to wage political battles with the Chinese capital active in the field; and in order to combat the situation we had to create a grandiose composite economic organ like the South Manchuria Railway Company. In North China today there is no such political influence to be met. What is more, the economic power of Japan itself is far more developed, strengthened and intensified than it was a generation ago. There is no reason for setting up in North China any pretensious colonial organ after the pattern of the East India Company. On the contrary, the creation of such an institution would at once involve complications in the mater of securing and defining lines of control. From the point of view of placing new enterprises in North China in smooth and cooperative relations with the allied lines in Japan and Manchuria, and effecting capitalistic combinations on a good operative basis it would be better to develop in North China capitalistic combines in simple form for each individual line and let them be coordinated with the allied combines in Japan and Manchuria."

Recent developments.—It was significant that soon after a new administrative system was ushered into North China in 1935, Japan announced the establishment in Tientsin of a new concern by the name of Hsing Chung Kung Ssu as a subsidiary organ of the South Manchuria Railway Company. The new concern, it was announced, would be actively interested in the economic development of North China under altered political and military conditions. The organization, however, has remained to date as an unknown quantity, having shown no activity in any line.

It is indicated that one of the questions to receive Japan's early attention is the unification of the currency system in North China. The Bank of Chosen, the semi-official central banking institution of Korea, is contemplating to extend its operation to North China by placing its gold notes in circulation there.

More striking activity is to be noted in the field of the cotton industry in North China. The Kanegafuchi Company of Tokyo has bought out the Yue Tuen Cotton Spinning and Weaving Company of Tientsin, equipped with 72,000 spindles, and after general repairs, will place the plant in operation in September. The same Tokyo company has more recently purchased the Hua Hsing Spinning Company (spindles 32,000 (for a consideration of $1,200,000. The Toyo Cotton Spinning Company, of Osaka, has bought out the Yue Foong Ho Kee mill in Chenyuen, Honan province. The Tokwa Boseki Kaisha of Shanghai and the mills in Tsingtao under the management of the Dai Nippon and Fukushima companies are also reported to be launching ambitious plans in North China.

The Kanegafuchi Company, the most actively interested in North China, is building its plant at Changchiakou for the manufacture of woollen goods. The same company has also taken initial steps toward establishing its pulp factory near Shanhaikwan, using reeds growing in abundance in the region as raw material.

References: Tables 1—15 & 16—Researches of South Manchuria Railway Co. Table 17—Economist (published by the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun-sha).

SUPPLEMENT II

DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE

(FOREIGN AND JAPANESE)

The present directory or who's who in diplomatic and consular service does not cover the changes occuring after June 1, 1936.

FOREIGN EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS IN TOKYO

EMBASSIES:

Belgium—33, Shimoniban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 3556).
Ambassador—Baron de Bassompierre.
Secretary—Maurice Iweins d'Eeckhoutte.
Secretary-Interpreter—Ferdinand Buckens.

Brazil—2, 3-chome, Omote-cho, Akasaka-ku, (Tel. Aoyama 5668).
Ambassador—Leão Velloso.
1st Secretary—A. Moreira de Abreu.

China—14, 6-chome, Iigura-machi, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 81, 82).
Ambassador—Hsu Shih Ying.
Counsellor—Wang Pun-son.
Military Attache—Major-General S. S. Hsiao; Assist. Military Attache—Lt.-Colonel H. P. Chow; 2nd Secretaries—C. Sun, Dr. T. T. Mar, Y. C. Liu, H. S. Hsuan; 3rd Secretaries—T. S. Wen, C. Y. Shih; Attaches—S. S. Hsiao, L. T. Fu, H. P.Chow.

France—33, Fujimi-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Takanawa 90).
Ambassador Fernand Pila.
Counsellor—Jean-Baptiste Barbier.
Military Attache—Lt.-Col. Charles Emmanuel Mast.
Naval Attache—Captain de Vaisseau Joseph Rosati.
Air Attache—Wing-Commander Max Bruyere.
3rd Secretary—Baron James Baeyens; 1st Secretary-Interpreter—Georges Bonmarchand; Secretary-Archivist—François Guezennec; Second Secretary-Interpreter—D. Joly; Commercial Attache—Alfred Fischbacher.

Germany—14, 1-chome, Nagatacho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 2317, 2318, 3033).
Ambassador—Dr. Herbert von Dirksen.
Counsellor—Dr. W. Noebel.
Counsellor (of Legation)—Dr. H. Kolb.
Military Attache—Colonel E .Ott.
Naval Attache—Captain Wenneker.
Chancellor—H. Schultze; Commercial Secretary—W. Haas.

Great Britain—1, Goban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 2706 & 2707).
Ambassador—Sir Robert H. Clive.
Counsellor—W. B. Cunningham (absent).
Military Attache—Major-General F. S. G. Piggott.
Naval Attache—Captain H. B. Bawlings.
Air Attache—Wing-Commander R. W. Chapell.
Commercial Counsellor G. B. Sansom.
Commercial Secretary—H. A. Macrae.
Acting Commercial Secretary—R. L. Cowley.
2nd Secretary—H. R. Sawbridge; 3rd Secretary—G. W. Harrison; Assist. Naval Attache—Com. G. C. Ross; Acting 2nd Secretary—H. N. Brain; Student Interpreters—D. J. Cheke & J. A. Pilcher; Archivist—J. M. Tabor; Assistant Archivist—J. M. Clague; Naval Attache's Office—Lt.-Com. R. B. Leggatt (retired); Military Attache's Office—H. T. Langstone; Air Attache's Office—G. H. D. Bell; Commercial Attache's Office—M. Goss.

Italy—28, 1-chome, Mita, Shiba-ku. (Tel. Mita 1580 & 4060).
Ambassador—Giacinto Auriti.
Counsellor—Luigi Mariani.
Military & Air Attache—Lt.-Colonel Guglielmo Scalise.
Naval Attache—Captain Alberto Ghe.
1st Secretary—Livio Garbaccio; 1st Secretary-Interpreter—Almo G. Melkay.

Manchoukuo—50, Sakurada-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 7055).
Ambassador—Hsieh Chieh-shih.
Counsellors—Yu Ching-Yuan, Taizo Matsui.
Military Attache—Major-Gen. Tsao Ping-sen.
1st Secretary—Yeh Yao-kun; Commercial Secretaries—Kanichi Utsumi, Shinya Rokugo, Tadashi Nakao; Assist. Military Attache—Lt.-Colonel Y. F. Tao; 3rd Secretary—Yu Hsiao-lan; Chancellors—Masuo Maeyama, Tu Hsiao-chen, Soji Yamamoto, Keihachi Sakurai, Hsueh Ta-chang; Attache—Sun Tsuo.

Turkey—47, Kamiyama-cho, Shibuya-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 4520).
Ambassador—R. Husrev Gerede.
Military Attache—Major Rustu Erdelhun.
2nd Secretary—Dr. Nureddin Naci Akinci.

The United States of America—1, Enokizaka-machi, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 421, 422, 423, 424, 525, 1409).
Ambassador—Joseph Clark Grew.
Counsellor—Edwin L. Neville.
Military Attache—Major William C. Crane.
Naval Attache—Captain Fred F. Rogers. (absent)
Commercial Attache—Frank S. William. (absent)
1st Secretary—Erle R. Dickover; 2nd Secretaries—Edward S. Crocker & Cabot Coville; 3rd Secretaries—Morris N. Hughes, George D. Andrews; Assist. Military Attache—Captain John Weckerling; Assist. Naval Attache—Lt.-Commander Ethulbert Watts; Attaches—Gerald Warner & David Caldwell; Honorary Attache—J. Graham Parsons, Jr.

U. S. S. R.—1, Mamiana-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 138, 139).
Ambassador—Constantin Youreneff.
Commercial Counsellor Vladimir Kotchetoff.
Counsellor—Nicolas Rayvid.
Military Attache—Jean Rink.
Naval Attache—Alexandre Kovaleff.
1st Secretaries—Arcadii Askoff & Isaac Deitchman; 2nd Secretary—Jean Jourba & Jean Beloff; Assist. Military Attache—Paval Pavloff; Assist. Naval Attache—Konstantin Ganulich; Japanese Language Secretary—Mihail Andreeff; Attache—Ivan Volkov & Boris Rodoff & Guerasime Bouchinski.

LEGATIONS:

Afghanistan—7, Aoba-cho, Shibuya-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 5790).
Minister—Habibullah Khan Tarzi.
Secretary—Abdul Rauf Khan.

Argentina—67, Shinsaka-machi, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 3290).
Minister—Edvardo Racedo. (absent)
Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Arturo Alvarez Montenegro.

Canada—16, 3-chome, Omote-cho, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 2073).
Minister—Herbert Marler.
1st Secretary—James A. Langley.
2nd Secretary—Kenneth P. Kirkwood; Assist. Commercial Attache—A. Keith Doull, Theodor J. Monty; Attache—F. Mckee Irwin.

Chile—7, 1-chome, Shirokane-daimachi, Shiba-ku. (Tel. Takanawa 3141).
Minister—Martin Figueroa.
Counsellor, Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Sergio Montt.
Commercial Counsellor—Arturo Rose-Innes.

Colombia—Imperial Hotel, Uchiyamashita-cho, Kojimachi-ku.
Minister—Dr. Domingo Esguerra.

Cuba—11, Shinryoda-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 5840).
Counsellor, Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Dr. Americo Cruz y Fernandez.

Czechoslovakia—22, Kasumi-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 7004)
Minister—Frantisek Havlicek.

Denmark—8, Nakadori, Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Marunouchi 967)
Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Hugo Heygel (Counsellor).
Assistant Commercial Attache—Aage Henriksen. (absent)

Finland—62, Tansu-machi, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 205)
Minister—Hugo Valvanne.
Secretary-Archivist—Toivo Ilmari Kala.

Iran—55, Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 3010).
Minister—Mirza Bagher Azimi
Counsellor—Mirza Ahmad Khan Ardeshir.

Mexico—21, 2-chome, Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 4494, 4495).
Minister—General Francisco J. Aguilar.
1st Secretary—Juan Manuel Alcaraz Tornel.

Netherlands—1, Sakae-cho, Shibaku. (Tel. Shiba 3045, 130).
Minister—General J. C. Pabst. (absent)
Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Comte W. C. Van Rechteren Limpurg; Secretary-Interpreter—J. B. Snellin; Assist. Interpreter—Dr. R. H. van Gulik; Attache—Lieutenant Y. A. L Muller.

Norway—2, 3-chome, Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku. (Room No. 419, 4th Floor, Mitsubishi Building No. 21) (Tel. Marunouchi 3790).
Charge d'Affaires a. i.—Christian Prahl Reusch.

Peru—2, Hiroo-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Takanawa 4310).
Charge d'Affaires—Jorge Baily Lembeke
Military Attache—Commander Juan Mendoza

Poland—3, Hiroo-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Takanawa 2308).
Minister—Michel Mosciçki.

Military Attache–Commander Brevete Adam Przybylski.
Secretary–Jacek Trawinski; Chancellor–Marja Remiszewska.

Portugal–1, Sannen-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 1048).
Minister–Dr. Thomaz Ribeiro de Mello.
Secretary–Dr. Waldemar da Fonseca Araujo.

Rumania–55, Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 8024).
Charge d'Affaires–Georges G. Stoicesco.
Military, Naval & Air Attache–Lt.-Colonel G. Bagulesco.
2nd Secretary–Radu Flondor.

Siam–2, Dai-machi, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 4337).
Minister–Phra Mitrakarm Raksha.
3rd Secretary–Luang Ratanadeb; Attache–Arun Vichitrananda.

Spain–2, 1-chome, Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 451, 462).
Minister–Santiago Méndez de Vigo.
Charge d'Affaires a. i.–Juan Gomez de molina y Elio.

Sweden–63, Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 5770).
Minister–Dr. J. E. Hultman
Secretary–Ragnvale Bagge.
Interpreter–John Widenfelt.

Switzerland–1, Shimoniban-cho. Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 2302).
Minister–Walter Thurnheer.

Uruguay–Room Nos. 251-252, Osaka Building, 3, 1-chome, Uchisaiwai-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 2302).
Charge d'Affaires a. i.–Eduardo Daniel de Arteaga; Secretary (absent)

Argentina:

Kobe	Francisco Ortiz (C. G.)
Nagoya	Manpei Abe (H. V. C.)
Osaka	Shozo Murata (H. C.)
Tokyo	Ikuro Atsumi (H. C.)
Yokohama	Ricardo H. Aramburu (C.)

Austria:

Tokyo	Ernst Stoeri (H. C. G.) Dr. Otto Kresta (H. V. C.)

Belgium:

Dairen (Kwantung)	Josaku Furusawa (H. V. C.)
Keijo (Chosen)	Jiro Iwaya (H. C.)
Kobe	Henri Melchior (H. C.)
Nagasaki	J. Vachier (H. C.)
Osaka	Katsutaro Inabata (H. C.)
Yokonama	Adhemar Ronvaux (H. C.)

Bolivia:

Kobe	Gisaku Takikawa (H C.)
Osaka	Katsutaro Inabata (H. C.)
Yokohama	Tetsuro Ono (H. C. G.)
Tokyo	Dr. Juan Salinas de Lozada (C. G.)

Brazil:

Kobe	Oscar Correia (C. G.) Renato Carneiro da Cunha (V. C.) Egydio da Camara Souza (Aux. C.) Pedro Vicente Couto (H.V.C.) Ryuzo Tawara (Cousular Agent)
Nagasaki	Yutaka Ota (H. C.)
Yokohama	Raul Bopp (C.) Shozo Ishii (H. V. C.)

FOREIGN CONSULATES IN JAPAN

*Consulate-General; C.G.=Consul-General; C.=Consul; H.C.=Honorary Consul; V. C.=Vice-Consul; H. V. C.=Honorary Vice-Consul; Aux. C.=Auxiliary Consul.

Chile:

Kobe	Albert Meinhold (H. C.)
*Tokyo	Carlos de la Barra (C. G.)

China:

Fusan (Chosen)	Chen Tsu Kan (C.) S. Y. Chen (V. C.) Tsen Ting Kuin (Chancellor)
Gensan (Chosen)	Ma Yon Fa (V. C.) Hu Chi Chuan (Eleve C.) W. Y. Miao (Eleve C.)
*Keijo (Chosen)	H. S. Fan (C. G.) C. I. La (V. C.) Y. C. Su (V. C.) Wei Hsi Keng (Eleve)
*Kobe	R. C. Tseng (Eleve) Y. S. Chang (Eleve) H. Yu (Chancellor) H. P. Kiang (C. G.) H. L. Yang (V. C. in charge of Osaka Bureau) Ken Shang Ying (V. C. in charge of Nagoya Bureau) K. Y. Pang (V. C.) K. S. Sung (V. C.) Y. S, Ma. (Chancellor,)
Nagasaki	J. K. Fong (C.) T. M. Chow (V. C. in charge of Moji Bureau) T. C. Wang (Eleve C.) R. Y. Ruo (Chancellor)

Shingishu (Chosen)	C. W. King (C.) H. Chang (V. C.) N. S. Chang (Chancellor)
*Taihoku (Taiwan)	Y. M. Kuo (C. G.) W. C. Wang (V. C.) T. H. Chang (V. C.) M. K. Su (Eleve C.) W. T. Wong (Chancellor) Y. Chen (Chancellor)
*Yokohama	H. N. Wang (C. G.) M. S. Ling (C. in charge of Hakodate Bureau) S. Y. Cheng (C.) K. Y. Liu (V. C.) T. S. Choo (Eleve C.) Chen Li (Chancellor)

Colombia.

*Yokohama	Gregorio Armenta (C. G.)

Cuba:

*Kobe	Placido M. Dominguez y Romay (C. G.)
Tokyo	Carlos Gonzalez Peraza (V.C.)

Czechoslovakia:

Osaka	John Waelchli (H. C.)
Tokyo	Antonin Raymond (H. C.)
Yokohama	Sigmund Issacs (H. C.)

Denmark:

Kobe	R. W. Pearce (H. C.)
Nagasaki	C. O. Spamer (H. C.)
Osaka	R. W. Pearce (H. C.)
Tokyo	Aage Helborn Hansen (H. C.)
Yokohama	John Chester Goold (H. C.) (absent). J. F. Jordan (H. C.)

Dominique:

*Yokohama	German Soriano (C. G.)

Egypt:

Kobe	M. Fawzy (C.) (absent) Ahmed M. Farrgg (Chancellor)

Ecuador:

*Yokohama	Luis Alfonso Gallegos (C. G.)

Esthonia:

Dairen (Kwantung)	Alfred Ruthe (H. C.)

Finland:

Dairen (Kwantung)	Paul Pansing (H. V. C.)
Osaka & Kobe	Henrik Wilhelm Arvid Ouchterlony (H. C.)
Yokohama	Bertram Robert Berrick (H. C.)

France:

Dairen (Kwantung)	Pierre Crepin (C.) Felix Bryner (Consular Agent)
Keijo (Chosen)	Pierre Marcel Depeyre (C.)
Kobe	Armand Hauchecorne (C.) Camaly (V. C.)
Nagasaki	Vachiar (Consular Agent)
Tansui	(in charge of British Consulate at Tansui)
Yokohama	Louis Jules Reneé Jousset (C.) (absent) Robert de Fransueville (V. C.)

Germany:

Dairen (Kwantung)	Dr. E. Bischoff (C.) Benno Greiser (Secretary)
*Osaka	Dr. W. Wagner (C. G.) Dr. Hoops (Attache) W. Schmaltz (V. C.) R. Krueger (Chancellor) B. Schrobitz (Secretary) K. Schäfer (,,)
Yokohama	Dr. Crull (C. G.) D. Christians (Chancellor)

Great Britain:

Dairen (Kwantung)	R. Mcp. Austin (C.) A. W. R. Taylor (Clerical Officer)
Hakodate	Alfred George Denbigh (Consular Agent)
Jinsen (Chosen)	W. G. Bennett (Consular Agent)
*Keijo (Chosen)	G. H. Phipps (C. G.) J. R. Donaldson (Pro.Consul)
Kobe	A.R. Ovens (C. in charge) H. A. Graves (C.) F. S. Tomlinson (Acting C.) J. S. Waddell (Shipping Clerk)
Nagasaki	F. C. Greatrex (C.) H. H. Thomas (Acting C.) S. A. Ringer (H. V. C.)
*Osaka	Oswald White (C. G.) L. H. Whitall (Acting (C.)
Otaru	Stanley Howard Dawes (Consular Agent)
Shimonoseki	W. H Sainton (Acting Consular Agent)
Tansui (Taiwan)	C. H. Archer (C.)
Tokyo	W. J. Davies (C.) D. W. Kermode (C.)
*Yokohama	E. H. Holmes (C. G.) W. W. McVittie (Acting C.) W. J. Ham (Shipping Clerk)

Greece:

Kobe	Hamish Colin Macnaughton (H. C.) Douglas M. Young (H. V. C.)
Osaka	T. Yamada (H. C.)
Yokohama	John Harold Nancollis (H. C.)

Guatemala:

Kobe	Enrique Bayle (H. C.) (absent) J. Mustaros (H. C.)
Tokyo	Bunshiro Hattori (H. C.)
Yokohama	Tetsutaro Ono (H. C.)

Haiti:

Kobe	Friedrich Cords (H. C.)

Honduras:

Kobe	Wilhelm Bastel (H. C.)
Tokyo	Kei-ichi Ito (H. C. G.) (absent)
Yokohama	Tokugoro Tanabe (H. C.)

Italy:

Kobe	Bruno Michell (V. C.)
Nagasaki	F. C. Greatrex (Consular Agent)
Taihoku (Taiwan).	Arundel del Re (Consular Agent)
Yokohama	A. de Prospero (C.)

Jugoslavia:

Osaka	Ei-ichiro Uyeyama (H. C.) Kantaro Ueyama (H. V. C.)

Latvia:

Tokyo	Hans Hunter (H. C.)

Luxembourg:

*Tokyo	Kaichiro Imaizumi (H. C. G.)

Manchoukuo:

Moji	Sazo Idemitsu (H. C.)
Shingishu (Chosen)	Yuan Tao (V. C.) I. Miyoshi Chancellor) Wu Tso-Chin (Chancellor) Ma Hsueh-Yuan (Chancellor)

Mexico:

Kobe	David Latuf (H. C.)
Yokohama	Armand Amador (C.)

Norway:

Dairen (Kwantung)	G. I. Larkins (H. C.)
Kobe & Osaka	T. B. Gansmoe (H. C.)
Nagasaki	S. A. Ringer (H. C.)
Shimonoseki	W. H. Sainton (H. V. C.)
Tansui (Taiwan)	(in charge of the British Consul at Tansui)
*Tokyo	(in charge of the Legation at Tokyo) C. N. B. Aall (H. C.)
Yokohama	Fredrick William Foster (H. C.)

Netherlands:

Dairen (Kwantung)	W. H. Winning (H. V. C.)
Keijo (Chosen)	P. A. Plaisant (H. V. C.)
*Kobe	W. H. de Roos (in charge)
Nagasaki	H. H. Thomas (H. V. C.)
Nagoya	Sadazumi Ishihaaa (H. C. V.)
Shimonoseki	W. H. Sainton (H. V. C.)
Taihoku (Taiwan).	D. Lysons (H. C.)
Tokyo	G. J. Mulder (H. V. C.)
Yokohama	M. S. Wiersum (H. C.)

Panama:

Osaka	Ernesto Bellino (H. C.)
Yokohama	Julio E. Briceno (C.)

Paraguay:

*Kobe	Kazuo Fujimura (H. C. G.)
Tokyo	Robert Faulkner Moss (H. C.)

Peru:

Kobe	José Varela Arias (C.)
Yokohama	Humbrto Fernandez Davila (C.)

Poland:

Osaka	Katsutaro Inabata (H. C.) Taro Inabata (H. V. C.)
Tokyo	(in charge of Jacek Trawinski, Attache of the Polish Legation)
Yokohama	Toshijiro Watanabe (H. C.)

Portugal:

Kyoto	Katsutaro Inabata (H. V. C.)
Kobe	Francisco X. da Silva e Sousa (H. C.)
Moji	Horace Nutter (H. V. C.)
Nagasaki	S. A. Ringer (H. V. C.)
Nagoya	Jirozaimon Ito (H. V. C.)
Osaka	Taro Inabata (H. V. C.)
Shimonoseki	Horace Nutter (H. V. C.)
Tokyo	J. Abranches Pinto (H. C.)

Rumania:

*Osaka	Katsutaro Inabata (H. C. G.)

Salvador:

*Tokyo	Leon Siguenza (C. G.) Hachiro Asano (Consular Agent)

Siam:

Kobe	Mitsuzo Enami (H. C.)
Nagoya	Katsutaro Kato (H. C.)
Osaka	Isaburo Azumi (H. C.) Etsutaro Azumi (H. V. C.)
Yokohama	Takeo Kurata (H. C.)

Spain:

Kobe	Francisco del Castillo (C.) Pedro Surroca Blanch (H. V. C.)
Yokohama	Salvador Perez (H. V. C.)

Sweden:

Dairen (Kwantung)	W. H. Winning (H. C. G.)
Kobe	Ernest William James (H. C. G.)
Moji	W. H. Sainton (H. V. C.)
Nagasaki	F. E. Ringer (H. V. C.)
Osaka	Ernest William James (H. C. G.)
Shimonoseki	W. H. Sainton (H. V. C.)
Yokohama	G. B. T. Guston (H. C.) (absent)

Switzerland: (Consular affairs in charge of the Legation in Tokyo)

Turkey:

Tokyo	(Consular affairs in charge of the Turkish Embassy in Tokyo)
Osaka	Heibei Mori (H. C.)
Yokohama	Zen-ichiro Hara (H. C.)

U. S. A.:

Dairen (Kwantung)	Stuart E. Grummon (C.) John M. Allison (C.)
*Tokyo	Arthur Garrels (C. G.) J. Holbrook Champman (C.) Stanley G. Slavens (V. C.) Alvin T. Rowe (V. C.)
Kobe	Winthrop R. Scott (C.) Kenneth C. Krentz (C.) Frank A. Schuler (V. C.) Water P. McConaughy (V. C.) Leslie Gordon Mayer (V. C.) Otis W. Rhoades (V. C.)
Nagasaki	C. O. Spamer (C.) Glen W. Brunner (V. C.)
Nagoya	Charles H. Stephan (V. C.)
Keijo (Chosen)	William R. Landon (C.) (absent) Ralph Cory (V. C.)
Taihoku (Taiwan)	Edwards Maney (C.)
Yokohama	Richard F. Boyce (C.) Gregor C. Merrill (V. C.) Raymond P. Luddon (V. C.)

U. S. S. R.:

Dairen (Kwantung)	Israil Karas (C.)
Hakodate	
*Keijo	Yurii Maltseff (C. G.)
*Kobe	Peter Krauze (C. G.)
Otaru	
*Tokyo	Isaac Deitchman (C. G.) Georgü Schadrin (V. C.)
Tsuruga	(C.)

Uruguay:

Kobe	Yoshiteru Asai (H. C.)
Yokohama	Hiromu Yamanoi (H. C.)

Venezuela:

Kobe	Genji Kato (Consular Agent)
*Tokyo	Dr. Carlos Rodriguez Jimenez (C. G.) Takemaro Kobayashi (H. C.)
Yokohama	Takemaro Kobayashi (Consular Agent)

JAPANESE EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ABROAD

EMBASSIES:

Belgium (1, Boulevard General Jacques, Bruxelles, Belgique)
Ambassador—Saburo Kurusu (also Minister to Luxemburg)
Counsellor—Shin Sakuma (also 1st Secretary)
Military Attache—Colonel Y. Komota
Secretary (3rd)—M. Yoshitomi

Brazil (75, Rua Voluntarios da Patria, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil)
Ambassador—Setsuzo Sawada
Counsellor—J. Uchiyama
Naval Attache—Commander Y. Hanada
Secretaries (2nd)—S. Shibusawa, (3rd) F. Miura, K. Tazuki

France (24, Rue Greuze, Paris 16e., France)
Ambassador—Naotake Sato
Counsellor—Takanobu Mitani
Military Attache—Colonel Y. Komota
Naval Attache—Captain S. Yamada
Secretaries—(1st) Shinichi Chiba (absent); (2nd) F. Minoda, K. Nishimura

Germany (Berlin, W. 62, Ahornstr. I, Deutschland)
Ambassador—Viscount Kimitomo Mushakoji
Counsellor Kojiro Inouye
Military Attache—Colonel Hiroshi Oshima
Naval Attache—Commander H. Kojima
Secretaries—(1st) M. Morishima (absent), T. Yanagii (absent); (2nd) T. Masatani, T. Takatsu
Commercial Secretary—Alexander Nagai

Great Britain (37, Portman Sq., London, W. I., England)
Ambassador—Shigeru Yoshida
Counsellor—Keinosuke Fujii (absent)
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel E. Tatsumi
Naval Attache—Captain R. Fujita
Secretaries—(1st) T. Hachiya; (2nd) T. Terasaki; (3rd) M. Hasegawa
Commercial Counsellor—Shinjiro Matsuyama (also Consul-General); Odake (absent)

China (Peiping, China)
Ambassador—Shigeru Kawagoe
Counsellor—Kaname Wakasugi (also Shanghai Consul-General); Goro Morishima (absent)
Military Attache—Major-Gen. S. Kita
Naval Attache—Rear-Adm. Osamu Sato
Secretaries—(1st) Y. Suma (also Consul-General), Y. Muto (absent), D. Kato (absent), Y. Hanawa (absent); (3rd) N. Yoshioka (also Shanghai Consul), M. Matsumura (also Nanking Consul), M. Sone (Shanghai)—(absent), K. Okumura (also Consul), H. Terasaki (also Shanghai Cousul), K. Asami (also Shanghai Vice-Consul)
Commercial Counsellor—Mitsujiro Iwai (Shanghai)

Italy (Viale Regina Magherita 260, Rome, Italie)
Ambassador—Dr. Yotaro Sugimura
Counsellor—Jun Matsumiya
Secretaries—(3rd) T. Kudo, K. Ono
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel S. Arima
Naval Attache—Commander H. Hiraide

Manchoukuo (Hsinking, Kirin Province, Manchoukuo)
Ambassador—Gen. Kenkichi Ueda
Counsellor—Kazuro Moriya
Military Attache—Major-Gen. H. Imamura
Naval Attache—Captain Y. Suzuki
Secretaries (1st) S. Otaka, T. Miura, K. Yamamoto; (2nd) K. Hayashide; (3rd) H. Yoshida, S. Yuki, A. Oye

Turkey (Ayaz Pacha 77 Pera, Stamboul, Turquie)
Ambassador—Iyemasa Tokugawa (absent)
Counsellors—Katsutaro Miyazaki
Military Attache—Major T. Isomura
2nd Secretary O. Saito
Commercial Secretary—S. Moto

United States of America (2514 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C., U.S.A.)
Ambassador—Hiroshi Saito
Counsellor—Seijiro Yoshizawa
Military Attache—Colonel M. Hirata
Naval Attache—Captain K. Kobayashi
Secretaries—(2nd) K. Okazaki; (3rd) T. Hayama
Commercial Secretaries—Y. Shuto (absent), (Central & South America), T. Inouye (also Consul)

U. S. S. R. (Malaya Nikitskaya 13, Moscow, U. S. S. R.)
Ambassador—Tamekichi Ota
Counsellor—Hidekazu Sakoh
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel O. Kawamata
Naval Attache—Lieut.-Commander M. Kawabata
Secretaries—(1st) K. Sasaki, M. Shichida; (2nd) S. Shimada, S. Kase, I. Kameyama; (3rd) W. Miura
Commercial Secretary—K. Kawatani

LEGATIONS:

Afghanistan (Kaboul, Afghanistan)
Minister—Masamoto Kitada

Argentina, Paraguay & Uruguay (Calle Reconquista 336, Buenos Aires, La Argentina)
Minister—Jiro Yamazaki (absent)
1st Secretaries—Hirobumi Terajima (also Consul), Chibata Miyakoshi (also Consul absent)
Naval Attache—Lieut.-Commander Y. Hanada
Commercial Secretary—Meijiro Hara (absent)

Austria & Hungary (Kolbglasse I, Wien III, Ostreich)
Minister—Masayuki Tani
1st Secretary—Tsutomu Suwa; (3rd) Senpachi Tanaka (absent)

Canada (Victoria Bldg., 14 Wellington St., Ottawa, Ontario)
Minister—Sotomatsu Kato
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel Y. Hirota
Naval Attache—Captain T. Seno-o
2nd Secretary—I. Goto

Chile (also **Bolivia**) (552 Calle Dieciocho, Santiago)
Minister—Tetsuichiro Miyake
Naval Attache—Lieut.-Commander Y. Hanada
2nd Interpreter—E. Kawasaki

Colombia (Edificio de Banco de la Repubrica, 520-522, Bogota.)
Minister—Yoshio Iwate

Cuba (Ad. de Belgica entre Av. de los Aliados Y. Victoria, Altura de Almendares Havana, Cuba)
Minister—Hiroshi Saito (Ambassador in Washington)
2nd Secretary—Takaji Ito (Consul)

Czechoslovakia (Palace "Fenix" C. 60-62, Vaclavaske Namesti, Praha-11)
1st Secretary—Noboru Ogawa

Greece (also **Albania**) (23 Av., de la Reine Sophie, Athenes)
Minister—
1st Secretary—Nobuo Watanabe, Dr. Shigetomo Sayegusa (absent)

Iran (Av. Pahlavi, Teheran, Iran)
Minister—Takezo Okamoto
1st Interpreter—K. Izumi

Latvia (Tura Alunama iela 2 dz 2, Riga)
Minister—
1st Secretary Shin Sakuma
Military Attache—Lieut.-Colonel M. Onodera

Mexico (Avenida de Los Insurgentes 190, Mexico)
Minister—
Military Attache—Major T. Hamada
Naval Attache—Commander K. Hamanaka
2nd Secretary—Shinichiro Kawara (absent); 3rd Secretary Yashichi Otani (also Consul)
2nd Interpreter—M. Izawa

Netherlands (I, Guliana Vau Stolberglaan, Den Haag, Pays-Bas)
Minister—Toshihiko Taketomi (absent)
3rd Secretary—G. Yamaguchi

Peru (Av. Arequipa 610, Lima, Peru)
Minister—Yoshiharu Murakami, (absent)
2nd Secretary—N. Fujimura (also Consul)
2nd Interpreter—S. Hosokawa

Poland (Ulica Bronislawa Piarackiego 10, Voravovic, Poligne)
Minister—Dr. Nobufumi Ito

Military Attache—Major-Gen. S. Sawada
1st Secretary—Atsushi Kimura
2nd Secretary—Kyuichi Kano (absent)

Portugal (Praca do Rio de Janeiro 14, Lisboa, Portugal)
Minister—Dr. Akio Kasama
1st Secretary—Taneki Kumabe (absent), Motoichiro Omori (absent)

Rumania (also **Jugo-Slavia**) (33, Strada G. Gogu Constacuzino, Bucuresti, Roumanie)
Minister—Eisuke Fujita (absent)
Military Attache—Major-Gen. S. Sawada
2nd Secretary Rokuro Suzuki

Siam (545, Raja Prarob Road, Makasan, Bangkok)
Minister—Itaro Ishii (absent)
1st Secretary—Takashi Mori (also Consul General)
3rd Secretaries—T. Kasahara, S. Sano (Vice-Consul)
2nd Interpreter—R. Amada

Spain (87, Caille de Alcala, Madrid, Espana)
Minister—Makoto Yano
2nd Secretary Tei-ichiro Takaoka
2nd Interpreter—Minoru Takada

Sweden (also **Norway, Denmark & Finland**) (Strandvagen 25, Stockholm, Suede)
Minister—Toshio Shiratori
Secretaries (2nd) H. Ichikawa, Baron Keizo Fujii, (3rd) H. Yamaguchi (absent)

Switzerland (95, Thunstrasse, Berne, Suisse)
Minister—Masaaki Hotta (absent)
2nd Secretary—G. Inoue

Japanese Office for International Conferences (Geneve, Switzerland)
Director—Masaaki Hotta
Deputy Director—Masayuki Yokoyama
Commissioners—R. Kiuchi, M. Yugawa, M. Kanayama

JAPANESE CONSULATE-GENERALS ABROAD

London (1, Broad Street Place, Finsbury Circus, London, E. C. 2, England)
Consul-General—Shinjiro Matsuyama
Consuls—Sanjiro Hanawa, Chuzaburo Nakajima, Takeichi Nakano
Vice-Consul—M. Kinugawa

Hamburg (Hamburg, Alsterdamm 39, Europahaus. Deutschland)
Consul-General—Sentaro Yedo
Vice-Consul—O. Yoshimura

Geneva (Switzerland)
Consul-General—Masayuki Yokoyama
Consul—R. Kiuchi
Vice-Consul—M. Yugawa

U. S. S. R. (Asiatic Russia)

Vladivostok (24, Pekinskaya Ulitsa, Vladivostok)
Consul-General—Yujiro Sugishita
Vice-Consul—N. Hirooka

Alexandrovsk (3, Ulitsa Imeni Dzerzinskavo, Alexandrovsk, Sakhalin)
Consul-General—Seishuku Ogata

Habarovsk (54, Komsomolskaya Ulitsa, Habarovsk)
Consul-General—Masayasu Shimada

MACHOUKUO:

Harbin:
Consul-General—Shoshiro Sato
Consuls—Kaneyuki Akiyama, Kanroku Nagaoka
Vice-Consul—T. Taniguchi (absent), N. Teraoka

Hsinking:
Consul-General—Hiroshi Kawamura
Consuls—Sanjiro Hanawa, Chuzaburo Nakajima, Takeichi Nakano
Vice-Consul—M. Kinugawa

Chientao:
Consul-General—Kiyoshi Nagai
Consul—Isamu Shoji

Kirin:
Consul-Geueral—Shohei Morioka

Mukden:
Consul-General—Uzuhiko Usami
Consul—Toshiji Koizumi
Vice-Consuls—T. Sai, Hisayoshi Matsubara

CHINA:

Tientsin:
Consul-General—Kanjo Horiuchi
Consul—Nariyuki Murakami, Hajime Kishi, Katsuzo Okumura, Toru Ogiwara (absent)
Vice-Consul—N. Hara (absent), H. Tanaka (absent), J. Nagai, N. Nishida, T. Fujii (absent)

Tsingtao:
Consul-General—Haruhiko Nishi
Consuls—Masao Masui (absent), Suemitsu Kadowaki, Nagatoshi Osawa
Vice-Consul—Akiteru Michi

Tsinan:
Consul-General—Manabu Arino
Vice-Consul—Masayasu Hishimoto

Shanghai:
Consul-General—Kaname Wakasugi.

Consuls—H. Kitamura, J. Fukui, K. Shimokawa
Vice-Consuls—T. Saheki, J. Ikejiri, H. Kawaguchi, N. Tabata

Nanking:
Consul-General—Yakichiro Suma
Consul—Motoki Matsumura
Vice-Consuls—K. Asami, S. Shimada (absent), T. Hattori (absent)

Hankow:
Consul-General—Yoshiaki Miura
Vice-Consul—Kazuo Ikuta

Fuchow:
Consul-General—Goro Uchida

Canton:
Consul-General—Toyoichi Nakamura (absent)
Vice-Consul—Teiji Yoshitake

Hongkong:
Consul-General—Kosaku Mizusawa
Vice-Consul—Kyukichi Okamoto

Hanoi (76, Boulevard Carnot, Hanoi, Tonkin, Indochine)
Consul-General—Ushio Munemura

Singapore (Union Bldg., Colleyer Quay, Singapore, Straits-Settlements)
Consul-General—Ki-ichi Gunji
Consul—Sachio Sugita

Manila (G. de Las Reyes Bldg., Plaza Cervantes, Manila, P.I.)
Consul-General—Kiyoshi Uchiyama
Vice-Consul—Jitaro Kihara

Batavia (3, Gang Scott, Batavia, Java)
Consul-General—Yutaka Ishizawa
Vice-Consul—T. Odani

Calcutta (Royal Insurance Bldg., Dalhousie Sq., Calcutta, India)
Consul-General—Kikuji Yonezawa
Vice-Consul—Masaji Nonomura, Isoshi Asahi (absent)

Alexandria (7, Nebi Daniel, Alexandrie, Egypte)
Consul-General—Tokuji Amagi

Sydney (17, Castlereagh St., Sydney, New South Wales, Australia)
Consul-General—Kuramatsu Murai (absent)
Consul—Katsumi Shinno

Honolulu (1742, Nauuanu Av., Honolulu, Hawaii)
Consul-General—Teijiro Tamura (absent), Toyokichi Fukuma absent)
Vice-Consul—T. Yamazaki

San Francisco (Postal Telegraph Bldg., Battery St., San Francisco, Cal., U. S. A.)
Consul-General—Kanzo Shiozaki
Consul—K. Umase
Vice-Consul—Tetsujiro Kuwaori

New York (500 Fifth Av., New York City, N. Y., U. S. A.)
Consul-General—Renzo Sawada (absent)
Consuls—Masutaro Inouye, Toyoji Inouye

Mexico (c/o Japanese Legation, Mexico City) (in charge) Watanabe, Nagumo, Samejima

San Paulo (83, Av. Bringadeiro Luiz Antonio, San Paulo, Brazil)
Consul-General—Kozo Ichige
Consul—Masaki Yodokawa
Vice-Consuls—Keizo Hikikawa, Yasushi Naruse (absent)
Ribeirao Preto Branch (Rua General Osorio 112, Ribeirao Preto, Brazil)
Vice-Consul—Takeo Saito

JAPANESE CONSULATES ABROAD

(V.C.)—Vice-Consul

Belgium:
Anvers—T. Tamaki

England:
Liverpool—J. Noda

France:
Lyons—J. Tomoda
Marseilles—Y. Yamashita (V. C.)

Italy:
Milan—Chancellor R. Masaki (in charge)

Sweden:
Stockholm—Chancellor Sasamoto (in charge)

U. S. S. R.:
Odessa—M. Hirata
Blagovestchensk—S. Shimomura (V. C.)
Novosibirsk—Y. Koyanagi
Petropavrovsk—B. Tanaka (absent), S. Aburabashi (V. C.)

Manchoukuo:
Suifenho—Y. Okitsu (V. C.)
Manchouli—Y. Goto
Hailar—T. Yonaiyama
Tsitsihar—S. Tanaka
Chenchiatun—Y. Takiyama
Antung—H. Masutani, Y. Nakatsumi (V. C.)
Yingkow—T. Mimura (V. C.)
Chinchow—S. Shibazaki, M. Kubota (V. C.)
Chihfeng—H. Kurimoto (V. C.)
Chengteh—Oki Matsumura (V. C.)

China:
Changchiakow—N. Nakane (V. C.)
Chefoo—S. Tanaka
Hangchow—Y. Matsumura (V. C.)
Suchow—T. Kawanishi
Wuhu—K. Okabe, in charge
Kiukiang—Y. Shirai (absent)
Ichang—S. Tanaka
Changsha—S. Takai (V. C.)
Amoy—Y. Yamada, T. Mizumoto (V. C.)
Chungkiang—R. Kasuya
Shashi—M. Sonobe (in charge)
Swatow—S. Yamazaki
Yunnan—S. Kawanami

Philippines:
Davao—I. Shibata

Java:
Sourabaya—J. Aneha, N. Mizuta (V. C.) (absent)

Sumatra:
Medan—J. Arakawa (absent), K. Yonegaki

Siam:
Bangkok—S. Miyazaki, S. Sano (V. C.)

French Indo-China:
Saigon—S. Takasawa
Rangoon—T. Kaneko (V. C.)

India:
Bombay—M. Ishikawa, S. Mochizuki (V. C.)
Colombo—H. Otozu (absent), C. Harada (absent)

Egypt:
Port Said—M. Ohno (V. C.)

East Africa:
Mombassa—C. Mogaki

British South Africa:
Cape Town—T. Ota

U. S. A.
Los Angeles—K. Hori
Portland—K. Tsurumi
Seattle—I. Okamoto
Chicago—S. Iguchi
New Orleans—Y. Sato (V. C.)

Canada:
Vancouver—H. Nemichi, S. Shirokura (V. C.)
Ottawa—Chancellor Nakayama (in charge)

Cuba:
Havana—Ryuji Ito

Panama:
Panama—Tetsuo Umimoto, Yoriyoshi Saida (V C.) (absent)

Mexico:
Mazatran—Yashichi Otani

Peru:
Lima—N. Fujimura

Argentina:
Buenos Aires—H. Terajima, C. Miyakoshi

Brazil:
Rio de Janeiro—Shunichi Komine (V. C.)
Bauru—Suetake Hayao (absent)
Belem—Tomiya Kozeki (V. C.)

JAPANESE HONORARY CONSULS ABROAD

(*Consulate-General)

Albania:
Tirana—Alexandre Hobdari

Austria:
Vienna—Hans Carl Zimmermann

Belgium:
Liege—Armand Baar Magis

Bolivia:
Labas*—Victor Munoz Reyes (C. G.)
Trinidad—Samuel Avila Alvarado

Brazil:
Manaos—Aluysio de Araujo

Chile:
Iquique—Don Haracio Mujica

Colombia:
Bogota—Don Luis Carlos Corral

Denmark:
Copenhagen*—Henrik Gether (C. G.)

Dominica:
Cuidad Trujillo—Esteban Prieto Pëna

Ecuador:
Guayaquil—Pedro V. Miller

France:
Algier—Pierre Marie Auguste Ferrat
Beirut—Edouard Soubret
le Havre—Charles Francis Langstaff
Tunis—Jules Charles Prat
Dankirk—Jean Philippe Marie Sebaux
Casa Blanca (Morocco)—Albert Emile Henri Croze

Germany:
Bremen—F. H. Noltenius
Leipzig—Alfred Selter
Munchen*—Edouard Schussel (C. G.)
Stettin*—Arthur Kunstmann (C. G.)

Great Britain:
Adelaide (Australia)—Frank Lancelot Parsons
Brisbane (Australia)—Frederick Ewen Loxton
Broome (,,)—Arthur Male
Cardiff—Ronald Howard Evans
Dublin—James Bell Hollwey
Durban—William Robert Wright
Gibralter—W. H. Smith
Glasgow—Urquhart F. Burrell
Manchester—William Peer Groves
Melbourne (Australia)—David York Syme, P. J. Black (V. C.)
Middlesborough—Alfred William Bulmer
Valetta—Robert Howard
Wellington (New Zealand)—Norris Stephen Falla

Greece:
Salonika—Edwin N. Saltiel

Hungary
Budapest—Hollos Odön

Italy:
Genoa—Lionel Canali
Livorno—Comte Giorgio Chayes
Naples - Marquis de Compolattro, Charles Emile Capomazza
Venice—Giuseppe Fujinato

Jugoslavia:
Belgrade—Miloutine Stanoyevitsch

Luxembourg:
Luxemberg*—Jean Pierre Arendt (C. G.), Casimir Theisen (V. C.)

Netherlands:
Rotterdam*—Hendrik Pieter Van Vliet (C. G.)
Amsterdam—William Rehbock

Norway:
Oslo*—Arthur Hervich Mathiesen (C. G.)

Peru:
Trujillo—Carlos Larco Herrera
Arequipa—Francisco Gomez dé la Torre

Portugal:
Oporto—Ricardo Spratley

Spain:
Barcelona—Georges Delgado Lauger

Sweden:
Gothenburg—Tor Erland Johnson Broström

Switzerland:
Basel—Edouard Zellweger

U. S. A.:
Boston—Richard Ely Danielson
Galveston—J. H. Langben
Mobile—Henry H. Clarke
San Juan—Asisclo Marxuach

Venezuela:
Caracas—Santiago Sosa Gonzalez

Occupants of Leading Manchoukuo Government Posts, 1936

Minister of the Imperial Household .....Hsi Chia (熙洽)
Lord Keeper of Privy Seal .....Yuan Chin-kai (袁金鎧)
Chief Aide-de-Camp .....General Chang Hai-peng (張海鵬)
President, Privy Council .....Tsang Shih-i (臧式毅)
Vice-President, Privy Council .....Kumashichi Chikushi (筑紫熊七)
Member, ,, ,, ...Harumichi Tanabe (田邊治通)
Member, ,, ,, ...Tsueng Yun (曾 耘)
Member, ,, ,, ...Shichitaro Yada (矢田七太郎)
Member, ,, ,, ...Pao Hsi (寶 熙)
Member, ,, ,, ...Hu Ssu-yuan (胡嗣瑗)
Member, ,, ,, ...Shen Soue-ling (沈瑞麟)
Member, ,, ,, ...Jung Hou (榮厚)

State Council

Prime Minister .....Gen. Chang Ching-hui (張景惠)
Minister of Civil Affairs .....Lu Jung-huan (呂榮寰)
Minister of Foreign Affairs .....Chang Yen-ching (張燕卿)
Minister of Defence .....Gen. Yu Chi-shan (于芷山)
Minister of Finance .....Sun Chih-chang (孫其昌)
Minister of Industry .....Tinge Chien-chsiu (丁鑑修)
Minister of Communications .....Li Shao-keng (李紹庚)
Minister of Justice .....Feng Han-Ching (馮涵清)
Minister of Education .....Yuan Chen-tse (阮振擇)
Minister of Mongolia Administration ....Chi-mo-te-se-mu-pi-lo. (齊默特色木丕勒)
Director of General Affairs Board .....Shigeo Odachi (大達茂雄)
Vice Director of General Affairs Board ..Shoichi Kanki (神吉正一)
Director of Decorations Bureau .....Kazuo Fujiyama (藤山一雄)
Director of State Highways Bureau ....Rintaro Naoki (直木倫太郎)
Director of Capital Construction Bureau..Cheng Yu (鄭禹)

Supervisory Council

President .....Lo Chen-yu (羅振玉)
Chief Justice, Supreme Court .....Lin Chi (林 棨)
Chief, Supreme Procurator's Office .....Li pan (李 杞)

Diplomatic and Consular Service

Envoy to Japan .....Hsiéh Chieh-shih, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary (謝介石)
Consul at Blagoveschensk .....Chih pin (際彪)
Consul at Chita .....Li I-shun (李義順)
Consul at Shingishu .....Yuan Tao (袁 濤)
Honorary Consul at Moji .....Sazo Idemitsu (出光佐三)
Foreign Affairs Commissioner at Harbin..Shih Li-pen (施履本)*

Governors of Provinces

Fengtien Province .....Pao Kang (葆 康)
Kirin Province .....Li Ming-shu (李銘書)
Lungkiang Province .....Chin Pi-tung (金壁東)
Pinkiang Province .....Yen Chuan-fu (閻傳紱)
Chinchow Province .....Hsu Shao-ching (徐紹卿)
Antung Province .....Wang Tsu-tung (王玆棟)
Sankiang Province .....Ching Ming-shih (金名世)
Heiho Province .....Chuan Yu (鐘 毓)
Chientao Province .....Shoji Kanai (金井章次)
Jehol Province .....Liu Meng-kang (劉夢庚)
Hsingan East Province .....Eh Le-chun (額勒春)
Hsingan South Province .....Yeh-hsi-hai-shun (葉喜海順)
Hsingan West Province .....Cha-ko-erh (札喝爾)
Hsingan North Province .....Eh-lu-chin-Ba-tuh (額爾欽巴圖)

Mayors of Special Municipality

Hsinking Special Municipality .....Han Yuh-chieh (韓雲階)
Harbin Special Municipality .....Shih Li-pen (施履本)*

Officials of the Central Bank of Manchou

President .....Tetsusaburo Tanaka (田中鐵三郎)
Vice-President .....Tsai Yun-Sheng (蔡運升)
Directors .....Kikutaro Osawa (大澤菊太郎)
Jitsuta Nishioka (西岡實太)
Wang Fu-Chun (王富春)
Sun Yao Sung (孫耀宗)
Auditors .....Kan Chao-hsien (闞潮洗)
Tinge-Shih-yuan (丁士源)

Foreign Advisors or Counsellors

Counsellor, Dept. of Foreign Affairs ....Arthur H. F. Edwardes
Counsellor, Dept. of Foreign Affairs ....George Bronson Rea

* Those holding two or more posts concurrently.

DIAGRAMMATIC CHART OF ORGANIZATION OF MANCHOUKUO GOVERNMENT

- H.I.M. THE EMPEROR
  - Office of the Privy Seal
  - Board of Imperial Auditing
  - Imperial Household Department
    - Bureau of General Affairs
    - Bureau of Internal Affairs
    - Bureau of Imperial Stewards
    - Bureau of Ceremony
    - Bureau of Imperial Guards
    - Gentlemen-at-arms
  - Imperial House Law Code Committee
  - Privy Council
    - Secretariate
  - Supreme Military Council
  - Office of Aids-de-Camp
  - State Council
    - advisers
    - Legislative Council
      - Secretariate
      - General Affairs Board
      - Building Repair & Supply Bureau
      - Bureau of Decorations
      - Capital Construction Bureau
      - State Highways Bureau
      - Land-register Regulation Bureau
      - Continental Institute of Science
    - State Council Sessions
      - State Highways Board
      - Provisional Preparatory Committee for the Conclusion of Treaties
      - Debts Liquidation Committee
      - Government Buildings Planning Committee
      - Committee for the Investigation of Properties Taken over by The Central Bank of Manchou
      - Provisional Local Administrative System Investigation Committee
      - Committee on Decorations
      - Committee for the Investigation of Affairs Concerning Financial Aid to the Capital Construction Works and Compensation of Losses
      - Forestry Rights Investigation Committee
      - Imperial Palace building Preparatory Committee
      - Land System Investigation Commission
      - High Class Land Inspection Committee
      - Expropriation Inquiry Committee
  - Supervisory Council
    - General Affairs Bureau
    - Supervisory Bureau
    - Auditing Bureau
  - Supreme Court
    - High Courts — District Courts
    - Courts of Hsingan Provinces
  - Supreme Procurator's Office
    - High Procurator's Offices — District Procurator's Offices
    - Procurator's Offices of Hsingan Provinces
  - Department of Civil Affairs
    - Bureau of General Affairs
    - Bureau of Local Administration
    - Bureau of Development
    - Bureau of Police Affairs
    - Bureau of Public Works
    - Bureau of Public Health
      - Land Bureau
      - Metropolitan Police Board
      - Harbin Police Board
      - Central Police Academy
      - Infirmaries for Opium Addicts
      - Special Police Corps
      - Plague Inspection Offices
      - State Hospitals
      - Health Equipment Depot
      - Kirin Provincial Government
      - Lungkiang Provincial Government
      - Heiho Provincial Government
      - Sankiang Provincial Government
      - Pinkiang Provincial Government
      - Chientao Provincial Government
      - Antung Provincial Government
      - Fengtien Provincial Government
      - Chinchow Provincial Government
      - Jehol Provincial Government
      - Hsinking Special Municipal Office
      - Harbin Special Municipal Office
  - Department of Foreign Affairs
    - Bureau of General Affairs
    - Bureau of Commercial Affairs
    - Bureau of Political Affairs
    - Bureau of Information and Publicity
      - Office of the Foreign Affairs Commissioner for North Manchuria (Harbin)
      - Manchoukuo Legation in Japan (Tokyo)
        - Office of the Commercial Counsellor in Osaka
        - Educational Affairs Office
      - Consulates (Blagovestchensk, Chita, Shingishu)
      - Office of the Honorary Consul (Moji)
      - Local F.A. Offices (Dairen, Antung, Yingkow, Shanhaikwan, Suifenho, Manchouli, Tumen, Heiho, Kupeikow)
  - Department of Defence
    - Horse Administration Bureau
      - State Stud-Farms
      - State Race Courses
    - Intelligence Department
    - Bureau of General Staff
    - Bureau of Military Supplies
      - First Army District Headquarters
      - Second Army District Headquarters
      - Third Army District Headquarters
      - Fourth Army District Headquarters
      - Fifth Army District Headquarters
      - West Hsingan Garrison Headquarters
      - South Hsingan Garrison Headquarters
      - East Hsingan Garrison Headquarters
      - North Hsingan Garrison Headquarters
      - Central Military Academy
      - Gendarmes Training School
      - Hsingan Military Academy
      - Independent First Motor Corps
      - Army Clothing Depot
      - Arsenal
      - Metropolitan Gendarmerie Headquarters
      - Chingan Army Headquarters
      - Regimental Headquarters of Imperial Guards
      - Hsinking Military Band
      - Headquarters of the River Patrol Fleet
      - Central Military Publicity Committee
      - Military Surgeons School
  - Department of Finance
    - Bureau of General Affairs
    - Bureau of Revenue
    - Bureau of Finance
      - Revenue Inspectorates
      - Customs Houses
      - Saltpetre and Nitrate Bureau
      - Match Monopoly Bureau
      - Opium Monopoly Preparatory Committee
      - Ki-Hei Salt Transportation Office
      - General Monopoly Bureau
      - Salt Administration Office
      - Land Superintendence Office
  - Department of Industry
    - Bureau of General Affairs
    - Bureau of Agricultural Affairs
    - Bureau of Forestry
    - Bureau of Mining
    - Bureau of Industry and Commerce
      - Patents Bureau
      - Central Observatory
      - Agricultural Experimental Farms
      - Forestry Offices
      - Weights and Measures Bureau
      - Yingkow Aquatic Products Bureau
      - Mining Inspectorates
      - Provisional Industrial Research Bureau
      - Sheep Breeding Firm
      - Wild Silk Cocooneries
  - Department of Communications
    - Bureau of General Affairs
    - Bureau of Transportation
    - Bureau of Posts
      - Navigation Bureau
      - Postal Affairs Superintendence Bureaux
      - Post Offices
  - Department of Justice
    - Bureau of General Affairs
    - Bureau of Civil Affairs
    - Bureau of Criminal Affairs
    - Bureau of Penal Administration
      - Law School
      - Judicial Officer Election Committee
      - Prisons
  - Department of Education
    - Bureau of General Affairs
    - Bureau of Educational Affairs
    - Bureau of Rites and Religions
      - Text-Books Compilation Committee
      - Teachers Training School
      - Higher Normal School
      - Higher Agricultural School
  - Department of Mongolia Administration
    - Bureau of General Affairs
    - Bureau of Civil Administration
    - Bureau of Industrial Development
      - West Hsingan Provincial Government
      - South Hsingan Provincial Government
      - East Hsingan Provincial Government
      - North Hsingan Provincial Government

Standing: Aug., 1936.

WEIGHTS, MEASURES AND MONEYS

(MANCHOUKUO)

Measures

Length

1 hao (毫)	$=\frac{1}{10,000}$ chih (尺)	$=\frac{1}{30,000}$ meter
1 li (釐)	$=\frac{1}{1,000}$ chih (尺)	$=\frac{1}{3,000}$ meter
1 fen (分)	$=\frac{1}{100}$ chih (尺)	$=\frac{1}{300}$ meter
1 tsun (寸)	$=\frac{1}{10}$ chih (尺)	$=\frac{1}{30}$ meter
1 chih (尺)		$=\frac{1}{3}$ meter
1 chang (丈)	=10 chih (尺).	$=3\frac{1}{3}$ meters
1 pi (引)	=100 chih (尺)	$=33\frac{1}{3}$ meters
1 li (里)	=1,500 chih (尺)	=500 meters

Area

1 kung (弓)	=25 sq. chih (尺)	$=2\frac{7}{9}$ sq. meters
1 hao (毫)	$=\frac{1}{1,000}$ mu (畝)	=1 sq. meter
1 li (釐)	$=\frac{1}{100}$ mu (畝)	=10 sq. meters
1 fen (分)	$=\frac{1}{10}$ mu (畝)	=100 sq. meters
1 mu (畝)	=9,000 sq. chih (尺)	=1,000 sq. meters
1 tien (天)	=10 mu (畝)	=10,000 sq. meters
1 ching (頃)	=100 mu (畝)	=100,000 sq. meters

Quantity

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

Weights

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

Moneys

10 li (厘) =1 fen (分)

10 fen (分) =1 chiao (角)

10 chiao (角)=1 yuan (圓) (23.91 grs. of Pure Silver)

M. ¥ 1.00=G. ¥ 1.00 (Japan) (September, 1935)

= $ 0.2903 (U.S.) („ „)

=1 s. 2.098d. („ „)

Coins

5 li (厘) (Copper).....Weight 2.5 grammes
(Copper 95%, Tin 4%, Zinc 1%)

1 fen (分) (Copper).....Weight 3.5 grammes
(Copper 95%, Tin 4%, Zinc 1%)

5 fen (分) (Nickel).....Weight 2 grammes
(Nickel 25%, Copper 75%)

1 chiao (角) (Nickel).....Weight 3 grammes
(Nickel 25%, Copper 75%)

Notes

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

CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY & GEOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The Empire of Manchoukuo, roughly speaking, is a country forming the northeastern littorals of the Asiatic continent, running from the Gulf of Pohai in the south to the more or less mountainous regions in the north marked off by the long stream of the Amur. In the west, beyond the long sweeping range of the Greater Hsingans the country trails off into the sands of Mongolia, and in the east, is walled in by the Changpaishan range which runs along the Korean border, reaching far up behind the Maritime Province. It is a country somewhat larger than twice the area of Dutch Borneo and about equal to those of New South Wales and New Zealand combined, inhabited by a population estimated at something like 31 millions or approximately corresponding to that of Poland.

The Hsingan mountain range forms a natural boundary on the western side. Between this range and the Changpaishan range in the southeast, one running in parallel to the other, there lie extensive plains under tillage or forests. This level land is crossed by a number of streams navigable to great distances.

Manchoukuo, except in the limited parts which were early opened to outside intercourse, still remains unexplored or unsurveyed. Facts and figures are often found wanting at this stage. No little part of information available at present as to the geography of the new empire will undoubtedly have to be later corrected or revised in the light of progress which is being made in all phases of her national life. However, in so far as possible, the official and other authentic information and figures have been taken as a basis for the present chapter.

PHYSIOGRAPHIC DIVISIONS

Manchoukuo falls into the following physiographic divisions:—

1. **The Great Central Plain of North & South Manchuria.**—An extensive level land forming the basin of Manchuria. It extends from the shore of the Gulf of Liaotung in the south to the regions bordering on the rivers Nonni and Sungari in the north. To these regions the Japanese have given the nomenclatures of North and South Manchuria, though such division has been a matter of more or less conjecture in some points. The line of demarcation, according to the Japanese geographers, is a mountain range which rises between Hsinking (Changchun), the Capital of the Empire, and Kungchuling in the south and runs westwards almost in a straight line somewhat beyond Taonan. This range, rising nowhere higher than 330 metres and scarcely perceptible to ordinary travellers on the railway, forms a climatic and faunal line of division. The rivers on its southern side flow southwards, contributing to the Liao river which eventually empties into the Gulf of Liaotung, while the streams on its northern side follow the opposite direction to flow into the Nonni and Sungari.

South Manchuria or the country lying south of the above line of division, quite open to the sea in the south, has heavier rainfall, rains being more abundant farther in the interior towards Hsinking. North Manchuria or the country on the northern side of the divisional line is much drier, except in small portions in the east and those close to the eastern side of the Hsingan mountains.

The plain of South Manchuria is traversed by the river Liao which has its origins in the mountains of Jehol. Where this river is joined by the streams of the west or Hsi Liao and Huangho on the west and by the east or Tung Liao on the other side there lie great fertile plains which, because of their agricultural possibilities and other favourable conditions, became the birthplace and centre of the earliest civilization of Manchuria, Liaoyang, the Capital of ancient Manchuria, being situated approximately at the centre. Yingkow at the mouth of the Liao had for many ages been the only and the most important commercial port of the country until its trade was diverted to Dairen. Tungliao or Chengchiatun, where, as its name indicates a Hun tribe obtained a concession about a century ago from the Mongol king, developed into the commercial centre of trade with eastern

Mongolia and remained a brisk mart until the railway deprived it of its bean trade. The river Hunho which joins the Liao near Niuchuangcheng, because of its shipping facilities, gave birth to the industrial city of Mukden. Hsinking, an ancient city situated farther up the river, was chosen by the founder of the Manchu dynasty for the site of his government until it was transferred to Peking.

The extensive plain region formed by the main and tributary streams of the Sungari and the Nonni, coming down, through the virgin country of north Manchuria, is marked by the city of Harbin, for many years the centre of commercial activity in this part of the country, and the growing cities of Tsitsihar in the north and that of Fuyu in the south. These regions have always been known as the granary of Manchuria.

2. **Forest Zone of the Northeast and East.**—A U-shaped stretch of wooded country which begins with the Hsiao or Little Hsingan range in the north and runs in a southeasterly direction along the Amur, taking in the major portions of Kirin Province and the eastern parts of Fengtien, finally joining the Changpaishan mountains of the Korean border. This wooded mountainous zone forms the watershed of the Sungari in the northeast and those of the rivers Tumen and Yalu in the southeast. The regions along the converging streams of the Nonni which spring on the southern side of the Hsiao Hsingan mountains are notably marked with by the presence of soil containing abundant sodium, a condition which has prevented agricultural activity in these parts. The sections in the east and southeast, accessible to many streams, have since old days been the source of timber supplies to not only south Manchuria and north China but to Inner Mongolia as well.

3. **Dry Area of the Northwest.**—A far sweeping line of level country lying on the west side of the Ta or Great Hsingan mountains, taking in part of Jehol. The entire region forms a pasture land. The city of Hailar is the centre of cattle raising which is about the sole industrial activity of the whole land. Except the growing intimacy of its relations with North China, Chahar and Outer Mongolia, the importance of this part of Manchoukuo will chiefly be confined to certain lines of agricultural work which still remain to be developed.

4. **Forest Zone of the North.**—The wooded mountainous region which extends on the west from the northern parts of the Great Hsingan system to the Little Hsingans on the east, embracing extensive areas along the river Amur. Though unexplored for the most part, the timber resources of this region alone are said to surpass those of the islands of Saghalien and Hokkaido combined. The construction of the railway running through the country to Heiho, facing the Russian city of Blagoveschensk, will go a long way toward opening the virgin forests which are also said to guard rich gold veins at not a few places.

Boundaries

Manchoukuo is composed (1) of what were formerly known as the Three Eastern Provinces, i.e., Liaoning also known as Fengtien, Kirin and Heilungkiang, (2) of the province of Jehol which with Chahar formerly formed eastern Inner Mongolia, and also (3) of what was created in the earlier days of Manchoukuo as the province of Hsingan out of part of Liaoning and Heilungkiang and which has since the end of 1934 been divided into four administrative sections.

The territory of the Empire of Manchoukuo extends from the Kwantung Leased Territory, which rises at the southern extremity in 38° 43′, to the river Amur, reaching into 53° 30′ North Latitude. The farthest point of Manchoukuo's western boundary lies in 115° 20′ East Longitude while the eastern end runs to 135° 20′ East Longitude, marked by the confluence of the Amur and Ussuri rivers.

Area

The area of Manchoukuo which had long been a matter of more or less conjecture, was officially announced on March 25, 1935, for the first time in the history of the country, though the figures in more than one case are given out in the form of advance estimates. The area of the Empire according to the different administrative districts, including the railway zone under Japanese jurisdiction, are as follows:—

Table 1. Area

Province	Sq. Km.	Sq. Li
Kirin	89,910.352	359,641.408
Lungkiang	125,536.551	502,146.204
Heiho	109,813.005	439,252.020
Sankiang	107,544.608	430,178.432
Pinkiang	143,425.463	573,701.852
Chientao	29,394.896	117,579.584
Antung	48,225.735	192,902.940
Fengtien	85,546.224	342,184.896
Chinchow	39,461.643	157,846.572
Jehol	96,585.470	386,341.880
Hsinking Special City	191.000	764.000
Harbin Special City	929.500	3,718.000
North Manchuria Special District	1,147.167	4,588.668
West Hsingan	80,410.552	321,642.208
South Hsingan	79,021.515	316,086.060
East Hsingan	106,751.007	427,004.028
North Hsingan	160,396.731	641,582.924
Total	1,303,143.252	5,212,573.008

MOUNTAINS

The most prominent mountains are the Hsingan Mountains which are composed of the following three systems:—

Great Hsingan:—The Great Hsingan Mountains form a natural border of Inner Mongolia extending from the Wutaishan mountains bordering the northern side of the Yellow River to the western region of Heilungkiang, separated from the Yablonoi and Stanovoi mountains by the river Amur. These long mountainous ranges are for the most part gently rising ground, seldom rising higher than 2,000 metres, though 200 kilometres wide at some points.

Among the more prominent peaks are Soyuluchi, Boktokhol and Yaku, all of which, however, fall below the height of two thousand metres.

Ilihuli.—The Ilihuli Mountains begin where Mount Ilihuli forms a right angle with the northern extremities of the Great Haingans, close to the northern border. Thence these mountains run down along the curving stream of the Amur losing themselves in the Little Hsingans. The highest peak, lying westwards of Heiho, is known as Erhkoshan, a volcano about 600 metres high. In the southeastern part of this system is the dormant volcano Uyunkholdongi, well known to geographers.

Little Hsingan.—The Little Hsingan Mountains begin in the neighbourhood of Uyunkholdongi and run in an eastern direction. This mountain range, nowhere rising above 1,200 metres, presents the general appearance of wooded plateaus, rising out of the marshy low plains. These mountains form the watershed of the branching streams of the rivers Amur and Sungari in these parts of North Manchuria.

Changpaishan.—The Changpaishan Mountains are a far stretching system running in parallel to the Great Hsingans, from the Korean border to the coast of Ussuri Province. The southern section branches off into another system forming the backbone of the Liaotung Peninsula. The middle section forms the watershed of the Tumen and Mutankiang, running northwards, and the Sungari and Yalu running westwards and southwards respectively. Except the highest peak, Peitushan, 2,744 metres high and lying in the middle part, the mountains are below two thousand metres in height, presenting rather features of extensive wooded plateaus. The northern portions branch off into the ranges known respectively by the names of Laoyehling, and Laochangkuangtsailing, which reach as far north as the mountainous range of Huantashan. Among the more familiar peaks of those forming the ridge of the Liaotung peninsula are Fenghuangshan and Motienling of more or less historic interest, and Chienshan and Tahoshangshan often mentioned because of their scenic attraction.

The watershed of the Liaoho and Heilungkiang, forming a natural line of division between North and South Manchuria, is a line of gently sloping ground running from Mount Changpaishan in a northwesterly direction until it reaches the eastern slope of the Great Hsingans. The whole divide extends over a distance of more than 800 kilometres, though it seldom rises more than 250 metres in height.

Yinshan.—The Yinshan Mountains join the southwestern end of the Great Hsingans in the west and decline to the plains of the Liao river in the east. The peaks of this system are generally high and marked with sharp declivities and rocky features, forming defiles and glens at many places. The two ranges, branching off in a northensterly direction, parallel to one another, are known respectively as the Lengyuan and Sungtsen ranges.

Volcanoes.—In addition to those already mentioned the following are recorded: Shater, 123° 37′ E. L. and 49° 47′ N. L.; "Kankui" named by Mr. Niiobi of the South Manchuria Railway, 124° 35′ E. L. 49° 38′ N. L.; Koronan 125° 14′ E. L. 49° 14′ N. L. These volcanoes, though prominent for topographical reasons, are not high, assuming in most cases the form of a cinder cone.

Plains and Steppes.—The plains of Manchuria, roughly speaking, extend over the great basin formed by the mountain ranges on the east and the west sides. The plain of North Manchuria, lying north of the divide running from east to west below Hsinking (Changchun) and drained by both Nonni and Sungari, are generally formed of alluvial deposits, with grass-covered, sandy ground at places. The soil is suitable for growth of beans and wheat.

The plain south of the above divide is drained by the river Liaoho and its tributaries. This part of the country is somewhat lower in comparison with the area on the other side of the

divide and is of diluvial formation with occasional occurrences of alluvial deposits mixed at places with loess. The southern portion of these central plains is suitable for cultivation of beans and kaoliang.

These eastern slopes of the Great Hsingan mountains, in which the Liaoho, Heilungkiang, Nonni and Sungari have each their origins, form extensive steppes good for cattle breeding.

RIVERS

The rivers of Manchoukuo fall into two systems, the one representing those streams which flow in northerly or northeasterly directions to empty into the Japan Sea; and the other those which run in a southwesterly direction to flow into either the Sea of Pohai or the Sea of Pechihli. Among the first group are to be noted Amur, Sungari, Nonni and Tumen. The second group includes Liaoho, Yalu and Talingho. What may be noted as characteristic of all the Manchoukuo rivers is that their waters are turbid, containing a considerable amount of mud or sand, and that their lower courses are marked with many turns and bends.

Heilungkiang (Amur):—The Heilungkiang or black Dragon river in Chinese, better known abroad by the Russian name Amur, forms the northern boundary of Manchoukuo. This river, the upper reaches of which are known as the river Argun, has its origin on the western side of the northern extremities of the Great Hsingans. Later joined by the river Onon, the Amur runs in an easterly direction, forming gorges through the Hsingan mountains until it receives the waters of the Sungari and Ussuri rivers. At this point the Amur turns northwards and empties into the Sea of Tartary, north of Nikolaevsk. The total length of the Amur is roughly estimated at some 4,000 kilometres of which three-quarters drain Manchoukuo soil. The navigable distance is about 2,000 kilometres. The river begins to freeze up during the first three weeks of November, and the thawing sets in between the close of April and the early part of May, free navigation being possible for not more than 155 to 200 days in the year.

Sunghuakiang (Sungari).—The Sunghuakiang or more popularly known by the Russian name Sungari, forming the biggest tributary of the Amur, rises in the northwestern part of Mount Paitoushan and, passing by the city of Kirin in its northerly course, flows through the central plain, until it is joined by the Nonni near Fuyu. Making a turn here in an easterly direction, it goes on to form the boundary between Heilungkiang and Kirin Provinces as far as Ilan or Sanhsing, where it receives the waters of the Mutankiang. Thence following a northerly course and passing by the city of Harbin, the Sungari joins the Amur at Tungkiang or Lahasusu. The total length is something more than 2,000 kilometres. The river drains for the most part what is known as the granary of North Manchuria.

The Sungari, from its natural features, may be divided into four sections; (1) from the upper reaches to the city of Kirin, 595 kilometres; (2) from Kirin to the Nonni, 392 kilometres; (3) from the Nonni to Harbin, 245 kilometres; (4) from Harbin to the Amur, 695 kilometres. The first course, because of many shoals and rapids, is negligible from the point of view of shipping, being open to navigation only by flat bottomed river boats. The section between Kirin, which is the terminal point for ordinary shipping, and the Nonni is navigable by steamers of light draught. The course between the confluence with the Nonni and Harbin is 250 to 850 metres broad and 7 feet deep, though there are frequent shoals where the depth is not more than 3 to 4 feet. The river extends near Harbin to a width of one kilometre, though it falls off to less than 500 metres broad in the low water season. The course between Harbin and the Mutankiang, though abounding in shoals alternating with deep pools, are quite possible for navigation by steamships of more than 1,000 tons. The deeper parts range from 7 to 14 feet, some places being even as many as 30 feet deep. The last course between the confluence with the Mutankiang and that with the Amur offer better conditions of navigation, the depth ranging from 5 to 20 feet. The watercourse in this part is from 200 to 300 metres broad. The Sungari is frozen for six months of winter, the section around Harbin freezing between the close of October and the middle of the next month. The thawing in this part begins on April 1st and lasts to the middle of the same month. The lower section around Lahasusu is seldom freed from ice before the end of April. The Sungari, generally speaking, is open to navigation for 200 to 210 days in the year.

Nenkiang (Nonni).—The Nonni originates in the Ilihulishan mountains and runs down southwards, draining the northwestern regions of North Manchuria. Receiving the waters of many tributaries on its course, it passes through the regions of Mokhen (Nenkiang) and Tsitsihar until it is farther on

joined by the river Taorho, in the west. Thence the stream goes on in a southeastern direction and flows into the Sungari. The total length of the river is given as some 800 kilometres. Though shipping has seen but little development upon the Nonni or its tributaries, the course between Tsitsihar and the Sungari, a distance of 450 kilometres, offers good conditions of navigation, there being about 30 metres of water along the central water course. The section between Tsitsihar and Mokhen, though 150 to 420 metres broad and quite deep, is being availed of only by sailing boats at present. The Nonni is closed to shipping by ice from the first week of November to the early part of April of the following year.

Tumenkiang.—The Tumenkiang or the river Tumen springs from the eastern side of Paitoushan and flows northwards, swelling on its way with the tributary waters of Korea and Kirin. Northeast of Yenki, of Chientao, the river makes a sharp turn in a southeasterly direction and flows into the Sea of Japan, south of Possiet Bay. The Tumen whose total length is estimated at something like 300 kilometres, forms for the most part the boundary between the Korean peninsula and the southeastern region of Manchoukuo, and that between Korea and Soviet Russia towards its end. Despite its length, the Tumen is navigable only about a distance of 95 kilometres from its mouth up to the confluence with the river Hunchun. The river is frozen from the middle of November to the end of March.

Yalu.—The Yalu rises on the southern side of Mount Paitoushan and follows a northwesterly course as far as Linchiang where it turns southwards, forming the boundary between Korea and Manchuria. Joined by the Hunho and later by the Aiho, both coming down the Manchurian plain, the main stream empties below Antung into the Yellow Sea forming extensive deltas at its mouth. The total length is given as upwards of 790 kilometres. Though navigable up to Antung, a distance of 28 kilometres, the watercourse is narrow and featured by many bends making navigation both difficult and dangerous.

Liaoho.—The Liaoho is composed of two streams, the Hsiliaoho whose upper reaches are known as Shiramuren rising on the eastern slopes of the Hsingan range in Jehol, and the Tungliaoho originating on the western side of Mount Saghalyan of the Changpaishan system. The western stream, absorbing a number of tributaries of more or less size, flows in a northeastern direction until it is joined by the eastern stream near Sanchiangkou, or below Chengchiatun, to swell into a watercourse of considerable magnitude. From that point the river follows a southern course receiving the confluent streams of Tatzuho and Hunho, finally emptying below Yingkow into the Bay of Liaotung. The total length of the Liaoho, taking the longer course of the western Liaoho, is about 2,540 kilometres. The river is navigable by small boats up to Chengchiatun, a distance of about 880 kilometres. The presence of silting sand at its mouth considerably deprives it of its value as a watercourse. The river is frozen for four months of winter.

Talingho.—The Talingho rises in the Sungling mountains east of Chienping, Jehol, and, joined by a number of tributaries on its southeastern course, flows into the Bay of Liaotung eastwards of Chinchow. The total length is about 500 kilometres.

Luanho.—The Luanho originates on the western side of the Yinshan range in Jehol and flowing in a southeasterly direction close by the city of Jehol, passes into Chinese territory eventually to empty into the Sea of Pohai. The length of the river is some 400 kilometres.

Mutankiang.—The Mutankiang, also known as Ningtaho, second in size only to the Nonni among the tributaries of the Sungari, rises on the northern slope of the Changpaishan range and flows northwards until it joins the Sungari near Sanhsing beyond the North Manchuria Railway line. The river forms on its way Lake Chingpo, also known as Lake Pirton. The length of the river is some 475 kilometres. While the stream is suitable for flowing down rafts, it is not navigable because of its swift currents and rocky bottom. The river is frozen from the close of November to the middle part of April.

Hulanho.—The Hulanho is a slow moving stream running down the southern slopes of the Folun mountains and joins the Sungari just below the city of Harbin. The length of the stream is about 375 kilometres. With 3 to 8 feet of water under ordinary conditions, the river is navigable up to Hulan by steamboats of 3 to 3.5 feet draught. It is closed to traffic by ice from November to April.

Ussuri.—The Ussulikiang or Ussuri river has its sources, on the Manchurian side, in the northern parts of the Changpaoshan range. Joining the Mulingho, it flows into the confluent waters coming down northward by the town of Iman.

From that point onward the Ussuri forms the boundary between Manchoukuo and the Maritime Province of Soviet Union, until it eventually flows into the Amur near Habarovsk. The total length of the river is estimated at 905 kilometres, including the longest tributary of Hula. With its water seldom falling below four feet and usually rising to 15 feet in the high water season, the river is navigable by ships of four feet draught. On its tributaries Mulingho and Naoli there is heavy traffic of small steamboats and junks. The Ussulikiang is closed by ice from the middle of November to the middle of April.

LAKES

Two types of lakes occur in Manchuria; the one is an ordinary permanent lake of fresh or salt water; and the other, what is called a lake of playa type, which is dessicated in the dry season. Of the latter sort the most conspicuous instance is Tabusu-nor, a round shaped lake about 8 kilometres in diameter, lying 95 kilometres southeast of Taonan. When dry, the lake appears white with the heavy deposits of salt.

Among the permanent lakes the largest is Lake Hsingkai or Hanka the northern portion of which belongs to Manchoukuo and the southern portion to the Soviet Union. It measures about 90 kilometres from north to south and 50 kilometres from east to west.

Lake Tapaku or Lesser Hanka lies north of Hsingkai with which it is joined by a river. Its circumference is about 60 English miles.

Lake Chingpo or Pirton lies on the upper course of the Mutankiang, about 50 kilometres south of Ninguta, Kirin Province. It is about 40 kilometres from north to south and 8 kilometres from east to west. The northern part is called North Lake and the southern part South Lake.

Dalai-nor, also known as Lake Hulun, lies in the western part of Hsingan Province, south of Manchouli. It measures about 40 kilometres in length and 8 kilometres in width.

Lake Bail-nor (Buir-nor) is a salt water lake lying south of Dalai-nor and half as large in its water area. These two lakes are joined by the Urson river.

Yuehliangpao is a lake about five English miles in circumference, lying north of Talai and connected with the Nonni river. The lake abounds in fish.

COASTLINE

The coastline of Manchoukuo, extending from the mouth of the Yalu river to Shanhaikwan, where the Great Wall comes down to the sea, is marked with few harbours or bays. The total coastline is no more than 700 kilometres, slightly more than one eleventh of the total outline of the country. The coast of the Yellow Sea runs almost in a straight line from northeast to southwest. Because of the existence along the whole line of shoals from 2 to 6 kilometres broad, the waters are shallow and offer little shipping facilities. The coast line of the Pohai Sea, however, is longer and more irregular in its contour, providing harbours of more or less value, amongst which may be mentioned Yingkow on the Liaoho and Hulutao on Lienshan Bay.

HARBOURS

The most important is Dairen, known in the late nineteenth century as Victoria Bay and later as Dalny under Russian administration on the eastern side of the Liaotung peninsula, 20 miles northeast of Port Arthur. Protected by land on three sides, the harbour is open on the east, with the island Erhtaohsu lying off the entrance. The harbour is provided with breakwaters eight in number and extending in all over more than 4,000 metres, and the water within the breakwater covers an area of upwards of 3,100,000 square metres. The depth of the water within the harbour is 8 to 11 metres at the southern end of the Liaotung peinsula berthing at a time 37 steamships of 5,000 tons. While the harbour is not free from ice between December and February, the sea routes are kept open by means of ice-breakers.

Port Arthur.—Port Arthur is a land-locked harbour situated at the southern end of the Liaotung peninsula and the only port in Manchoukuo that is free from ice all winter. As its Chinese name Liushun—available travel route—indicates, it was known from ancient times as the landing place for those proceeding into the interior of Manchuria. Fortified first under the Manchu dynasty, and later leased by Russia and next by Japan, it remained as a naval base under the administration of the Japanese navy until in 1927 it was made a commercial port in a full sense of the term.

The eastern section of the harbour, having a depth of 8 to 9 metres, is taken as a naval base. The western portion, known as Western Harbour, is open to commercial shipping; but shoals are frequent in that part. The only anchorage available for steamers measures but 430 metres wide and 1,280 metres deep, though its water of 9 metres easily harbours steamships of 6,000 tons. The section used for junks is 2 to 4 metres deep.

Hulutao.—Hulutao is a piece of land projecting into the sea of Lienshan Bay, approachable by a railway, about 12 kilometres long, branching off at Lienshan station, 33 miles west of Chinchou. The water is deep and free from ice all the year round. The harbour construction scheme was originally conceived and undertaken by the Chinese authorities to provide a rival port of Dairen. After repeated abortive attempts to carry out the scheme, the Mukden authorities concluded in January, 1930, a construction contract with the Netherlands Harbour Construction Company for 6,400,000 gold dollars. The work was begun in July of the same year, but had to be stopped in September of the next on account of the Manchurian Incident While the Manchoukuo Government is said to be in favour of continuing the harbour work of Hulutao, the construction so far made consists of a breakwater of about 500 feet long, running out into the sea from east to west. Steamships anchor about 300 yards off the breakwater, the loading and unloading of cargo being done by junks and lighters.

Yingkow.—Yingkow Harbour, situated at the mouth of the river Liaoho, was established in 1861 when the British Consulate was transferred here from the old port town of Neuchuang, some 60 Chinese miles farther up the river, one of the first five ports opened by the Tientsin treaty concluded in 1858 between China and Great Britain. The harbour had grown since then to be the busiest port of South Manchuria until Dairen, under Japanese lease began to take away its trade through its better facilities and equipment as a commercial port. Although the section used for mooring steamships is about 13,500 metres in length, the quay for berthing ocean going craft is no more than 4,486 metres long. The section outside the harbour is used exclusively by junks.

The depth of the river Liaoho is constantly changing on account of the sand washed down by the stream. At the entrance to the harbour there are extensive sand bars where the water is no more than 8 to 9 feet deep at low tide. The river within the harbour is on an average 750 metres wide, though it narrows to about 560 metres around the wharf of the South Manchuria Railway. The depth within the harbour is from 20 to 33 feet at low tide, the deepest portions being as many as 50 to 70 feet deep. The harbour is practically closed by ice from the middle of December to the latter part of March.

Antung.—Antung, which is among all Manchuria harbours the most important as a shipping port for timber, is situated 25 miles above Hsintao at the mouth of the Yalu River. The water around Antung is 1,000 to 1,500 metres wide and 3.7 metres deep at low tide. The steamships entering Antung are limited to tonnages below 7 to 8 hundred. The lower reaches where the water is about 10 feet at low tide are used as the anchorage for vessels of 1,200 or more tons. Between Antung and Hsintao and Santaolang steam launches and lighters are operated. The port of Antung is closed to traffic by ice during the four months of winter.

Geology of Manchoukuo

Although considerable light has been thrown upon the geology of Manchuria and Mongolia during the last century, the available information is still, for the most part, either fragmentary or local. In so far as this field of science is concerned, the whole country of Manchoukuo remains a matter of more or less conjecture. Generally speaking, the land of central Manchuria and Mongolia is marked by the presence of rocky formations of high antiquity and by the frequent occurrences of very recent rocks, lacking in strata of intervening periods. The strata of the former description are, for the most part, marine while those of the latter are terrestrial. What is more, the strata are generally found in horizontal lines, showing that the land, except the limited areas affected by greater warping movements, has been under relatively little pressure.

Manchuria.—A general idea of the geology of Manchuria, so far as has been investigated, may be had from the table below:

(Chiefly based on the report by Professor Murakami)

Table 2. Geologic Formation of Manchuria

Geological Period	Principal Rocks	Principal Fossils
Cainozoic Era:		
Quarternary 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, Po-

Geological Period	Principal Rocks	Principal Fossils
		pulus, insects, spiders, tortoise, fresh-water fishes, etc.
Mesozoic Era:		
Cretaceous Period	Sandstones, shales.	Eggs of seaturtles, fresh water fishes, etc.
Jurassic Period	Sandstones, shales, marls, conglomerates, coals, granite-porphyry, quartz-porphyry, 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, crinoids, corals, etc.
Sub-carboniferous Period Silurian Period Devonian Period	(Wanting).	
Ordovician Period	Limestone, shales, clay-slates, marls, sandstones.	Cephalopods (orthoceras, etc.), gasteropods (maelurea, etc.), brachiopods (Obolus, etc.), trilobites (Ptychasyis), fucoids.
Cambrian Period	Limestone, marls, shales, clay-slates, sandstones, conglomerates, gabbro, Granites, porphyrites.	Brachiopods (obolus, obollela, etc.), pteropods, lamelli branchia, gasteropods (more than 70 species), trilobites, etc.
Protozoic Era	Crystalline schists, silica, clay-slates, Lydian stone, limestone, dolomite, ironstones, Granites, gabbro.	Fucoids.
Archaezoic Era	Gneisses, crystalline schists, silica, crystalline limestone, granites.	

The following may be enumerated as geological characteristics of Manchuria: (1) granite and other rocky strata of high antiquity are seen in well developed states: (2) conspicuous absence of Silurian, Devonian; Sub-carboniferous and Triassic rocks; (3) scarcity of volcanic action and earthquakes, showing relatively small areas of exposed recent volcanic rocks; (4) the long geological history of the land as shown by a wide distribution of granite areas and extensive exposure of rocky beds of high antiquity, a point also confirmed by the fact that the rocky beds later than of the middle of the Mesozoic era are invariably either terrigenous or lacustrine.

What stand out as notable characteristics from the tectonic point of view, are the Hsingan and the Changpaishan ranges, forming between them the extensive basin of south and central Manchuria. The former mountain range is formed by a long folding of rocks the western side of which is covered by sand, presenting an appearance as of plateaus. The eastern side of the range is marked by precipitate declivities with an occasional presence of small faults. The latter range is the western ridge of the above central basin.

What is of considerable geological interest is the Sungling mountain range which forms the boundary between Jehol and Fengtien Provinces, close to the Pohai Sea. The northern section of the range follows a northeasterly course as far as Tiehling on the main line of the South Manchuria Railway, above Mukden, and then turns eastwards reaching as far as Paitoushan mountain close to the Korean border. The areas south of this range abounds in strata and beds of Cambrian, Ordovician and even earlier times, embracing extensive veins of anchricites, fire proof clays, magnesite and haematite. The land north of this range is wanting in those ancient rocks or any of those valuable mineral deposits, the granite and gneiss beds being generally under the Mosozoic strata. Along the above mountain range are noted conspicuous overthrusts of Palaeozoic strata above more recent rocky formations. These overthrusts, not without association with the general warping of the Mongolian land, are attributed to the middle part of the Tertiary period. As a stratigraphic feature of more recent date may be noted the Sungling range passing almost east and west, south of Hsinking, forming the watershed of Heilungkiang and the Liaoho plains, which joins the above Sungling east of the South Manchuria Railway line. This elevated system in parts still continues its upheaval movements. The western sector, as shown by the evidence of recent volcanic action, must have ceased its movement only recently. The eastern extremeties of this mountain range, close to the eastern coast of the Korean peninsula, still continue the perpendicular movements which commenced in the latter part of the Tertiary period.

Geology of Mongolia.—Of the geology of Mongolia, which remains for the most part to be investigated, a general idea may be had from the table below, largely based on the work of Berkey, Morris and Grabau:

Table 3. Geologic Formation of Mongolia

Geological Period		Principal Rocks	Thickness in meters	Principal Fossils
Cainozoic Era:				
Quarternary 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.	1200	Elephas antiquus, rhinoceros, boars, hipparion, serridentius, boluchitherum, Menodus, Protitanotherium, Teilhardia, Eudinoceras, Schlosseaia, Paleostylops.
Mesozoic Era:				
Cretaceous Period		Granular red sandstone, Clays, Sands, Shales, Granites, Phorphyries, etc.	300-600	Protoceratops, Ignanodontia, 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.
Palaeozoic Era:				
Permian Period		Conglomerates, Sandstones, Shales, Limestones, Marls, Granites, etc.	15-600	Productus, Orthotychia, Martinia, Lyttonia, Spirifer, Spiriferella, Streptorhynchus, Camarophoria, Hemiptychina, Enteleles, Marginifera, etc.
Dinantian Period		Conglomerates, Sandstones, Clay-slates, Limestones, Dolomites, Batholites of Granite, Intrusive Rocks, etc.	15-300	?
Protozoic Era:				
Older (Huanhai System)		Grits, Clay-slates, Igneous Rocks, Veins & Stocks.	3,000-6,000	?
Newer (Wutai System)		Crystalline-schists, Phyllites, Limestones, Dolomites, Quartzite, Greenstones, Intrusive Igneous Rocks, etc.	?	
Archaezoic Era: (Taishan System)		Crystalline Limestone, Crystalline-schists, Gneisses, Intrusive Igneous Rocks, etc.	?	

Of the geological features of Mongolian land the following points may be noted, in addition to those which are common also to Manchuria: (1) the comparatively low areas are under desert sand, seldom exposing rocky beds; but the mountainous regions as a rule consist of rocks of high antiquity; (2) the Jurassic rocks are notably differentiated from the Cretace-

ous and later formation in the points mentioned below:—

(A) There occurs a great unconformability between the Jurassic and the Cretaceous rocks. The stratified formations of the former period are marked with frequent and complex plications and faults under the pressure of the movements of upheaval. The mountains bear marks of severe destructive work of magma and scarcely less destructive effects of weathering. The rocks of Cretaceous and later times as a rule exhibit perfect conformability, though they have evidently lain under warping movements on gigantic scales at one time or another. (B) The former rocks which A. W. Grabau has termed as Mongolian geosyncline are marine formations of the palaeozoic era, and widely distributed and of considerable thickness. The latter are without exception fresh water or wind-borne formations, being narrowly distributed and generally in thin layers. (C) The former have gone through heavy metamorphic processes in consequence of the intrusion of igneous rocks, while the latter exhibit little evidence of such phenomena. (D) After the Cretaceous era there were generally up and down warping movements on large scales; nor were block movements absent. However, the stratigraphic layers lie as a rule horizontally. As a consequence of the same warping movements what had been sea was turned into land and still later converted into quasi-plains by secular weathering. Upon the depressions caused by subsidence were laid fragmentary deposits.

The deposits made under these conditions were invariably terrestrial. The altitude of the mountains existing about the country seems to have been determined sometimes around the Cretaceous or Tertiary period. The linear directions of these mountain ranges, therefore, run generally in conformity with those of the basins. On the same view is it explicable that the Hsingan mountains, among others, were upheaved by the subsidence of the Mongolian basins.

From the above it is to be concluded that the above line of distinction of geognostic and stratigraphic importance, drawn so clearly through the middle part of the Mesozoic era, is due to the heavy igneous eruptions of the period preceding it and the total subsidence of the same in the period following.

CLIMATE

Manchuria, Mongolia and the contiguous regions are important from the climatic point of view, chiefly because they are the areas of continental cyclones which frequently disturb monsoonal winds at certain seasons. Great diurnal as well as seasonal variation in the temperature is another characteristic of the climate of Manchoukuo. The climate of North Manchuria is marked by continental features, while that of South Manchuria is considerably tempered under the influence of the sea.

Cyclones.—The cyclones that cross the eastern littoral regions of eastern Asia and appear on the China and Japan Seas generally originate in Mongolia and along the Yellow River. They as a rule follow an easterly course and, passing through or near Japan, proceed on the Pacific. While on the continent these cyclones are but lowly developed, their first effect is seen in the disturbed state of the monsoonal winds. This is specially notable in winter. The northerly or northwesterly winds, the prevailing winds of the season, suddenly drop when a cyclone rises in Mongolia or eastern Siberia, and this condition is followed by cloudy skies, or by more or less rain or snow where the cyclonic centre moves. Out upon the Japan Sea, the cyclone suddenly develops its strength, with the result that the prevailing north or northwestern wind gathers violent force for a certain length of time, accompanied by a sudden barometric fall. These continental cyclones in their passage over the Mongolian deserts take up sand at dry sasons to such degree that the sky is overcast as by heavy clouds. The wind-borne sand is sometimes carried even as far as the western shores of Japan.

Temperature.—Manchoukuo approximately lies in the same latitudes as southern Europe, but its temperature is continental, showing little oceanic influences. The highest temperature on record is 42°.6 centigrade at Chalantun (July 23rd, 1919), while the lowest record is 50°.1 Mientuho (January 16th, 1922). The hottest month is July and the coldest January. Observations show that the mean temperature falls as we move further inland in a northwesterly direction from Dairen to Manchouli.

The monthly averages of maximum July temperature and minimum January temperature as observed at various, widely scattered points are shown in the table below:

Table 4. Monthly Temperature Averages

Place	January		July		
	Average Maximum	Variation Minimum	Variation	Average Maximum	Average Minimum	Variation
Hailar	–24.4	–35.3	10.9	27.5	14.1	13.4
Chalantun	–14.2	–25.2	11.0	28.2	16.4	11.8
Angangki	–15.8	–29.0	13.2	30.2	17.7	12.5
Harbin	–15.7	–27.7	12.0	29.2	18.2	11.0
Yenki	– 8.1	–21.4	13.3	28.8	17.3	11.5
Hsinking (Changchun)	–11.7	–24.5	12.8	29.1	18.8	10.3
Mukden	– 6.2	–19.1	12.9	30.4	20.2	10.2

Note: The sign "—" denotes "below zero."

From the above it may be seen that the diurnal variation on an average is 10 to 13 degrees, the range being somewhat greater in winter than in summer.

Distribution of Temperature.—The distribution of the temperature over Manchoukuo may be seen from the following table, showing the mean temperatures of January, the coldest month, and of July, the hottest month, at various points of the country, in comparison with some towns in eastern Siberia and North China.

Table 5. Mean Annual Temperature

Place	January	July	Average Annual Temperature
Manchouli	–26.5	21.2	–1.5
Hailar	–29.7	21.2	–2.4
Mientuho	–29.1	20.0	–2.9
Pukotu	–23.3	19.2	–1.1
Chalantun	–20.1	22.0	2.4
Angangki	–23.0	23.8	2.5
Anta	–23.0	23.7	2.5
Harbin	–22.0	23.5	3.0
Yaomen	–20.0	23.4	4.0
Imienpo	–20.3	22.9	3.5
Mutankiang	–22.1	22.5	2.7
Taipingling	–20.2	20.5	1.9
Yenki	–14.9	22.6	5.3
Sanhsing	–22.1	22.7	2.4
Hsinking (Changchun)	–18.5	23.4	4.7
Mukden	–13.1	24.7	7.4
Dairen	– 5.7	23.2	10.1
Peiping	– 4.5	26.4	11.5
Vladivostok	–16.1	18.6	4.1
Blagoveschensk	–22.4	22.3	0.3
Irkutsk	–20.3	17.4	–0.9

The isothermal of 0°, which comes from northern Saghalien to descend along the Maritime Province, runs between Pukotu and Chalantun and from that point on tends northwards as it farther proceeds westwards, until it passes south of Lake Baikal eventually reaching as far as the north of the Baltic Sea. It may be seen from this that the greater portion of Manchuria and Mongolia is enclosed between the thermals of 10° and 0°. The regions of north Manchuria, because of their proximity to the coldest Siberian areas, register an average annual temperature of 4° or so below zero. The difference of temperature between the north and the south areas may be seen from the fact that the average temperature in January at Dairen is 5°.7, while that at Boklovska, close to the Siberian border, is 31° below zero, there being differences of more than 25° degrees. The isothermal of 20° below zero runs westwards from Taipingling, east of Kirin, and passes between Hsinking (Changchun) and Harbin until it extends into the areas south of Lake Baikal. Under this condition the average temperature of Mongolia in January falls below 20° below zero. The northern areas are situated close to Siberia, where the mean temperature in winter falls below 30° below zero, being one of the coldest spots in the world. The average temperature of July ranges between 20° and 24°, showing relatively but small regional variations. The isothermal of 24° runs in the east from the mouth of the river Tumen of the Korean border, following a northwesterly direction to pass between Mukden and Hsinking and proceed thence in a westerly direction, ultimately traversing the plains of Mongolia. It may therefore be seen that the average temperature in July throughout Manchoukuo is around 24°, though the eastern regions close to the Maritime Province and those up in the north close to the Siberian borders, register temperatures below 20°.

Table 6. Monthly Mean Temperature or Air (in °)

Locality	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Manchouli	—26.5	—22.0	—12.6	1.6	10.7	17.8	21.2	18.0	10.3	0.1	—14.0	—22.4	—1.5
Hailar	—29.7	—24.0	—14.9	1.1	10.7	17.6	21.1	18.0	10.2	0.0	—14.5	—24.3	—2.4
Mientuho	—29.1	—23.8	—14.9	0.1	9.9	16.2	20.0	16.7	9.2	—0.8	—14.6	—23.6	—2.9
Pukotu	—23.3	—18.9	—10.9	0.7	9.8	15.8	19.2	16.2	9.2	0.2	—11.9	—19.1	—1.1

Locality	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Chalantun	—20.1	—15.2	— 6.4	4.6	13.3	19.1	22.0	19.4	12.6	3.4	— 8.9	—15.7	2.4
Angangki	—23.0	—16.7	— 6.8	5.5	14.4	21.2	23.8	21.5	14.0	4.1	— 9.5	—18.0	2.5
Anta	—23.0	—16.7	— 6.8	5.3	14.2	21.0	23.7	21.2	14.0	4.1	— 9.3	—18.3	2.5
Harbin	—22.0	—15.9	— 6.4	5.7	14.5	20.9	23.5	21.4	14.6	5.1	— 7.9	—17.2	3.0
Yaomen	—20.0	—13.7	— 5.5	6.2	14.9	21.3	23.4	21.4	14.6	5.6	— 6.2	—15.0	4.0
Imienpo	—20.3	—14.4	— 5.5	6.2	14.0	20.0	22.9	20.9	14.2	5.5	— 6.3	—15.0	3.5
Mutankiang	—22.1	—15.6	— 6.3	5.3	13.2	19.0	22.5	21.0	13.7	4.8	— 6.5	—16.7	2.7
Taipingling	—20.2	—14.5	— 7.8	3.4	11.2	16.8	20.5	19.4	12.6	4.0	— 7.1	—15.5	1.9
Yenki	—14.9	—11.0	— 3.4	6.5	13.6	18.6	22.6	22.5	15.3	6.7	— 3.4	—11.2	5.3
Sanhsing	—22.1	—16.2	— 8.0	4.3	13.4	18.4	22.7	20.9	14.0	4.5	— 7.3	—16.8	2.4
Hsinking	—18.5	—12.0	— 4.0	6.6	15.0	21.2	23.4	21.8	15.0	6.3	— 4.8	—13.8	4.7
Mukden	—13.1	— 7.5	— 0.6	8.8	16.3	22.1	24.7	23.8	16.9	8.8	— 1.3	—10.3	7.4
Dairen	— 5.7	— 3.1	1.9	9.3	15.3	20.4	23.2	24.4	19.8	13.3	4.9	— 2.5	10.1
Peiping	— 4.5	— 3.1	4.3	12.7	20.0	25.3	26.4	25.1	19.8	12.1	2.3	— 2.4	11.5
Vladivostok	—16.1	—10.3	— 5.9	4.1	9.0	13.7	18.6	20.8	16.5	8.8	— 1.6	—10.3	4.1
Blagoveschensk	—22.4	—18.9	— 8.9	3.1	11.9	17.3	22.3	20.4	11.5	2.8	—12.0	—22.7	0.3
Bokurovka	—31.2	—26.7	—14.1	—0.7	8.9	15.1	19.5	17.4	7.7	—1.8	—18.7	—31.3	—4.7
Irkutsk	—20.3	—17.9	— 8.9	0.3	8.5	15.3	17.4	15.6	8.7	—0.5	—11.1	—18.4	—0.9

Rainfall.—The year is distinctly divided into the wet and dry seasons, the former from the beginning of June to the end of September and the latter from the beginning of November to the end of April. Taking the rainfall at Hsinking as representative of the general precipitation of Manchoukuo, observations show that the rains during July and August make up 55% of the total annual fall, while the falls during four months ending September make up 77% of the total annual fall.

In point of distribution of precipitation, the areas along the main line of the South Manchuria Railway form a dividing line. In the areas to the east of this line have a rainfall ranging from 600 to 1,000 millimetres, while the areas to the west have a fall from 600 to 100 millimetres. The precipitation grows less as we go farther west. The rainfall at Manchouli is less than 300 millimetres. The areas along the above railway line record a fall ranging from 600 to 700 millimetres.

The heaviest rainfall recorded in twenty four hours was at Yingkow August 13th, 1911, when 209.3 millimetres of rain fell. On the same day Mukden had a fall of 148.7 millimetres which remains a record volume of this city. To the west of the Hsingan mountains the fall diminishes to 80 millimetres. Although no observation has been made farther out in the Mongolian regions, the annual rainfall may be assumed to be about 250 to 350 millimetres, since those of Irkutsk and Urumtsi are known to be respectively 428 and 259 millimetres.

From the agricultural point of view, it may be observed that the rainfall during July and August seems to afford an adequate volume of rain for the growing season. As representative of the central grain belt of Manchoukuo, the rainfall of Mukden may be taken for example. Between the beginning of May and the end of October the fall is recorded at 602 millimetres. For comparison the same seasonal rainfall of some northern cities of Japan, where the same months are also the growing season, may be taken: the city of Sapporo registers 558 millimetres and Niigata, on the Japan Sea coast, 834 millimetres, while the city of Tokyo records 1070 millimetres. Mukden has more rain than Sapporo. The figures of Niigata and Tokyo are affected by the fact that this particular time embraces the season of typhoons which are accompanied by rain, as a rule.

Table 7. Rainy Days

Place	Days
Manchouli	68
Hailar	102
Mientuho	101
Pukotu	85
Chalantun	85
Angangki	73
Anta	77
Harbin	108
Yaomen	97
Imienpo	144
Mutankiang	119
Taipingling	123
Yenki	92
Sanhsing	108
Mukden	93
Dairen	77

Wet Days.—Manchoukuo has few places where on the whole more than 100 wet days are experienced in the year. At some places the number of wet days is less than 70. The following shows the annual number of wet days at more important places of this country.

Table 8. Amount of Rainfall (in mm.)

Locality	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Manchouli	0.9	1.8	3.4	2.7	17.3	38.2	69.8	82.3	42.1	>10.3	8.5	3.3	>280.6
Hailar	2.5	4.9	2.5	6.7	27.8	41.3	94.9	61.7	47.7	10.9	6.5	5.0	312.8
Mientuho	3.2	5.8	3.4	10.9	36.8	56.8	61.2	89.2	71.5	>7.0	6.3	5.2	>356.4
Pukotu	0.9	2.0	1.2	>3.8	36.0	58.9	106.2	116.1	90.0	6.4	4.3	0.9	>426.5
Chalantun	1.5	3.6	5.1	4.8	45.0	58.8	136.2	105.7	86.3	8.5	9.3	1.7	466.5
Angangki	1.6	4.6	4.5	3.2	29.0	39.5	72.2	63.2	50.9	9.9	7.1	4.4	290.2
Anta	1.0	31.1	5.1	3.3	32.2	57.1	110.1	107.5	64.5	10.1	6.1	1.8	402.0
Harbin	2.7	11.1	16.5	14.1	63.1	85.6	130.6	127.0	51.7	30.4	15.8	6.1	552.9
Yaomen	4.5	8.6	17.5	14.7	26.2	68.3	153.2	125.5	57.5	38.0	11.1	6.6	541.9
Imienpo	6.8	11.4	19.5	26.2	62.5	79.1	176.0	171.4	63.6	53.1	22.9	12.2	704.6
Mutankiang	1.9	3.3	17.1	25.5	49.1	42.8	105.1	132.8	51.5	36.0	9.2	6.1	485.3
Taipingling	>2.2	4.7	11.9	25.1	64.7	66.1	102.9	122.1	68.7	39.9	>11.5	>7.3	>527.1
Yenki	2.0	5.2	12.8	14.5	39.4	61.1	75.1	123.7	39.9	34.0	9.8	5.3	423.1
Sanhsing	3.0	6.8	>7.2	22.2	52.0	64.8	117.7	133.7	56.0	26.3	7.4	5.3	421.8
Hsinking	7.7	7.2	19.6	14.0	42.7	71.5	177.8	183.0	65.7	35.4	14.4	9.3	>648.4
Mukden	3.8	9.9	23.0	30.3	50.1	78.0	152.3	211.4	63.5	46.8	33.8	14.9	712.9
Dairen	6.7	6.4	18.9	35.1	35.5	33.1	141.8	138.3	121.1	28.8	23.9	10.1	599.6
Peiping	2.5	2.0	16.8	37.2	26.3	39.6	200.4	143.1	54.3	33.2	3.7	1.1	560.2
Vladivostok	7.0	21.8	27.9	37.9	68.9	67.8	71.4	130.8	135.9	58.0	35.2	36.0	698.5
Blagoveschensk	5.3	6.2	6.5	31.4	47.4	122.4	101.9	95.0	57.2	19.3	12.9	8.4	513.3
Bokurovka	5.2	6.4	4.4	22.9	18.4	73.5	111.3	85.5	65.4	16.4	10.4	5.4	425.3
Irkutsk	10.0	7.4	7.1	20.9	33.8	56.5	89.2	95.6	49.3	18.8	17.7	21.2	427.5

Humidity.—The average humidity of Manchoukuo ranges from 60 to 68%, or 10 to 20% less than that of the mean humidity of Japan. The driest months are April and November. In the former month especially, the humidity not uncommonly falls to 10% at Hsinking.

Evaporation.—Evaporation in Manchoukuo is from 1,400 to 1,600 millimetres annually, approximately twice the mean figure recorded in Japan. The highest figure is for May when the monthly average from various towns is upward of 200 millimetres. The lowest figure is for January when the monthly average falls below 50 millimetres.

Amount of Cloud.—The lowest amount of cloud on record is the annual average of 3.5 per cent at Chengkiatun. The average annual amount from various towns of the country is below 5 per cent. More than 200 days of the year are clear. Except the three summer months, fair or clear days prevail in unbroken succession. In winter especially, the skies are without a speck of cloud, as a rule. The annual sunshine hours, though subject to variation according to latitudes, number from 2,500 to 2,900, or approximately 20 per cent more than the figure credited to Japan.

Velocity and Direction of the Winds.—The velocity of the wind, as may be expected under the continental conditions of the atmosphere, is not great, as a rule, in comparison with places under the influence of the sea. However, during three months in spring ending in May, strong winds prevail every day. The number of the so-called storm days, when the velocity of the wind is greater than 10 metres per second, as recorded at the Dairen observatory on top of Wakakusa hill, is on an average 121 in the year, while the observations made at the old establishment placed under shelter, registered but 17 days of storm. The annual records made at Kungchuling and Hsinking are respectively 50 and 62 days. The greatest velocity of wind recorded in Manchuria is 46.3 metres per second at Kungchuling March 23rd, 1919. Stormy winds are rare up in North Manchuria.

At Dairen, Port Arthur and other southern places in the areas close to the sea, the northwesterly winds prevail in winter and southerly winds in summer. These southerly winds turn southwesterly as they proceed further inland. In the northern portion of South Manchuria where Kungchuling and Hsinking are situated, and in the eastern section of North Manchuria marked by towns like Imienpo and Mutankiang, southwesterly winds prevail throughout the year, with practically no change in their direction. In the western areas of North Manchuria northwesterly winds generally prevail at all seasons.

Table 9. 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
Taipingling	Northerly	Southeasterly	4.5	2.9	7
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

Frost and Snow.—The earliest date of frost is September 3rd at Mientuho, North Manchuria, and the latest is November 13th at Port Arthur in the southern section. The frost comes in the early or middle part of September in the areas west of the Hsingan mountains, and in the opening part of October at Harbin, Anta and Sanhsing. The area embracing Imienpo, Hsinking, Kungchuling, Kaiyuan, Taonan, etc., see the first frost in late September, while Yingkow and Mukden follow about a week or ten days later, as a rule.

The end of frost is in the south regions towards the end of April and in the northern parts mostly between the close of April and the middle of May.

Snow begins to fall in the north about the end of September and in the south around the end of October, a difference of one full month. The greater portions of the country seldom see the first snow before the latter part of October. The snowy season in the north closes around May 10th and in the south about April 10th, a difference of one full month also. In other words, the northern regions have two more months of snow than the southern areas. Snow falls on an average on from 20 to 40 days in the year. The depth of snow generally falls short of 10 centimetres.

Observatories.—Meteorological observatories are established at the following places at present:—

Port Arthur, Dairen, Yingkow, Chengteh, Mukden, Hsinking, Hailar, Heiho, Ssupingkai, Chihfeng, Suifenho, Harbin, Manchouli, Koshan, Hsingan.

FLORA

As general characteristic of the Manchoukuo flora, it may be noted that the central plains of alkaloid soil is covered with grass, with no occurrence of trees except a genus of elms (*Ulmus pumila*). Wherever immigrants have recently settled are to be seen a cluster of willow and other trees. However, the northern section of the Great Hsingans, Little Hsingans and the mountain ranges in the eastern parts of Manchuria, embrace vast domains of virgin forests. The mountain range of the Liaotung peninsula and the Sungling range are bare save for small wooded areas seen at places.

Native Flora.—Upon the central plains occur *Quercus mongolica* in the north as well as in the south, besides the particular elm specie above referred to. Of the conifers the Mongolian red pine (*Pinus sylvestris* var. *mongolica*) is confined to the region west of the northeastern section of the Hsingan mountains, while the Korean pine (*Pinus Koraiensis*) spreads over the Little Hsingan and other mountains in the eastern part of Manchuria. South of Tiehling the Manchurian black pine (*Pinus tubulaeformis* var. *mukdensis*) is of frequent occurrence, while in the Liaotung peninsula this is replaced by the Manchurian red pine (*Pinus tubulaeformis* var. *rubescens*).

In contrast to the western side of the Hsingans where grows the Mongol red pine as mentioned above, the eastern side, though totally wanting in the same specie, offers what is regarded as a purely Mongolian specie of vine, *Vitis amurensis*, besides *Phellodendron amurensis, Juglans manshurica, Schizandra chinesis*, etc.

The watershed along the Antung-Mukden railway seems to form a line of division between the floras of Korea and South Manchuria. To the east, but not to the west, of this line are found varieties of violets such as *Viol xanthopelala, hirtipes, Raddeana, albida, Savatieri, Persicaria Makinoi*, and others like *Iris Rossii, Epimedium, macranthum, Pulsatilla daurica, Jeffersonia dubia*, etc.

In the southern parts of the Liaotung peninsula occur some flora of the temperate zone such as *Zizyphus vulgaris* var. *spinsus, Vitex incisa, Euonymus Kiautschovica, Gleditschia Koraiensis, Ailanthus glandulosa*, etc. The frostless period in this part is as long as 200 days in the year.

Exotic Flora.—Quite many varieties of species have intruded from other countries. Among them may be noted *Robinia pseudacacia, Amorpha fructicosa, Acer negundo, Populus pyramidalis, Laburnum vulgare.* Of these the first and third mentioned species predominate. The former is distributed as far north as Harbin, while for the latter the line of Hsinking (Changchun) seems the northern limit.

Interesting Manchurian Plants.—There are varieties of flowering and other plants not without special interest. Amongst these the following points may be noted.

The maiden-hair tree is found on islets near Dairen and Port Arthur, though the sago-palm of Japan occurs in no part of this country. The specie seems confined to the peninsula and islands in its proximity.

Varieties of iris are found practically all over the plains of Manchuria. Of these, *Iris lactea* var. *chinensis* is most frequently met with. Its characteristic, not unlike that of other species of the same genera, is seen in its leaves growing in a twisted form. Other common species are *Iris orientalis, ventricosa, ensata, laevigata, tigridia uniflora, Rossii, manshurica, minuata.*

Upon the sunny hillside *Selaginella Rossii* is seldom missed. *Hyosciamus niger* var. *chinensis* the seed of which is valued in China for its medicinal properties is of not rare occurrence on the plains north of Tangkangtzu and Lienshankwan. *Clycyrrhiza echinata* the root of which is valued as a simple, is of frequent occurrence upon the grassy plains of Inner Mongolia. Among the common herbs and flowering plants may also be noted *Convalaria majalis* in northern regions, six different species of the lilacs of which *Syringa* predominate, *Amblygonum pilosum*, the Chinese aster (*Callistephus chinensis*), *Delphinium grandiflorum*, a specie of the peony (*Paeonia albiflora* var. *spontanea*).

The commonest among the lilies is *Lilium concolor* luxuriating on all hillsides. There are also found *Lilium tenuifolium, Cernuum, Callosum, amabile, danricum, Maximowiczii, tigrinum, distichum.* The chrysanthemum species are a Siberian specie (*Chrysanthemum sibiricum*) and the no less common *Chrysanthemum lavendulaefolium.*

What may also be noted as a predominating feature of the Manchurian flora is that many varieties of the bramble and wormwood are met with almost all over the country. It is also noteworthy that not a few species of seaside flora are found far inland, a fact to be accounted for by the soil being impregnated with salt. The following species may be found as far north as Chengchiatun, Taonan, Tsitsihar and Manchouli:—

Tribus terrestris, Apocynum venetum, Atriplex patula, Statice chinensis, Triglochin palustre.

Amongst the seaside flora Salicornia herbacea, which in Japan is confined to a few seaside places in Hokkaido and Shikoku, is met with in all parts of the Manchurian seashores. Among the species similar to those of Europe are *Statice chinensis, Bulomus umbellatus, Lemnatrisulca.*

Sand Dune Flora.—Upon the sand dunes of Manchuria and Inner Mongolia the willow and elm frequently occur, showing that these sandy places are by no means without subterranean water. The species special to the sand dunes are *Imperata cylindrica, Tournefortia sibirica, Corispermum stauntoni, Agriophyllum arenarium.*

Forest Zone.—The great forests of the Hsingan mountains chiefly consist of *Larix dahurica, Betula latifolia*, and *dahurica.* The above specie of the pine is for the most part found on the northern side of the mountains. The mountainsides all along the western section of the North Manchuria Railway line are bare in consequence of uncontrolled disafforestation. These places are covered with carpets of flowering plants during the three summer months. In the eastern mountains we find some species of pines (*Abies holophylla, Larix dahurica* var. *Principis. Ruprechtii*). The other common species are *Acer*

ginnala, Vitis amurensis, Juglans manshurica, Schizandra chinensis.

The mountains in the Liaotung peninsula are without forest of any notable size. The Mongolian oak (*Quercus mongolica*) and the Manchurian black pine (*Pinus tubulaeformis* var. *mukdensis*) are not infrequently met with, though the hillsides are generally covered by grass.

FAUNA

While the fauna of North Manchuria has been fairly well studied by European, especially Russian naturalists from early times, that of central and southern Manchuria has been almost totally neglected. This is especially true with regard to Jehol where, except a scientific expedition sent out in 1933 under the auspices of the Japanese newspaper Asahi Shimbun, nothing like research has been made in its history. The following is based on the information so far available on the subject.

Mammals.—Of the mammals of Manchuria more than 100 species have been described. Among the common inhabitants of the eastern mountains are the sable, the Manchurian ermine, the Siberian weasel, the lynx, the Amur racoon-dog, squirrel, the Korean striped squirrel, the flying squirrel, the Manchurian assapan, the Manchurian hare, the red deer, the Korean antelope. The grassy plains and deserts in the western regions are the habitats of the vole, the ground squirrel, varieties of mouse, the flying hare, the badger, the fox, the sheep, the argali.

What is remarkable about the Manchurian fauna is the abundance of large mammals such as the tiger, the leopard, the lynx, the wolf, the red wolf, the Korean black bear, the ground bear, etc.

Fur-bearing Animals.—In the abundance of fur-bearing animal life Manchoukuo is surpassed by few countries of the world. To catalogue the more common species: the sable, the ermine, the weasel, the fox, the racoon, the badger, the lynx, the mountain cat, the wolf, the otter, the hare, the squirrel, the vole, the antelope.

Avifauna.—Of the rich avifauna of Manchoukuo more than 400 species have been observed. One of the remarkable features is the abundance of birds of prey throughout the country. In the eastern mountains are found mostly those species which nest up in the trees. Among these are the owl, many species of singing birds, the pidgeon, the cuckoo, the woodpecker. Upon the hills and plateaus of the western regions, as may be expected from the physiological condition of the country, we find those birds which live in undergrowth, such as the quail, the bustard, the partridge.

The regions around Chengchiatun, Taonan and Angangki are a rich reservoir of partridges. The mountains along the eastern section of the North Manchuria Railway abound in pheasants and ptarmigans. Bustards are most common around Payintala. To the rivers Liaoho and Sungari huge numbers of water fowl such as ducks, wild geese and swans are attracted in autumn, to migrate in winter to southern latitudes. Of the avifauna there are but few species that are not common to Europe.

Reptiles and Amphibians.—Of these genera about a score of species of reptiles and as many species of amphibians have been observed. Mention must be made of snapping turtles which are abundant in the rivers Liaoho and Sungari, because any sort of turtle is taboo in China. The edible green frog, which the Chinese call "farm chicken" and the brown frog which they call "mountain clam," are both valued for their eggs.

Fishes.—There are more than a hundred varieties of fresh water fish found in Manchoukuo. Lake Dalainor and the river Sungari are specially rich in big fishes such as carp, crucian, sturgeon, catfish and those called by the Chinese as *Pangtouyu, Paiyu, Kantiaoyu.* Among the last named fish some measure six feet long. "Paiyu"—white fish—of the Sungari is regarded as one of the delicacies to adorn the festive table in China, especially at New Year's time.

Nothing has been done by way of investigating the sea fish of Manchuria. The species most commonly seen are those of shallow waters such as codfish, hair-tail, guchi, flatfish (*Paralichthys olivaceus*), halibut, shark, sea-bream, *Pseudosciaena japonica.*

In molluscs the Manchurian shores are rich. Abundant prawns and sea-slugs are caught. Likewise for food are caught jelly-fish, cuttle-fish, octopus. Among the shellfish may be noted oyster, clam, Corbicula leana, sea-mussel, a specie of pullet (*Tapes philippinarum*), razorshell, *Solecurtus constricta,* whelk.

With regard to the insect fauna no research has yet been made, except in certain limited ways. The Chinese oak silk-worms are extensively bred in the Liaotung peninsula and on the lower courses of the Yalu. Some varieties of beetles and scarabs are found practically in all parts of Manchuria. The mountain streams in the northern and eastern regions abound in Daurian crayfish.

Distribution of Fauna.—The Manchoukuo fauna belong to the boreal zone. From the physiographical and climatic conditions, however, the country falls into three sub-regions: (1) Mongolian, (2) Siberian and (3) North China.

The Mongolian Sub-Region embraces the area west of Taonan, Chengkiatun and Paintala, where desert animal life is represented by such mammals as Manchurian mole. Mongolian vole, the shrew, the flying hare, the Mongolian badger and a specie of mountain cat, desert fox, the argali. The mountain quail, a specie of pheasant, bustard and lark are the more representative ones of the avifauna of this sub-region.

The Siberian Sub-Region covers the area of North Manchuria which is drained by the Sungari and Nonni rivers. The animal life of these areas are also common to Siberia. Principal mammals are mole, Ussuri vole, hedge-hog, lynx, leopard, racoon, sable, ermine, weasel, Amur badger, hare, squirrel, red deer, musk-deer, east Siberian reindeer, etc. The avifauna is represented by pheasant, ptarmigan, grey starling, snow-owl, and varieties of woodpeckers. Of the reptiles, the Saghalien viper and the Siberian lizard are noteworthy. The typical amphibians are the salamander and Manchurian toad. Among the finny tribe may be noted the salmon, sturgeon and the river lamprey.

The North China Sub-Region covers the area drained by the river Liaoho and the Liaotung peninsula, the part popularly known as South Manchuria. The fauna of this part is common to North China and Korea. Among the mammals are Korean mole, ground mouse, Korean porcupine, racoon, a specie of wild dog called *Nukute,* squirrel, etc. The representative birds are the Korean pheasant and Peking coal-tit. The typical fishes are the eel, *Zacco platypus,* a specie of sheat-fish, a specie of killie-fish (*Poecilia latipes*), Korean goldfish.

References: Table 1—Manchoukuo Nienpao (Official Annual Report of Manchoukuo), 1934. Tables 2—8 & 9—Chiri Koza (Lectures on Geography), Vol. 1, (Outline of Asia, Manchuria and Mongolia), published by the Kaizo-sha, 1934.

CHAPTER II

OUTLINE OF HISTORY

MANCHURIA AND NON-CHINESE TERRITORY

Manchuria first emerges in history as the homeland of the nomadic Tungus, a race quite different from the Chinese in all essential and dominant characteristics. These original inhabitants of present Manchoukuo were known by the Chinese people as the Suchen, and in a later period as the Ilou or Wu-chi, etc. They mostly inhabited the upper reaches of the Hurka River and along the Sungari. Their fortunes waxed and waned as they came into contact, and often into conflict with other peoples, who came to claim their territory that swept to the west and to the south. But those early twilight days of history are lost in misty records of which there are but few. It is known, however, that in the year 352 A.D., when the Mujung declared independence and as late as the beginning of the Ming Dynasty, Manchuria and Korea were ruled by Non-Chinese tribes. But it was not until 1636, when Nuerhachi, the leader of the Nurchens, established the Taching Dynasty, that the name of Manchuria entered history.

About the year 244 B.C., Chao Hsing, ruler of the Yen Kingdom, began to build a barrier in what is known as modern Shansi against the barbaric tribes in the west and in the north. The work begun by Chao was continued by later emperors until it was completed during the Ming dynasty, forming what is known as the Great Wall and extending over a distance of 2,000 miles from Eastern Turkestan to northern Hopei, down to the sea at Shanhaikwan. This gigantic work was conceived and built as a barrier against the Mongol and Manchou tribes who had frequently raided Chinese territory.

It is a matter of historical truth that the Chinese in those remote days and for centuries after, looked on those tribes on the other side of the Wall as alien enemies and the vast territory there as alien lands. Changes in the situation were seen only in the Han, Tang and Ming Dynasties when the Chinese influence extended over a portion of what is present Manchuria and Mongolia. This expansion of Chinese was set back by Manchou and Mongol Tartars who under the leadership of such ruler as of Khitan and Nurchen, and like Genghis Khan broke through the Great Wall and ruled part or the whole of China.

Coming down as recently as the middle of the 17th century, Manchuria was regarded by the Manchou emperors as a sort of reserve or crown land, separate from China and closed for many years to Chinese immigration. At the dawn of the present century, Manchuria incorporated into China under one and the same Manchou dynasty and so recognised in the treaties made between China and other nations, was under the management of a regional head who ruled it in the capacity of "Commander-in-chief." It is too well known what attitude the late Chang Tso-lin took until his end, towards the National Government then at Peking. Whatever might have been the general impression as to his position, there was no doubt about his disposition when he, acting quite independently of Peking, concluded in 1924 an agreement with Soviet Russia relating to the Chinese Eastern Railways.

The Mukden regime went on drifting farther and farther from the central authorities, until in 1928 Marshal Chang Tso-lin came in clash with the Southern Armies, headed by General Chiang Kai-shek. There was every indication that the Southern troops would have gone over the Great Wall into Manchuria but for Japan's determined attitude which was made known by her note of protest.

Under Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang, the successor of Chang Tso-lin, Manchuria or the Four Eastern Provinces, as it had come to be known, passed more and more under autonomous local government. This state of affairs, both political and economic, prevailed until the Sino-Japanese clash of September 18, 1931. Upon overthrow of the Chang regime, the three provinces of Fengtien, Kirin and Heilungkiang declared their independence, and these provinces, later with the addition of Jehol, were incorporated into the new state of Manchoukuo which declared its independence of the Republic of China in March of the following year, and to which Japan gave formal recognition six months later, or in September, 1932.

Aboriginal Tribes and Their Kingdoms

Amongst a number of aboriginal tribes who made their abode in Manchuria at one period or another, the most important is undoubtedly the Tungus who are known to have been there as early 2,000 years before the dawn of the Christian era. There were also tribes, known amongst the Chinese for many centuries by the names of Suchen, Tung-hu, Mais, Fuyu, Kaokuli, Khitan, Nurchen, etc. They were hunters and herdsmen, leading a life nomadic and of primitive order. It was therefore but natural that when they came in contact with Chinese refugees and immigrants of superior culture, they should have absorbed something of what had been brough from beyond the Great Wall. From these aboriginal tribes came a number of Kings which are known on record as Fuyu (37 B. C.-494 A.B.), Kaokuli (37 B.C.-668 A.D.), Pohai (717-927 A.D.), Khitan (916-1125 A.D.), Chin (1115-1234 A.D.), and Later Chin (1616-1644 A.D.).

These tribal kingdoms, though some of them had reason to enter into tributary relations with China, were all independent in a full sense of the term. They made war and peace at their pleasure and sent envoys to foreign courts.

The people of Fuyu, an agricultural tribe of considerable means and power, inhabited the plains of Kirin and Taonan, a number of them having settled on the plains surrounding the present capital city of Manchoukuo, Changchun, now called Hsinking.

The Kaokuli who were of the same origin as the Fuyu were a warlike people and mostly lived in the valley of the Yalu River, dominating at a time the northern part of Korea and the greater part of South Manchuria, with the River Liao as its western boundary. It was with the object of checking the activity of this warlike people that the Han Dynasty of China maintained friendly relations with the Fuyu. With the Kingdom of Kaokuli, which later formed one of the three kingdoms into which Korea was divided, Japan engaged in warfare more than once. The Kaokuli conquered the Fuyu in 493, but when they were in turn threatened by Chinese invasion in 662, they made an alliance with Japan, though they were to be overcome by the Tang Emperor a couple of years later.

Upon the heels of these two states came the kingdom of Pohai which marked the appearance of a northern tribe called Khitan upon the plains of Manchuria. The new born kingdom practically covered the territories of the old Fuyu and the Kaokuli. It lasted about 300 years, until it was subdued by the Khitan Tartars. While it lasted, this kingdom maintained friendly relations with both China and Japan. History records that Pohai and Japan exchanged envoys and had trade relations.

While Pohai was evolving from a tribe to a state in Kirin and elsewhere, another group of nomads, the Khitans, steadily rose to power near the southern part of Jehol and west Fengtien. A small tribe in the beginning, the Khitans, under the able leadership of their chieftain Yalu Apochi, came in course of time to extend their territory both westward and eastward, until at the beginning of the 10th century they ruled over 8 administrative areas and 41 districts. Yehlu Apochi still went on making conquests and in 916 proclaimed himself emperor of an independent state, with the dynastic title of Liao. His son Yehlu Takuang further extended the power of the Khitans as far as the northern parts of Chihli and Shansi. Peking was for the first time raised to the status of a capital where the Khitan ruler now chose to reside. The great Empire now extended over Mongolia, Manchuria, the northern China and through North Korea as far as coast on the Japan Sea.

The tribe next to come to power was the Nurchens or Golden Tartars, who were originally one of the Moho tribes and were also known as the Black River Moho. They are known to have made their home in certain parts of Heilungkiang (Amur) Province, but it was not until the first half of the 10th century that they began to be known as Nurchens. They revolted against Liao in 1114 A.D., under the leadership of their chieftain Akuta. They were so successful in their military campaign that the Nurchens leader established in the following year an empire with the title of Chin (Gold). They carried everything before them until in 1122, Peking having been taken by assault, the Khitan Emperor sought safety in flight. The reign of the Northern Sung Dynasty was then overthrown. By 1129 the whole of China north of the Yangtze River was under the rule of the Chin Emperor, a regime that was to last until

1234 when the irresistible Mongols rose to supremacy.

While nothing could withstand the advance of the Mongol hordes, the Nurchens themselves were responsible in part for their own downfall. When they came in contact with the Chinese and their ways of life, the hardy warriors of the north were quickly softened by the ease and luxury of the Sung civilization, so much so that when the Mongol Tartars rose under the mighty Genghis Khan, the once conquering race of Chin proved itself utterly helpless against the invading forces. And as if to hasten their downfall that was already in sight, the Chinese, true to their traditional diplomatic axiom, deserted the people with whom they had sworn friendship much to their own advantage, and now leagued with the new rising Khan against the tottering regime of their brother kingdom. Only in this case the double-crossing diplomacy, so often successful, failed to work out so well; for the Chinese themselves were later to be trampled upon by the warriors from the Mongolian plains.

The Mongols who conquered the major part of Asia and a portion of Europe originated in Northwestern Manchuria, near the Hsingan Mountains. They were hunters and herdsmen and remained in obscurity until the great Gengthis Khan rose to organize them into an invincible military force. They swept Manchuria and crushed the Kingdom of Chin. The once mighty Dynasty of Sung had completely passed away when Kublai Khan established himself at Peking in 1264.

The Mongols gave the Chinese the first foreign dynasty in their history—the Yuan Dynasty. But the Chinese began to revolt against the Mongol rule in 1341, and twenty-seven years later, 1368, the Yuan Dynasty was overthrown, to be replaced by a Chinese Dynasty, the Ming.

Although defeated and subjugated by the Mongols and now falling back before the rising force of the Ming, the old tribesmen of the old Chin, the Nurchens, were never annihilated. One group of them, called Haisi Nurchen, was still in possession of the western portion of the valley of the River Sungari, from the present Petuna to Harbin; for, the Ming Dynasty, even in the heyday of its career, never extended much further than what is present Fengtien or Mukden Province. Another group of these tribesmen had established themselves in the section of the country from the east of the Changpei Range to the valley of the Hurka, all about the Sanhsing district. They were called Chienchou Nurchen. There was still another group settled over the banks of the Amur River —the Wild Nurchen.

It was from amongst these tribesmen of the north that a man, a young chieftain, was to appear who was destined to change the course of Chinese history and his descendants sat on the Dragon Throne in Peking for nearly three hundred years. Based in the castle at Hotuala and known by the name of "Dragon-Tiger General," Nuerhachi, the young leader, soon brought together the Nurchen tribes under his control. In 1616 Nuerhachi rose against the Ming, calling his domain the Kingdom of Later Chin. He took Mukden, Liaoyang and Kaiyuan, driving the Chinese into the valley of Liao. While achieving brilliant military success in many directions, the Nurchen leader was never successful enough in his lifetime to break through the Great Wall into northern China.

Upon his death in 1626 his fourth son Taitsung succeeded him and headed the house of Aisin-Chuehlo, the ruling house of what was later to be titled by him the Taching Dynasty, discarding the title of Later Chin. It was this young leader who gave the name of Manchuria to the land of the Nurchens for the first time in its history.

But it was not Taitsung, the founder of the Taching Dynasty, who dealt the last and final blow to the Ming regime of China. It was his younger brother, acting as Regent of the infant successor, that now led the Nurchens finally to complete the work of the late chieftain, his elder brother—the conquest of China. The Manchou leader entered Peking in May, 1644. The infant Manchou Emperor moved his capital from Mukden to Peking in September. The Manchou dynasty of Taching was proclaimed over all China in October of 1644.

Manchuria Under Manchou Rule

After the House of Aisin-Chuehlo had taken Peking and consolidated its position in China, many Manchous, especially officials known as "bannermen," migrated to China, while the homeland of the Manchou rulers was regarded as an extramural region apart from China. Manchuria was treated as "a crown land" and reserved exclusively for the Manchou race. Heilungkiang and part of Kirin were kept as royal parks where people were altogether forbidden to go. The Chinese people were carefully excluded from Manchuria, and this situation would have lasted but for the depopulation and impoverishment that Manchuria was later to see; an alarming state of affairs which eventually gave rise to Chinese immigration northward beyond the eternal Wall.

The Manchou ruler established a military administration over Manchuria, maintaining the old Manchou personnel and customs wherever possible. Mukden, Kirin and Heilungkiang had each a military governor vested with complete authority, both civil and military. These positions being open exclusively to officials of Manchou origin, Manchuria was always under rule of its natives, Manchou Tartar or "Banners", and this state of affairs continued down to 1907, when an Imperial edict was promulgated relating to provincial governors in the Three Eastern Provinces of Manchuria, by which these provinces, like those of China proper, were placed under the rule of civil administrators under a Viceroy or Governor-General.

For 268 years Manchuria remained under the rule of Taching, or the Manchou Dynasty. In 1912 China went through a great political upheaval, changing from a monarchy to a republic, and the last of the Manchou Emperors, Pu Yi, declared his abdication.

In point of international intercourse, the first instance of Manchuria having anything to do with an outside nation other than China was recorded in 1687, when disputes arose with Russia over some boundary questions. Next, when Great Britain and France waged war with China, their combined squadrons made use of Port Arthur as the base of operations. Two years later, Newchuang was opened to foreign trade. But it was not until the coming of the aggressive Russians some three decades later that Manchuria really assumed importance as a factor of international significance.

Manchuria Under the Republic

The first change to be made in the administrative system of Manchuria or the Three Eastern Provinces upon the establishment of the republican regime, was the appointment to each province of both a civil governor and a military governor. The latter under the orders of the President and the Minister of War at Peking concerned himself only with military affairs. But the powers of these military governors steadily increased as the central authority declined, so much so that when the question arose of joining the Allies against Germany in 1916, the military governors, amongst whom Chang Tso-lin of Mukden was prominent, asked President Li Yuan-hung to dissolve the Parliament which was opposed to the contemplated step, and amend the Constitution so that war could be declared without the consent of the Legislature. When the President turned down their request, Chang Tso-lin and other military governors declared their provinces as independent of the central Government, a stand which eventually led to their secession.

When Soviet Russia concluded a separate treaty of peace with Germany at Brest-Litvosk, China had reason to fear a possible extension of Russian disturbance into her territory. Chang Tso-lin was appointed in September, 1918, Governor-General of the Three Eastern Provinces and named in 1921 Superintendent-General of the Mongolian Frontier. In the spring of the following year Chang Tso-lin had trouble with General Wu Pei-fu, a leader of the Chihli party. In the ensuing civil war the Mukden chief was defeated and forced to withdraw his troops from the province of Chihli. President Hsu Shih-chang immediately issued an order dismissing him from the posts he had held. But a number of associations in Manchuria joined in passing a resolution against the presidential order, stating that the lives of 30,000,000 people of Manchuria depended on the fate of General Chang.

He himself was quick to rise to the occasion. In May, 1922, he made a declaration of independence of the Three Eastern Provinces, which was communicated to the foreign ministers at Peking and to the foreign consular body at Tientsin. This declaration of independence ran in effect as follows:

(1) The Three Eastern Provinces of Manchuria, and Mongolia, Inner and Outer, cannot be recognized as parts of the Republic of China.

(2) Chang Tso-lin who holds a peculiar position in these regions shall hold himself responsible for safeguarding life and property therein, maintaining at the same time cordial relations with foreign nations.

(3) The Treaties hitherto concluded between the Mukden Dynasty and the Chinese Republic shall be respected.

(4) Any foreign minister or consul desiring to negotiate should apply to his office.

(5) Any treaty to be concluded by the Peking Government relating to Manchuria must have his direct approval.

Whatever Peking might have said to this, Chang Tso-lin now considered himself and acted as the de facto ruler of an independent Manchuria. A couple of years later, or in October

of 1924, he concluded, without reference to Peking, a separate agreement with Soviet Russia relating to the Chinese Eastern Railway, in the name of the "Government of the Autonomous Three Eastern Provinces of the Republic of China."

Chang Tso-lin now turned his eye towards Peking. The October of the same year saw him engaged in war with Marshal Wu Pei-fu of Chihli. In December of the following year he clashed with Marshal Feng Yu-hsiang, and four months later he was again fighting with Feng. This time he was so successful that he entered Peking in December. He had in the meantime assumed the leadership of the so-called anti-"Nationalist" armies in North China. There was now little doubt that Chang was aspiring to the office of president on which he had his eye some long time since. He held a series of councils with military leaders about him and, ostensibly at their request, he was installed on June 18, 1927 as Tayuan-shuai, i.e., Grand Marshal of the Military Government of the Republic of China, and declared the vast territory north of the Yangtze to be under his rule.

The Grand Marshal, however, was not left unchallenged. The "National armies" under the command of General Chiang Kai-shek, Marshal Feng Yu-hsiang and General Yen Hsi-shan were ere long pushing their campaigns against Peking. In the spring of 1928 the Grand Marshal found the situation so unsatisfactory that he decided in June to withdraw from Peking to old Mukden. It was on this trip back to the Manchurian capital that Chang Tso-lin was fatally injured by an explosion caused in the train he and his suite were travelling.

Upon the death of Chang Tso-lin the control of Manchuria passed to his son, Chang Hsueh-liang who, unlike his father, pursued a policy of reconciliation with the National Government at Nanking. When civil war broke out in 1930 between the Nanking Government and the coalition armies of Yen Hsi-shan and Feng Yu-hsiang, the young Marshal of Mukden observed neutrality, until a turn in the situation gave him a chance to make an armed mediation and a pretext to send his military forces beyond the Great Wall. The Manchurian forces took the first opportunity to take possession of the railway zones in both Chihli and Honan Provinces. These provinces were formally placed under Chang Hsueh-liang when he accepted office with the Central Government as Deputy Commander-in-Chief of the National Army.

Manchuria under its often agressive military ruler, Chang Tso-lin, for the most part remained free from political or other disturbance, though her military forces had more than once got within the Great Wall to engage in warfare of one kind or another. Under the strong ruling hand of Mukden it had preserved a peaceful order of things internally; and except at the time of Kuo Sung-ling's revolt in December, 1925, it had never been menaced externally. But Manchuria, under the rule of young Chang Hsueh-liang, was to involve itself in serious troubles of international character; first with Soviet Russia in 1929, and next with Japan in 1931.

Russia's Eastern Penetration

It was the Russian fur-hunters who blazed the trail across the vast country of Siberia in the 16th century. Their adventures, purely commercial in motive, proved so lucrative that they went farther and farther eastward until they penetrated through Siberia to the Behring Sea, and even across the straits of Alaska. These commercial men were followed by armed forces. The 17th century saw the presence of Cossacks on the Upper Amur, frequently engaging in warfare. In 1689 a treaty was concluded at Nerchinsk between Chinese and Russian envoys. It was the first treaty China made with a European nation; certainly the first foreign treaty relating to Manchuria. This historic treaty of Nerchinsk extended the Russian empire to the northern boundary of Manchuria along the Argun River, a tributary of the Amur, and from the mountain range of the Kamennul out to the Okhotsk Sea.

Russia never released the hold it had now on Manchuria. While the Peking Court was distracted by the trouble it was having with Britain and France, Muravieff, Viceroy of Eastern Siberia whose name was to rise with the Eastern policy of the Russian Empire, sectioned more than 12,000 Cossacks at strategic points along the Amur. Against this background he managed, with comparative ease, to wrest from China the now famous Aigun Treaty of May, 1858. It virtually gave away to Russia the whole vast territory north of the Amur River to the Behring Sea, and another large territory extending from the east of the Ussuri River as far as to the Sea of Japan and the Korean frontier, the present Maritime Province were placed under the common over-lordship of China and Russia.

In 1859 General Ignatieff entered Peking as the Russian Minister. In the autumn of 1860 the allied armies of Britain and France marched on Peking. The Imperial Court fled to Jehol, while the capital was in a state of extreme turmoil. The Russian Minister offered his services as intermediary. The effete Peking Court could accept neither his offer nor the terms of Britain and France. When the European troops had withdrawn upon ratification of the Tientsin treaties, Russia followed with the demand for what she called her services on behalf of China. The Peking Treaty of November, 1860, was the outcome. By this Russia assumed absolute control of the Maritime Province.

Russia now closed on Manchuria on the east as on the north, down to the mouth of the Tumen River on its Korean frontier. A foothold secured on the seaboard, Muravieff founded the port of Vladivostok on Peter-the-Great Bay, providing it adequately as a port for Russia's Pacific fleet.

Russian Treaties and Huge Undertakings

The Trans-Siberian Railway was logically a part of Russia's Imperialist policy in the Far East. The enterprising Emperor Alexander III had an able lieutenant in Sergey Yulyevich Witte who was appointed as Minister of State of Finance in September, 1892. With the position of Vladivostok secured, the construction of the Ussuri Railway connecting the new port with Habarovsk, had been begun in May, 1891. The Siberian Railway had now advanced into Trans-Baikalia. The situation not unnaturally suggested new possibilities. Russia conceived the idea of constructing a railway direct through Manchuria considering it as a short-cut to Vladivostok, in preference to her scheme of building a road following the course of the Amur River.

In 1894 Japan went to war with China. As victor Japan demanded cession of the Liaotung peninsula. It was so provided in the Shimonoseki Treaty. But the idea of China ceding the peninsula to Japan seemed to put a stick in the wheel of Russian diplomacy bent on further territorial penetration to the south. Witte, in view of the situation, initiated the now famous triple intervention of Russia, France and Germany. Japan had practically no choice but restore the Liaotung to China. It was also through the arrangements made by the same Russian diplomat that a certain French syndicate undertook to furnish China with a loan toward the end of paying the indemnity to Japan, this being a 4 per cent loan of 400,000,000 francs under a Russian guarantee. In the meantime, the Russo-Asiatic Bank was brought into being as an official organ to participate in financial activities in China.

Russia was alive to every occasion to advance her cause. By a series of acts adroitly managed she went on consolidating her position in China. In April, 1896 Li Hung-chang was sent to Russia to attend the Czar's coronation, a mission more important for the new agreement that the Russian Minister Cassini managed to obtain at the time. This pact, made in treaty form as the "Treaty of Alliance between China and Russia," was kept in strict confidence for many years, being only known apocryphally as the "Cassini Convention." Through this secret treaty providing for a Russo-Chinese alliance against Japan, Russia obtained formal consent of China to extend the Trans-Siberian Railway straight through Manchuria to Vladivostok. This railway, 919 miles in length and running through the heart of Manchuria, was known as the Chinese Eastern Railway, the company of the same name being organized in 1896. In August of the following year, work of construction was begun on this road which was to shorten the Trans-Siberian Railway exactly by 568 miles.

The contract for the construction and operation of the Chinese Eastern Railway was signed at Berlin between the Chinese Minister to Russia and the Russo-Asiatic Bank, in whose name the charter had been given. By the 5th article of the same Agreement, both civil and criminal jurisdiction in the railway zone was granted to the Chinese Eastern Railway Company, an arrangement tantamount to a consular jurisdiction. "Absolute and exclusive right of administration" in the Railway Zone, it was provided, should be given to the Company.

Russia now turned her eyes elsewhere. Not quite satisfied with Vladivostok which is ice-bound for more than six months of winter, she sought a better outlet on the sea. She had less than a year to wait. When Germany acquired the lease of Kiaochou harbour and the railway concession in Shantung Province in the spring of 1898, Russia likewise obtained, by a convention concluded in March of the same year, a lease of Port Arthur and Dalny (Dairen), and the adjacent territory and territorial waters for a period of 25 years. It was also agreed that the Chinese Eastern Railway Company should construct a branch line of 624 miles from Har-

bin to Dalny and to Port Arthur on the same conditions as those of the Chinese Eastern Railway, including civil and criminal jurisdiction and administrative power in the Railway Zone.

Russia lost no time in carrying out her programme with vigour and thoroughness. A railway to Dalny and a branch to Port Arthur were built; the latter place was reconstructed as a naval base, with an extensive system of fortification; the harbour and city of Dalny were constructed as a terminal of the branch line; the modern city of Harbin was built as a junction of the Chinese Eastern main line with its South Manchurian branch to Dairen. Russia had practically completed all these undertakings before the Russo-Japanese war broke out. She was said to have spent more than 188,000,000 roubles.

The following table is eloquent of the grandiose undertakings Russia carried out in these parts of Manchuria:

	Roubles
Construction of the Chinese Eastern Railway (including branch line to Port Arthur)	375,000,000
Additional expenses of construction	75,560,000
Dalny Harbour construction expenses	10,000,000
Dalny City construction expenses.	8,800,000
Dalny land purchase expenses ...	1,380,000
Port Arthur Harbour and City expansion expenses	17,400,000
Harbin City foundation expenses.	100,000,000
Total	588,140,000

In addition, many millions of roubles were spent on the fortification of Port Arthur, though the matter was kept in strict confidence.

The Boxer trouble of 1900 furnished Russia another excuse to garrison large military forces through Manchuria, materially strengthening her position there. In reply to the representations made by Japan, Britain and the United States, the Russian Government repeatedly assured them that her troops would be withdrawn, a promise that she never carried out. The situation in Korea had in the meantime become critical through Russian encroachment. Japan's sincere efforts to reach a friendly adjustment of the situation as regards Manchuria and Korea proved unsuccessful. The result was the Russo-Japanese War of 1904—5. By the Treaty of Peace made at Portsmouth, Russia ceded to Japan her railway from Changchun to Dalny and Port Arthur, together with the territorial lease of the Kwantung Peninsula.

Russia had to change her policy in the Far East after the war with Japan. What she retained of the railway was now to be managed more as a commercial undertaking. Her attention had now to be turned to the Balkan Peninsula and Morocco where the German activity had become menacing. Under the circumstances Russia saw wisdom in a friendly cooperation with Japan in Manchuria, a policy which materialized in her convention and treaty with Japan made respectively in 1907 and 1910. The scheme of double tracking the Chinese Eastern Railway was now abandoned, and instead Russia built the Trans-Amur Railway, establishing a direct railway line between Europe and Vladivostok within Russian territory throughout. This railway of 1,240 miles was begun in 1908 and completed in 1916 at a cost of 295,000,000 roubles.

Chinese Eastern Railway After Bolshevik Revolution

The Bolshevik Revolution in the autumn of 1917 had more disastrous effects upon Siberia than on European Russia. The country was politically convulsed, and economically paralysed. Chaotic conditions prevailed throughout the country. China lost no time in rising to the occasion. On December 13, 1917, Chinese military forces virtually seized a part of the Chinese Eastern Railway Zone. They were encouraged by the new policy of the Soviet Government which was so anxious to obtain Chinese recognition that it renounced "all rights, privileges and concessions" acquired in China by the former Czarist Government. In 1920 the Chinese authorities took a bold step in their attempt to recover military and police power as well as judicial and municipal administration in the Railway Zone. The Chinese attempt, however, proved futile through the creation of the inter-allied Railway Committee, formed by the representatives of Britain, France, Japan and the United States, which took charge of the operation and supervision of the Chinese Eastern Railway from January, 1919, to October, 1922. After the withdrawal of the allied military forces from Siberia in 1922, the new status of the Chinese Eastern Railway and its zone were established by two agreements made in May, 1924, at Peking between the Republics of China and Soviet Russia after protracted negotiations.

One of these agreements provided for the establishment of normal diplomatic and consular relations. The Soviet Government agreed to abandon its extraterritorial rights in China and to restore all concessions to China, and renounced its claim to the balance of the Boxer Indemnity. The contracting parties reciprocally agreed not to recognize any treaty with a third power affecting the sovereign rights of the other. With regard to the Chinese Eastern Railway it was agreed that Russia's economic ownership should be recognized, while political sovereignty in the Railway Zone, "such as judicial matters, and those relating to the civil administration, military administration, police, municipal government, taxation," etc., should be handed over to China.

The main feature of the other agreement in question was the Sino-Soviet joint management of the Chinese Eastern Railway, with five Russian directors and as many Chinese directors of the railway, however, Russian preponderance was guaranteed by the arrangement that the manager and one of the two assistant managers should be Russians, while China was to have but one assistant manager.

These were followed three months later by another agreement between the Soviet Government and the Government of the Autonomous Three Eastern Provinces which were at the time under the rule of Chang Tso-lin who refused to recognize the authority of Peking. This agreement signed on October 8 at Mukden, was practically the same as the previous agreements of Peking so far as the Chinese Eastern Railway was concerned. In both the Peking and Mukden agreements each party pledged itself against propaganda in the territory of the other. The only point of difference was seen concerning the period of concession of the Chinese Eastern Railway. While the Peking agreement made no reference to this point, the Mukden agreement provided that the time limit as provided in Article XII of the contract for the construction and operation of the Chinese Eastern Railway of September 8, 1896, should be reduced from 80 to 60 years. Regarding the redemption of the same railway, the Peking agreement want no farther than stating that "China may redeem the railway at some future time," while the Mukden agreement explicitly provided that China should obtain possession of the railway and appurtenant property without compensation at the end of 60 years." By the terms of the Mukden agreement, the Government Board of the Chinese Eastern Railway was reorganized with the appointment of directors and managers by both the Soviet and Mukden Governments.

Chinese Eastern Railway Under Sino-Soviet Management

The Sino-Soviet management which undertook the operation of the Chinese Eastern Railway was destined to experience a stormy career. Almost from the beginning the Soviet representatives on the Governing Board resorted to their own tactics. Wherever the board of directors was called to meet to consider some important questions, the Russian members consistently absented themselves, thus preventing the necessary quorum of seven. It was thought that Soviet Russia by such management contrived to leave the full control of the railway in the hands of the Russian general manager. As a matter of fact, the Soviet members seem to have taken such an attitude in order to avoid difficulties with the Chinese authorities who, being dominated at the time by the new national spirit of "Recovery of sovereign rights," were showing an attitude of growing aggression in their eagerness to live up to the order of the day. In January, 1926, when the general manager, Mr. Ivanoff, refused to transport Chang Tso-lin's soldiers without receiving advance payment of fares as prescribed in the Agreement of 1896, he was placed under arrest. The Soviet Government immediately issued an ultimatum, giving the Chinese three days to reconsider their act, and Mr. Ivanoff was released. However, in the following month the Russian Municipal Council at Harbin and other places within the Railway Zone were abolished and replaced with local Chinese administration. In September the Chinese authorities seized the ships of the Chinese Eastern Railway on the Sungari, occupying at the same time the offices and other shipping facilities on land. The educational administration maintained by the Railway Company within the Railway Zone was also taken over by the Chinese authorities. What is more, the Chinese police officials raided the Soviet Consulate in Harbin on May 27, 1929. The Chinese demands presented on this occasion included the following points: the Russian chief of the Commercial Department who did all the purchasing for the Railway Company, and the Russian chief of the Accounting Department, should be replaced by Chinese; the telephone and telegraph system in the Railway Zone should be incorporated in the Chinese system; all lands controlled by the Company within the Zone should be returned to China; and the mines and forests owned by the Company should be surrendered to China. The police raid on the

Soviet Consulate, however, was a matter not to be dismissed lightly. It was inevitable that there should arise serious dispute between China and the Soviet Union. For a period of more than half a year, the Chinese Eastern Railway, an important link in the international traffic chain, was seriously menaced and often disturbed, under the circumstances which eventually developed into open warfare.

JAPAN IN MANCHURIA

Japan on the Scene

Although Japan's relations with Manchuria began early in the 8th century when she opened trade with the Kingdom of Pohai, relations that were to continue more than two centuries, it was not till the time of the Sino-Japanese war of 1894—95 that Japan came to regard Manchuria as a political proposition of international importance. In the course of the war with China which was caused by a controversy over Korean independence and lasted six months, the Japanese armies took possession of the southern parts of Fengtien (Mukden) Province from the Yalu River to the Liao River at Newchwang. Port Arthur and Weihaiwei successively fell. The Japanese forces were preparing for an attack on Peking, when the war ended by the Treaty of Shimonoseki of April 17, 1895.

By the same Treaty China ceded to Japan in perpetuity the territory south of the line of demarcation drawn from the mouth of the river Yalu to Yingkow (Newchwang) through Fenghuang and Haicheng, a region commonly known as the Liaotung Peninsula, covering an area of about 10,582 square miles. At this moment Russia, France and Germany stepped in and advised Japan "in a spirit of cordial friendship" to restore Liaotung to China, concentrating at the same time their naval forces in the North China waters. Under the circumstances Japan had no choice but to follow their "advice" and return the same territory to China.

The Shimonoseki treaty of peace, if it benefitted Japan nothing by way of territorial acquisition, at least served to pave the way for her commercial activity in China after the war. It gave Japan a chance to have access to ports and waterways which had hitherto remained closed. Japan seized this opportunity to open China to world commerce. By the terms of the above mentioned treaty, foreigners were able to "engage in all kinds of manufacturing industries in the open cities, towns and ports in China." Until this time Newchwang had been the only port in Manchuria opened to foreign trade, and Japan's trade through this port had been practically insignificant.

What was the first and foremost to attract Japanese attention in Manchuria was bean and bean cake. They discovered the great commercial possibility of the former as material for foodstuff manufacture and that of the latter as rice-field fertilizer. Bean cake had till this time had its only outlet in South China where it was used on the sugar plantations as fertilizer. The Japanese farmers who had been buying expensive fish manure now turned to this bean product so eagerly that Japan was buying by 1899 this stuff to the amount exceeding her total export to South China. It was through the export of bean cake that Manchuria rose in importance in the commercial scale of Japan, stimulating at the same time other lines of merchandise. Up to the time of the Russo-Japanese war, Japan, Great Britain and the United States accounted for the major part of the foreign trade of Newchwang. Japan was the heaviest purchaser of Manchurian products, while Great Britain and the United States were the largest suppliers of cotton goods.

Russo-Japanese War

Russian designs upon the Far East became vividly clear soon after the triple intervention. In March, 1898 she leased the Kwantung Peninsula, the southern part of the Liaotung Peninsula, from which she had helped China to oust Japan but three years before. When the Boxer trouble broke out in 1900, the Russian troops occupied Newchwang and the city of Mukden, placing the former place under the administration of the Russian consul. While peace negotiations were in progress at Peking, the world heard a surprising report that Russia, by a new convention with China, was planning to close Manchuria to all foreigners except her own nationals. In view of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance which was made just about a year later as a check on Russian encroachment, and in view also of the protests made by other nations, the Russian Government, by the Convention of April 8, 1902, modified its demand in respect of Manchuria and promised to evacuate the territory; a promise that it never carried out. In the spring of the following year Russia, again assuming an aggressive attitude, demanded for her evacuation a series of conditions, which Japan regarded as contrary to the principle of equal opportunity for

other nations and also an infringement of Chinese sovereignty. Russia's growing military activity not only in Manchuria but in northern Korea, and her strengthening of naval forces in the Far Eastern waters left her true design no longer in doubt. Japan's interests, political and economic, which she had acquired in Korea subsequent to her war with China, were now seriously menaced by Russian encroachment. Japan's consistent efforts to arrive at a peaceful settlement of the questions at issue in Manchuria and Korea by diplomatic negotiations, eventually proved unsuccessful. On February 5, 1904, Japan took independent action to safeguard her "established rights and legitimate interests" in those countries, and followed it with a formal declaration of war against Russia.

After a series of successful fighting, the Japanese troops drove back the Russians across the Manchurian plains. The Japanese had advanced as far north as Changchun, when through the mediation of the American President, peace was made on September 5, 1905, by the conclusion of the Treaty of Portsmouth. In this war with Russia, Japan lost 120,000 lives and spent 2,000,000,000 yen. Instead of an "indemnity" Japan asked Russia for "reimbursement" of the cost of the war, and obtained but 100,000,000 roubles in payment of Japan's expenses incurred by caring for the Russian prisoners of war. By the Treaty of Portsmouth Russia transferred to Japan her lease of the Kwantung Peninsula, the railway between Port Arthur and Changchun and its branches as well as the coal mines along the railway, together with various rights appertaining thereto. This was followed by the Treaty of Peking, signed on December 22, 1905, which was concluded "to obtain the consent of the Chinese Government" concerning the above-mentioned transfers to Japan. By an additional agreement, China also gave Japan "the right to maintain" and "improve the military railway line between Antung and Mukden" built during the war by the Japanese troops, so as to make it "fit for the transport of the commercial and industrial goods of all nations." By a protocol appended to this treaty, China pledged herself to Japan "not to construct any main line in the neighbourhood of and parallel to" the South Manchuria Railway, "or any branch line which might be prejudicial to the interest of the above-mentioned railway."

Japan's Open Door Policy

Japan, since the earliest days of her entry into Manchuria, has been consistently following the open door policy. Her earliest effort in the same direction was seen in the agreement she made with China supplementary to the Peking Treaty of 1905. By the additional agreement, Japan caused China to open 10 cities and towns in Manchuria, amongst which the more important are Liaoyang, Hsinmintun, Tiehling, Kirin, Harbin, Tsitsihar, Aigun and Manchouli. The question of maintaining equal opportunity for all nations and the territorial integrity of China, which Japan had declared to be her policy in Manchuria and in following which she envisaged no little trouble, a special commission was appointed in November 1905 for the purpose of studying the lines along which Japanese enterprise in Manchuria should be directed. This commission which was known as the Post-bellum Enterprise Commission consisted of Marquis (now Prince) Saionji, the then Prime Minister, Baron (later Count) General Kodama, Chief of the General Staff, and chiefs of other departments concerned. The fundamental principles recommended by this Commission, which was settled on and announced after Marquis Saionji's visit to Manchuria, consisted of the following points; namely, to maintain Chinese sovereignty and equal commercial opportunity; to encourage joint enterprises of Japanese and Chinese; and to supersede Japanese military administration by civil Chinese administration as quickly as possible. This policy was submitted to a council of Cabinet Ministers and Elder Statesmen before the Imperial Throne on May 22, 1906, and was formally approved.

On June 7, 1906, the South Manchuria Railway Company was formally organized, and took over the management of the newly acquired railways in Manchuria from the military who had in the meantime attended to their operation. In the following month, July 30, 1906, an Imperial Ordinance was promulgated for the establishment of the Government-General of Kwantung, which placed the leased territory under its civil administration, superseding the military administration hitherto conducted by the army authorities. This administrative change was made so early, although Manchuria, according to the Treaty of Portsmouth, could remain under the military administration of Japan and Russia until the end of March, 1907, if so desired. Japan's action was accounted for by her eagerness to see the Open Door in Manchuria under Chinese administration. The preliminary agreement relating to the restoration of Newchwang was signed at

Peking on October 2, 1906. The final memorandum was signed on December 5 and the Japanese military administration was withdrawn the next day, handing all Customs administration to the Chinese authorities.

On August 22, 1906, the Japanese Government informed the Powers of the formal opening of the port of Dairen as a free port as from the first day of next month. An agreement was signed at Peking on May 30, 1906, by which the Chinese Customs Office was established at Dairen on July 1, and merchandise brought there by sea was to enter free of duty, excepting those goods proceeding beyond the Leased Territory, which were levied on by the Chinese Customs.

International Controversies

It is not unnatural that Japan, in the course of development of her interests in Manchuria, has had to deal with a number of international issues of controversial character. Some of them are very significant for the light they throw on the lines of Chinese diplomacy with which Japan has had to contend at one time or another, and which was later to culminate in the policy of the Mukden rulers to be pursued until their downfall in 1931.

The first of such an instant occurred in 1907, when Japan learned, to her surprise, that China was about to grant a British firm, Pauling and Co., a concession to finance the construction of a 50 mile railway from Hsinmintun to Fakumen, with the ultimate right to extend it as far as Tsitsihar, 400 miles further north, on the Chinese Eastern Railway. Japan repeatedly protested against the concession in question on the ground that it would violate the terms of the protocol attached to the Peking Treaty of 1905, by which China agreed not to construct any line "in the neighbourhood of and parallel to the South Manchuria Railway." When the contract for the same concession was signed in November despite Japanese repeated protests, Japan promptly opposed it. In February, 1908 she proposed to China a plan of compromise, by which she engaged to endorse the Chinese plan if the latter should agree to extend the contemplated line to Tiehling or some other point to be selected on the South Manchuria Railway. China, however, refused to accept this, suggesting that the question be referred to the Hague Tribunal. When Japan refused to follow China's suggestion, the matter was brought to a deadlock, never to be taken up again.

In 1909 the South Manchuria Railway had trouble with the Chinese authorities when it began in January to convert the narrow-gauge line between Mukden and Antung to one of standard gauge, the right to do which was granted Japan by the protocol appended to the Treaty of Peking of 1905. After unsuccessful negotiations lasting several months, Japan sent to China on August 6, 1909, an ultimatum notifying that she would take independent action carrying out the undertaking which she believed to be her treaty rights.

Another source of controversy between Japan and China was concerning the question of the Korean boundary, involving the Chientao District, lying to the north of the river Tumen. Dispute arose as to the rightful possession of this district, covering an area of some 1,550 square miles, with a population which was in 1909, 82,999 Koreans and 27,371 Chinese. In the years 1885 and again in 1887, a "Boundary Commission" was despatched to this district by both the Korean and Chinese Governments, but they failed to reach any settlement as to the long standing question of the frontier. In the meantime the Korean settlers of the district became subject to many forms of maltreatment under Chinese administration, on one hand, and, on the other, to not infrequent visitations of the Manchurian bandits. The Koreans constantly asked their home Government for protection. This state of affairs went on until the establishment of the Japanese Protectorate in Korea, when she took up the matter with Peking.

With all these controversial questions pending, the relations between Japan and China were becoming anything but assuring. However, in view of the situation and of the importance of maintaining peace in the Far East, the two Governments finally came to an understanding and signed on August 19, 1909, a memorandum relating to the Antung-Mukden Railway, by which China recognized Japan's right to reconstruct the same railway. This was followed a few days later by two conventions, one of which is known as the "Convention Relating to Manchuria" and the other the "Convention Relating to Chientao."

By the first of these conventions, China engaged to consult Japan beforehand on any question of railway extension, where the interests of the two countries were likely to conflict, as for instance in the case of the proposed Hsinmintun-Fakumen Railway. Satisfactory agreement was also reached concerning other pending questions, such as, recognition of a branch line of the South Manchuria Railway, Tashichiao to Yingkow, extension of the Peking-Mukden Railway up to the wall of the latter city, and the coal mines of Fushun, Yentai, etc.

By the convention relating to Chientao, Japan waived Korea's long-standing claim to the Chientao District, recognizing China's territorial sovereignty therein. In return for this concession, China agreed to open four towns in Chientao to international trade and residence, a concession to the demand that Japan had made according to her unchanging policy of the Open Door in Manchuria. Japan also took the initiative in withdrawing her extraterritorial jurisdiction in China by recognizing Chinese law and jurisdiction over the Korean settlers in the Chientao District, while China on her part recognized land ownership by Koreans and pledged herself to protect Korean rights "equally with those of Chinese subjects".

Four-Power Consortium

With the international financial consortium consisting of France, Germany, Great Britain and the United States, Japanese and Russian banks joined in 1912, with the reservation that they would withdraw in the event of the proposed business appearing to prejudice their national interests in Manchuria and Mongolia. In 1913, however, the American banks withdrew from the Consortium, which lost still another member when Germany withdrew upon the outbreak of the European War.

In 1918, however, the United States Government proposed to Great Britain, France and Japan the formation of another banking consortium with the object of financially aiding China, in view of "the change in international relations, both diplomatic and commercial, brought about by the war." While the Governments of these countries were making study of the proposal, the bankers of these four countries met in Paris to consider the matter, even going into discussion of its terms. Mr. Thomas W. Lamont, of G. P. Morgan & Co., who was at the time in Paris as financial adviser to the American delegation to the Versailles Conference, was a leading figure on the occasion. Japan expressed herself quite in agreement with the American plan, except that "all rights and options held by Japan in the regions of Manchuria and Mongolia where Japan had special interests" should be excluded from the scope of the proposed undertaking, saying that such reservation was "based on the very special relations which Japan enjoys geographically and historically with the regions referred to, and which have been recognized by France, Great Britain, the United States and Russia on various occasions." However, the United States and Great Britain opposed the Japanese reservation regarding Manchuria and Mongolia.

The negotiations continued without tangible results until Mr. Lamont, with the approval of his Government, came to Tokyo when he found common ground for compromise with the Tokyo Government, and to this arrangement the other Powers agreed. On the basis of the same compromise, notes were exchanged between the representatives of the Japanese and American groups on May 11, 1920, covering in substance the following main points:—

(1) That the South Manchuria Railway and its present branches, together with the mines which are subsidiary to the Railway, do not come within the scope of the Consortium.

(2) That the projected Taonan-Jehol Railway and the projected railway connecting a point on the Taonan-Jehol Railway with a seaport, are to be included within the terms of the Consortium agreement.

(3) That the Kirin-Huining, the Chengchiatun-Taonan, the Changchun-Taonan, the Kaiyuan-Kirin (via Hailung), the Kirin-Changchun, the Hsimintun-Mukden, and the Ssupingkai-Chengchiatun Railways are outside the scope of the joint activities of the Consortium.

Washington Conference and Nine-Power Treaty

The Washington Conference, which was in session from November 12, 1921 to February 6, 1922, was important, apart from the question of disarmament it dealt with, for the part it played in disposition of questions bearing on the Far East. At the first opportunity given, the Chinese delegation demanded in strong form readjustment of a series of international arrangements existing in their country. At the meeting on November 29 of the Committee on Pacific and Far Eastern Questions Mr. Alfred Sze, a Chinese delegate, demanded that all "unauthorized" foreign troops, police and telegraph and wireless systems should be withdrawn from Chinese soil. Mr. Hanihara, of the Japanese delegation, stated in reply that while Japan was willing to withdraw her troops from China proper as soon as conditions should warrant, it was impossible for Japan "to forego the right, or rather duty, of maintaining railway guards in Manchuria, whose presence is duly recogniz-

ed by treaty."

Again at the meeting of the same Committee on December 3, Mr. Wellington Koo, of the Chinese delegation, reiterated the Chinese demand for annulment and termination of the foreign leaseholds, with particular reference to the Japanese leaseholds in Manchuria of Kwantung, including Port Arthur and Dairen. To this Mr. Hanihara replied saying that Japan had "no intention at present to relinquish the important rights of the leaseholds which she has acquired lawfully and at no small sacrifice."

At the meeting on December 14, of the Committee, Mr. C. H. Wang, another member of the Chinese delegation, strongly urged in strong terms that "the treaties and Exchange of Notes of 1915" be "reconsidered and cancelled." In reply Mr. Hanihara said that any question, if there was, of the "validity of the Treaty or Agreements of 1915, or the change or abrogation thereof," should be taken up, and at the Conference, but between Japan and China. At the meeting of the Committee on February 2, Baron Shidehara, of the Japanese delegation, anticipating the further discussion of the same question, issued a statement to the effect that the Japanese delegation, while appreciating the difficult position of the Chinese delegation, could not concur to the procedure taken by China "with a view to cancellation of an international engagement which she entered into as a free sovereign nation." It was also stated that "if it should once be recognized that rights solemnly granted by treaty may be revoked at any time on the ground that they were conceded against spontaneous will of the grantor, an exceedingly dangerous precedent will be established, with far-reaching consequences upon the stability of the existing international relations in Asia, in Europe and everywhere."

However, in view of certain changes seen in the situation since the conclusion of the Treaties and Notes of 1915, the Japanese delegation took occasion to declare in regard to Manchuria as follows:

(1) Japan is ready to throw open to the joint activity of the International Financial Consortium recently organized, the right of option granted exclusively in favour of Japanese capital, with regard first, to loans for the construction of railways in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, and, second, to loans to be secured on taxes in that region. But it is understood that this declaration by no means affects the understanding arrived at by the exchange of Notes in connection with the Consortium Agreement of 1920.

(2) Japan has no intention of insisting on her preferential right under the Sino-Japanese arrangements in regard to questions concerning the engagement by China of Japanese advisers or instructors in political, financial, military or police matters in South Manchuria.

Baron Shidehara, in concluding his statement, said that Japan, in coming to this decision, had been guided "by a spirit of fairness and moderation, having always in view China's sovereign rights and the principle of equal opportunity."

Japanese Railway Undertaking For China

In view of great agricultural possibilities of the vast areas of Eastern Inner Mongolia on one hand and of the lumber industry in the wooded areas of Kirin Province on the other, the Chinese authorities of the Three Eastern Provinces began to formulate toward 1925 an extensive programme for railway construction. The main point of their new scheme was to establish efficient lines of communication between the capital cities of the three provinces. The first contract made will the South Manchuria Railway was for the construction of the Taonan-Anganki Railway, 143 miles long. This road, crossing the Chinese Eastern Railway at Angangki, was to connect Tsitsihar, the capital of Heilungkiang (Amur) Province, with the South Manchuria Railway at Ssupingkai via the Taonan-Ssupingkai Railway. The construction work was commenced in June, 1925 and completed in July of the following year. It was provided in the contract that should the Chinese Government fail to pay the expense of construction within one year after the completion of the line, the outstanding amount should be converted into a railway loan.

Another line constructed under contract with the South Manchuria Railway Company is the Kirin-Tunhua line, covering 130.4 miles, being a part of the Kirin-Huining line of 260 miles, which was to have connected the capital of Kirin with the Korean railway at Huining. Of the capital for building the Kirin-Huining line which was to have been furnished by three Japanese chartered banks, an amount of 10,000,000 yen was advanced to the Chinese Government at interest of 7½ per cent per annum. However, owing to political disturbances in China, the construction of this railway was left eventually to be undertaken after the birth of

the new state of Manchoukuo.

By a contract signed on December 24, 1926, the South Manchuria Railway Company undertook the construction of the Kirin-Tunhua line, running 130 miles west of Kirin at a cost of 24,000,000 yen. Work was started in June 1926 and completed in October 1928. It was agreed in this instance, too, that if the cost of building this railway should not be paid within one year after its completion, the amount should be converted into a railway loan. The construction of this line covered exactly one half of the proposed line between Kirin and Huining (Kainei), Korea.

In 1927 Mr. Jotaro Yamamoto, the then President of the South Manchuria Railway Company, visited Marshal Chang Tso-lin at Peking, where he headed the Military Government of the Chinese Republic, and concluded a preliminary control for construction for China of five railway lines. They were (1) the remaining half of the Kirin-Huining Railway, (2 Changchun-Talai Railway via Fuyu, (3) Taonan-Solun line, (4) Kirin-Wuchang line, and (5) Yenki-Hailin line. The formal contract for building the first two lines was signed on March 15, 1929, and the work of construction was to be commenced within one year. Nothing, however, was done on this line, since Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang, succeeding to the ruling power of Manchuria, showed no disposition to execute the contract made by his late father.

Japanese Investments in Manchuria

Japanese investments in Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, as may be expected, increased in proportion as her relations with these regions developed in industrial and economic lines, as chiefly seen in manifold activities of the South Manchuria Railway Company. At the end of March 1931 the Japanese investments were officially returned as totaling over 1,715,000,000 yen.

Table 1. Japanese Investments in Manchuria

(Up to Mar. 31, 1931)

Investors	Items of Investment		Amount (Yen)
South Manchuria Railway Company	Direct Undertakings	Railway	270,230,960
		Railway Workshops	6,465,032
		Harbours and Wharves	83,200,948
		Coal Mines	117,871,977
		Oil Shale Plant	8,824,461
		Iron Works	27,716,716
		Chemical Fertilizer Manufacturing Plant	50,939
		Sanitation	15,842,006
		Education	14,304,671
		Municipal Undertakings	146,125,530
		Others	51,435,966
		Total	742,069,206
	Securities of affiliated Companies and Public Bonds		93,391,089
	Loans to Chinese Railways and for Encouraging Industries		69,185,869
	Cash Advanced for Contract Construction of Chinese Railways, Deposits, Uncollected Credits, etc.		158,158,384
	Total		320,735,342
	TOTAL		1,062,804,548
Japanese Government's Guarantee	Loans to Chinese Government		98,730,823
Japanese Corporations	Loans to Chinese Government and Individuals		20,282,080
Japanese Corporations	Capital Funds invested by Corporations		439,003,410
Japanese Individuals	Capital Funds invested by Individuals		94,991,560
	Total		554,277,050
GRAND TOTAL			1,715,812,421

References: Table 1—South Manchuria Railway Co.

CHAPTER III

RACES AND TRIBES

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 palæolithic 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 Hsichens, 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, this 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 Chitzû 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.

Tunghus.—This tribe next appears in history towards the close of the Chou dynasty (1122—255 B.C.). Tunghu—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 horse. 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 Tanshihhuai the Sienpis rose to power. Their royal court was set up near Changchiakou. 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 above 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 at "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 Fufu 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 Chumêng 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 Vladivostock. 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 three 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 enaged 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 import 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 Chingpaishan. They were known to Cathy 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 Pienching, 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 Ilan, 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 Manchu 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 foot-binding, 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 Japanese 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 Ainos 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 Sienpis and Wuhuans, 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 Sienpi 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 Wuhuans, 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 soldeirs 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 Jenghis Khan is said to have been offspring of this tribe. They are not tall of staure, 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 yellowish 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 Baikal 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

FOUNDING OF MANCHOUKUO

As a result of the downfall of Chang Hsueh-liang in Manchuria, subsequent to the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese conflict in September, 1931, a movement for independence was started in many parts of the country. This movement resulted in the establishment of independent or self-governing organs of administration in important localities under such men as Yuan Chin-kai of Mukden, Tsang Shih-i of Mukden, Hsi Chia of Kirin, Chang Ching-hui of Harbin, Kan Chao-shan of Peishan-Taonan, Kan Chang-shan of Ssupingkai and others. They became leaders of this movement in their respective localities. In Inner Mongolia, the sentiment for independence also became very strong.

In the latter part of September, 1931, shortly after the outbreak of the Mukden incident, some Manchurian newspapers reported that the Commander of the Japanese army in Kwantung had dispatched a messenger to Chang Hsueh-liang at Peking, requesting him to return to Mukden and take charge of the affairs of the Three Eastern provinces. When this report was published, those connected with the movement for creation of a new state in Manchuria and Mongolia, promptly expressed their objection to the return of Chang Hsueh-liang and made an appeal to the Japanese Commander. In this appeal, signed by a number of legal bodies and representatives of Liaoning (Fengtien) Province, they objected to Chang Hsueh-liang's return on the grounds that his administration had brought about a general state of disorder and corruption in Manchuria and Mongolia.

Transitional Measure

As a transitional measure what was known as the Local Order Maintenance Committee was organized. On November 7, the Committee issued the following announcement to apprise the public of its temporary assumption of administration in Liaoning Province:

"Since the outbreak of the recent incident, the administration of the province has been suspended, and the Committee has undertaken the maintenance of order. Apart from the question of inquiring into what has taken place or what is likely to occur in the future, this Committee takes over the administration of the province in an effort to protect its inhabitants The Committee is endeavouring to sever relations with the former Chang Hsueh-liang government and the Nanking Government, to safeguard the people in their work, to define the duties and functions of the officials, and to enable the people to be at ease and observe laws. We hereby declare to the people that all central government offices as well as prefectural offices should strictly observe the orders of this Committee. Dated November 7. The Committee: Yuan Chin-kai, Yu Chung-han, Chang Cheng-chi, Chin Liang, Kan Chao-hsi, Weng En-yu, Ting Chien-hsiu, Kao Yu-chun."

In Kirin also, a similar movement became active, and the Governor of the Province announced the principles of the new administrative policy which was to be based upon the wishes and interests of the people. The leaders of this movement conceived a plan of unifying Manchuria under a government independent of the Nanking Government or of the influence of Chang Hsueh-liang. On January 17, 1932, these leaders met at Mukden and made basic arrangements for the establishment of a new government.

The first practical step towards the realization of this scheme took shape at the "State Founding Conference" held at Mukden for three days, February 16 to 18. Those present at this conference were Tsang Shih-i, Ma Chan-shan Yu Chung-han, Hsi Chia, and Chao Hsin-po and it was called the conference of the "Five Big Leaders." At this conference, all important preparations for the formation of a new state in Manchuria were completed. On February 25, the Executive Committee, on the founding of a new government, made an epoch-making announcement, declaring that the new state to be formed in Manchuria would be called "Manchoukuo" and the new era would be called "Tatung." Also it was announced that Pu Yi, the former Emperor of China, would be installed as Chief Executive of the new state. The Executive Committee then announced the organic law governing the formation of the new Manchurian state.

Declaration of Establishment of the New State

The declaration of the establishment of the new government in Manchuria was formally made on March 1, and it marked the founding of a new nation in Manchuria and Mongolia. On March 1, all Manchuria feted the birth of the New State. The declaration of the establishment of Manchoukuo by the Government of Manchuria reads as follows:

"March 1st, 1932
(First Year Tatung)

"The Territory of Manchuria and Mongolia is a region remote and isolated on the Continent of Asia. In the records of the past, it is noted that its history is long; that the country often experienced unifications and disruptions within its border; that the soil of the land is fertile and that the people had exhibited honesty and simplicity in their manners and customs. After, however, opening the country to intercourse with outside countries the population increased in number and the products in volume, thus turning the country into a land of abundance and promise. On the contrary, since the establishment of the Republic following the Revolution of 1911, the military factions of the Eastern Provinces, taking advantage of civil wars in China proper, usurped administrative power and brought the Three Eastern Provinces under their control. Twenty years will have passed since the revolution, during which time warlords have sprung up in succession who, completely disregarding the welfare of the people, indulged themselves in greed, extravagance and dissipation. While they were bent upon the pursuit of self-interest and greed, the people, on the other hand, were subjected to extreme torture with the burden of over-taxation at the will of the war-lords. As a result the currency system was completely ruined, and the business conditions of the country became stagnant and finally ruined.

"At such a critical moment, however, the warlords, giving rein to their ambition, advanced their army south of the Great Wall, thus causing unnecessary strife and killing and wounding a large number of people. Although they met with reverses many a time, never did they come to a realization of their own folly. They lost the faith and respect of the foreign powers. They engaged in wars with neighbouring countries. With utter disregard of the spirit of friendliness and cordiality of foreign countries, they encouraged anti-foreign movements.

"Laxity in the police administration provoked disturbances in the country, permitting ravages by thieves and bandits. The acts of looting, arson and massacre by these lawless elements drove the entire population to terror, exposing them to hunger in all corners of the country. To leave these thirty million people of Manchuria and Mongolia in their hands means their exposure to atrocity and lawlessness, finally leading to their extinction. It is the people's desire to extricate themselves from the extreme danger and horror. Happily, through the aid of the army of a neighbouring country, it was made possible to expel these corrupt elements from the area where they had built a stronghold for many years past. Thus the home of misrule and corruption is now put to a thorough cleansing. This, we believe, is a Heaven-sent opportunity to the people of Manchuria and Mongolia for their resurrection. We should rise to the occasion and strive for our regeneration and rebirth with courage and determination.

"In turning our eyes to China proper we note that rival warlords have been engaged in intermittent warfare ever since the revolution took place. In later years despotic rule was exercised over the country by one party alone. Under the guise of the Three Principles of the People, the people are put to death in the name of Min-shen; their leaders are bent upon only self-interest and moved by greed while they go in the name of Min-chuan, and in their eyes there is nothing but their own party, although they profess the principle of Min-tsu. In this manner, though they profess that the country is ruled with fairness and equality, the practice of the party leaders is in utter contradiction to what they profess, thus not only deceiving themselves but the people at the same time.

"Of late years, internal strife has become frequent, with rivals aiming to partition each other's territory. It is to be noted that even the existence of the ruling party itself is now in danger. In these circumstances, it is impossible to expect from them consideration of the national welfare. At this time the country is overrun by Communist bands whose baneful influence is fast penetrating into the flesh of the people and into the very heart of the national government. Facing these deplorable conditions we are compelled to look back to the days of the Ching and Min dynasties and also to the Yao and Shun, and deplore to see how far away we have gone from the golden age in our history. What is important, this

feeling of ours is equally shared by friendly nations abroad.

"The result of twenty years' experiences has convincingly taught us that we must bravely face the realities and take the task upon ourselves to reform our national life and seek a revival of the old golden age. The fact must be borne in mind, however, that evil influences are still at work amongst us, and should we evade the issue at this time and fail to check the spread of Communism, it is but obvious that the destruction of the nation would be inevitable. At this critical moment unless the people of Manchuria and Mongolia awake in good season to a realization of the heaven-given call for their liberation from the most corrupt political state, their extinction will be also inevitable.

"After thorough deliberations for several months past and after a number of meetings held by the leaders of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol Provinces, Harbin Special District, and also those under the various banners of Mongolia, the conclusion was made with unanimity that they should look for a practical application of good rule rather than for mere expressions in words in administration of state affairs. Be the form of government what it may, the primary duty of the state is to give assurance of peace and security to the people.

"Manchuria and Mongolia had been, in the past, a separate state detached from China proper. In the present situation we are pressed to strive for national independence. In accordance with the will of the thirty million people, we hereby declare on this day that we sever our relations with the Republic of China and establish the State of Manchoukuo and that we hereby make a public proclamation of the fundamental principles on which this new state has been established.

"It is believed that statecraft should be founded upon the principle of Tao, or the Way, and Tao should be of Tien, or of Heaven. The principle on which this new state is founded is to follow the way of "Tien" (Heaven); that the people will have peace and security. The government must conform to the will of the people and not 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, including the races of the Hans, Manchous, Mongols, Japanese and Koreans; nationals of other countries as well may upon application acquire as permanent residents equal treatment with others and their rights shall be guaranteed thereby.

"It shall be the internal policy of our new state to renounce such policies as were adopted in the dark days of the past, to revise laws and enforce local autonomy, to draft able men into the service of the government and elevate officers deserving of promotion, to encourage industry, unify the currency system, open the national resources, maintain the standard of living, adjust and regulate the administration of the police, eliminate banditry, and to further promote and popularize education, to respect Li-chiao, the teaching of Confucianism and to apply the principle of Wangtao Chui and practice its teachings. 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 foreign policy of the new state shall be to seek and further promote cordial relations with foreign powers, win their faith and respect, strictly observing international conventions. The debt obligations accruing within the territory of Manchuria by treaty stipulation with various countries prior to the establishment of the new state shall be acknowledged according to the usage of international convention. Foreign investment by all nationalities uniformly shall be welcomed for the furtherance of trade and exploitation of natural resources, thus bringing the principles of the open door and equal opportunity and the like to a fuller realization.

"The foregoing articles hereby proclaimed are the fundamental principles whereon the new state has been established. The newly-formed government will assume all responsibilities from the day of the establishment of the new state, and the government hereby declare under oath made to the thirty million people, with sincerity and good faith, that these things shall all be fulfilled."

Simultaneously with the issuance of the above declaration, the Organic Law of the Central Government, the Law Guaranteeing the Rights of the People, and other regulations were promulgated. These laws and regulations were intended to be the basis of the provisional constitution pending the enactment of formal ones.

A new era dawned in Manchuria and on its thirty million people on March 9, 1932 when Pu Yi, the former boy-emperor of the Ching dynasty of China, was inaugurated as "Chieh Cheng" (Chief Executive) of the New State of Manchoukuo at Hsinking, the Capital, with proper ceremonies and public acclamation that marked the inauguration of the long-desired autonomy and the emancipation of the people from the tyranny of military rulers.

In the presence of all noted leaders of Manchuria, Provinces of Mongolia, the public and many foreign residents, the State Seal and the Seal of the Chief Executive were formally offered to Pu Yi. Upon the acceptance of the post of "Chieh Cheng" by Pu Yi, Cheng Hsiao-hsu read the public declaration of the Chief Executive which was as follows:—

Public Declaration of the Chief Executive

"Humanity should uphold morality. There are different races in the world, and if self-advancement is attempted by any race by oppressing another, morality will be lost. All mankind should respect humanity and justice. But there are international conflicts. To harm others and to profit oneself is against humanity and justice. In establishing this State, morality, humanity, and justice have been adopted as the basic principles. When racial differences and international conflicts are removed, we shall be able to establish an eternal reign of justice. All our people should therefore devote their efforts to the realization of this ideal."

The New Flag

Shortly after the ceremony of inaugurating the Chief Executive, that of hoisting the new national flag was held. The new flag of five colours, representing the five races or the Hans, Manchous, Japanese, Koreans, and Mongols, was formally hoisted while Pu Yi, other dignitaries of the new Government and the public assembled on the occasion saluted this national emblem of peace and unity.

On March 10, the following day, the Government of the new country was formally organized with the appointment of important officials. The new era was titled Tatung (great unity) and the territory governed by the new government of Manchoukuo consists of the former three provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang, and the new province of Jehol. Hsinking, the most important city located in the center of the territory, was selected as the new capital.

Foreign Minister's Note

Desiring to have the new state of Manchoukuo recognized by the Powers of the world Foreign Minister Hsieh Chieh-shih of Manchoukuo sent a note to all Foreign Powers on March 12, requesting recognition. The same note read as follows;

"Sir:

I have the honour to inform you that the Provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang and Jehol, the Tungsheng Special District and Mongolian Mengs (Leagues) under several banners, have united themselves to establish an independent government severing their relations with the Republic of China, thus creating "Manchoukuo" (State of Manchuria) on March 1, 1932.

"It must be known to you that the old military authorities, headed by Chang Hsueh-liang, who ruled the North-Eastern Provinces, sought only their self-interest and failed to give adequate consideration to the welfare of the people; further, that the entire populace was subjected to extreme suffering through outrageous exactions which were results of a corrupt discipline in official circles; and that the relations with foreign nations were greatly impaired through the enforcement of anti-foreign policies. Furthermore, in China proper there is to be found no unified and stable government due to constant factional strifes of a murderous nature among various military leaders of their own race, which makes it impossible for the people at large to enjoy a single day of peace.

"Thereupon, the people of Manchuria, at the opportune time of the downfall of the old military power, have established a new State with a unity of effort and a single purpose.

"The Government of Manchuria proposes to perfect the institutions of law, to establish security for the life of the people and to exert all possible power for the promotion of their happiness and peace.

As regards relations with foreign nations, it has been definitely decided that diplomatic intercourse should conform to the several principles herewith stated, that is to say;

"1. That the Government will conduct the affairs of the State according to the primary principle of good faith and confidence and according to the spirit of harmony and friendship, and pledges itself to maintain and promote international peace.

"2. That the Government will respect international justice in accordance with international laws and conventions.

"3. That the Government will take over those obligations incurred by the Republic of China by virtue of treaty stipulation with countries, in the true light of the law of nations, and discharge these obligations with good faith.

"4. That the Government will not infringe

upon the acquired rights of the people of foreign countries within the limits of the State of Manchuria, and further that their persons and properties shall be given full protection.

"5. That the Government welcomes the entry of the people of foreign nations into, and their residence in, Manchuria and that all races shall be accorded equal and equitable treatment.

"6. That trade and commerce with foreign countries shall be facilitated, thus contributing to the development of world economy.

"7. That with regard to the economic activities of the people of foreign nations within the State of Manchoukuo, the principle of the Open Door shall be observed.

"It is the earnest desire of this Government that your Government will fully understand the object of the establishment of the State of Manchuria of which you are herewith appraised and that formal diplomatic relations will be established between your Government and the State of Manchuria.

"With assurances of highest esteem and distinguished consideration,

Respectfully,

HSIEH CHIEH-SHIH
(Signature)

Minister for Foreign Affairs.

March Twelfth, First Year
of Tatung."

Upon the formation of the new government of Manchoukuo, all officials and people turned their utmost efforts to perfect the administrative organs and, employing many Japanese experts either as advisors or officials, many improvements were immediately effected over the old corrupt system. Particularly, with a view to improving the currency system, the Central Bank of Manchoukuo was established in May, and the unification of currencies was carried out by fixing the official exchange rates of all former currencies in circulation.

The Government of Manchoukuo also took over the Customs and the Postal Service, though not without some difficulty because of the objection made by the Nanking Government.

Despite the frequent activities of bandits and plainclothes men of Chang Hsueh-liang bent on disturbing the peace of the new State, the new country has seen a career of steady progress.

Recognition By Japan

The State of Manchoukuo was given the first formal recognition by Japan on September 15, 1932, when a protocol was signed between Manchoukuo and Japan.

The Protocol signed between Japan and Manchoukuo on September 15, 1932, is as follow:—

JAPAN-MANCHOUKUO PROTOCOL

"Whereas Japan has recognized the fact that Manchoukuo, in accordance with the free will of its inhabitants, has organized and established itself as an independent State; and

"Whereas Manchoukuo has declared its intention of abiding by all international engagements entered into by China in so far as they are applicable to Manchoukuo;

"Now the Governments of Japan and Manchoukuo have, for the purpose of establishing a perpetual relationship of good neighbourhood between Japan and Manchoukuo, each respecting the territorial rights of the other, and also in order to secure the peace of the Far East, agreed as follows:—

"1. Manchoukuo shall confirm and respect, in so far as no agreement to the contrary shall be made between Japan and Manchoukuo in the future, all rights and interests possessed by Japan or her subjects within the territory of Manchoukuo by virtue of Sino-Japanese treaties, agreements or other arrangements or of Sino-Japanese contracts, private as well as public;

"2. Japan and Manchoukuo, recognizing that any threat to the territory or to the peace and order of either of the High Contracting Parties constitutes at the same time a threat to the safety and existence of the other, agree to cooperate in the maintenance of their national security; it being understood that such Japanese forces as may be necessary for this purpose shall be stationed in Manchoukuo.

"The present Protocol shall come into effect from the date of its signature.

"The present Protocol has been drawn up in Japanese and Chinese, two identical copies being made in each language. Should any difference arise in regard to interpretation between the Japanese and the Chinese texts, Japanese shall prevail.

"In witness whereof the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed the present Protocol and have affixed their seals thereto.

"Done at Hsinking, this fifteenth day of the Ninth month of the Seventh year of Showa, corresponding to the fifteenth day of the Ninth month of the First year of Tatung.

(L.S.) NOBUYOSHI MUTO
Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan.

(L.S.) CHENG HSIAO-HSU
Prime Minister of Manchoukuo."

BIRTH OF IMPERIAL REGIME

In accordance with the basic principle which guided its birth and after two years of preparations, the State of Manchoukuo adopted an Imperial rule on the auspicious day of March 1, 1934, marking the second anniversary of its founding, and its Chief Executive Pu Yi was enthroned as first Emperor of the new Empire.

Simultaneously with the adoption of the Imperial rule, various governmental systems were revised. The name of the country remained the same as before as Manchoukuo but that of the era was changed from Tatung to Kangte. On and after March 1 the Empire of Manchoukuo is ruled over by an Emperor. With the honour and prestige of the Emperor unimpaired, His Majesty presides over the administration of the country as Ruler, gives sanction to various laws to be enacted, orders their promulgation, oversees the judicial authorities in their administration of justice and controls the army, navy and air force of the rising State.

The Premier's Statement

Prior to the enforcement of the Imperial rule Premier Cheng Hsiao-hsu of Manchoukuo issued a statement in which he expounded the general principle of the new rule to the 30,000,000 people of Manchoukuo and explained the great undertaking and ideal of constructing the new State to the world. A lengthy but historic statement as it is, it shall be partly reproduced herewith:

"Two years have passed since the Chief Executive took over his duties amid the general welcome and rejoicing of the people. During the period the Chief Executive devoted himself to the duties of the State in an effort to embody the Will of Heaven in building up a new state and bringing about prosperity and happiness to the people of the country.

"His work has been rewarded and peace and order have been restored. The friendship of the country with its neighbours has deepened and the knowledge of the people in general has been promoted. Manchoukuo's finances have been placed on a solid basis and its industries developed.

"An unprecedented bumper crop was realized last fall and the farmers, enriched by the bountiful harvests of the season, came to adore the benevolent rule. We find deep significance in the virtuous administration of the country by Chief Executive Pu-yi, which is in accord with the Will of Heaven which ordered the State of Manchoukuo to be built. The ideal of State construction is to obey Heaven and bring peace to the people. It is but natural that the Chief Executive, fulfilling the hopes of the people, should be enthroned as Emperor and complete the great undertaking of founding the new State. We may hope for the further prosperity of the country.

"On the auspicious day of March 1, the third year of Tatung, marking the second anniversary of the founding of the State, we have decided to enforce an Imperial rule in Manchoukuo and observe the ceremonies of Enthronement. The Enthronement of the Emperor is a natural culmination of the development of Manchoukuo founded in obedience to the Will of Heaven. Noble and virtuous as he is, the Chief Executive has ordered that His Palace be built only after all the government offices have been put up and that his Enthronement ceremonies be observed with simplicity. All these entirely accord with the high virtue of dealing with anxiety first and enjoying comfort after. The significance of the foundation of the State is fully manifest on all sides."

As is explained in the foregoing statement issued by Premier Cheng, the birth of the Empire of Manchoukuo with the Chief Executive enthroned as Emperor is a natural culmination of the spirit of the founding of Manchoukuo. The country was destined sooner or later to settle down as it has. The name of "Shissei," or Chief Executive, is the title which Tuan Chi-juei used and failed. Whether intentional or unintentional, the same title was used by the head of Manchoukuo. At the first announcement Manchoukuo was intended to be a Republic but the title of "Shissei" was a very ambiguous one. It is probable that the title was adopted for a temporary use during the transition days.

H. E. Pu-yi and those close to him must have considered the title as incomplete and felt the impression that the position was still insecure. This was responsible for various rumors about the possibility of Japan annexing Manchuria, or deserting Manchoukuo after finding it difficult to maintain it or Manchoukuo being dissolved and ultimately restored to China. It was actually indicated that no small anxiety was entertained by the people of Manchoukuo because of these rumors. Chinese circles were

calculated to suspect Japan of swallowing Manchoukuo and start undersirable propaganda about it. It was necessary that Manchoukuo should place the position of its head on a permanent basis at the earliest date possible and solidify the independence of Manchoukuo and thus dispel any unjustified suspicions and the anxiety of the people. It was fortunate the huge task of erecting the new State progressed rapidly and favourably during the short space of time. Especially did the political and economic work register progress at a faster pace than expected, fulfilling the requirements needed for the adoption of the Imperial rule.

Premier Cheng in an interview with newspapermen explained the reason most explicitly for the change of the national policy of Manchoukuo. He pointed out that China, ever since the adoption of the Republican rule, has been in a state of chaos, and declared: "In view of the constant chaos in which China proper finds itself, Manchoukuo has recognized that Republican form of government does not suit the Orient and decided to adopt the Imperial form of government."

CHAPTER V

POPULATION & IMMIGRATION

Introductory Remarks

One of the striking phases of Manchoukuo is the growth of the population in the last fifty years. Unlike Japan, more than a third of the inhabitants of what was known until recently as Manchuria, are immigrants from North China. In 1907 the population of Manchuria was estimated to be between sixteen and twenty-two millions; in December 1934 it was returned at over thirty one millions.

The great majority of the inhabitants are settled in Central and South Manchuria and 90 percent of them are farmers. Besides the native Manchous and Chinese there is only a sprinkling amount of foreigners, including Koreans, Japanese and Russians.

The flood of immigration into Manchuria started some three decades ago and in 1927 reached its peak when more than a million persons came into the country. Since 1929 the rate of immigration has fallen off considerably and in 1932 total arrivals were under 500,000. The overwhelming majority of the immigrants are Chinese. Projects towards implanting Japanese immigrants in Manchuria were undertaken several times in the past, but the results have not been totally satisfactory. The Korean immigrants, however, are doing better and at present number about 680,000. Since the Manchurian Incident the Japanese have renewed their efforts at sending emigrants to Manchoukuo and in 1932 and 1933 a total of 1,000 Japanese settlers entered the country.

Manchoukuo claims about forty percent of the entire Japanese oversea population. At the end of 1934 the number of Japanese, not including the Koreans, in the Kwantung Leased Territory, the S.M.R. zone and the open marts, reached 398,317. A study of their occupations shows that most of them were engaged in business and industrial and communication activities. Very few were doing farming. This characteristic of the Japanese in Manchoukuo offers a marked contrast to those immigrants in Brazil, America and other lands, among whom farmers predominate.

At the end of 1933 the census of the Kwantung Government-General showed that of the entire population of 103,601 within the Leased Territory, 24,180 were merchants, leading all other classes. Those engaged in official duties and free occupations, numbered 23,451; those following industrial pursuits comprised 19,274. The communications industry claimed 18,178; other occupations, 8,839, followed by domestic employees, 4,621; and mining employees, 2,055. In addition 1,138 were engaged in farming, and 432 in fisheries. The latter comprised the smallest occupational group. The unemployed numbered 1,433.

The Japanese communities of the railway towns and the open marts outside the jurisdiction of the Kwantung Government-General had a total population of 38,657 at the end of 1933. Although accurate figures are unavailable, it is known that the merchant class predominated among them.

Before the establishment of Manchoukuo, the Japanese communities in Manchuria were practically limited to the Kwantung Territory, the railway zones and the open marts. With the birth of the new State, however, Japanese nationals began to spread to every section of the country, thanks to the freedom of residence, travel and business which was allowed them by the new regime.

The encouragement of agricultural emigrants to Manchoukuo by the Japanese Government is bringing more settlers of this class into the new State, but their number is only a small fraction of the other classes of Japanese who have swarmed to Manchuria since the Manchurian Incident. Most of these new arrivals are engaged in government service, communications, manufacturing, business and mining. Of those in government service the majority are employed by the Manchoukuo Government. The Manchoukuo State Railways are also using an increasing number of trained Japanese experts, especially since the purchase of the North Manchuria Railway (formerly the C.E.R.) by the Hsinking Government. The staffs of the

numerous industrial firms which have sprung into being during the past three years, are also mostly Japanese.

The Japanese population of Manchoukuo was 501,251 at the end of 1935. It is more than double the number of 248,373 at the end of 1930. In future it is believed that greater attention will be given by the Japanese Government to the mass emigration of agricultural settlers to Manchuria. Ambitious plans along this line have been from time to time reported in the press, but none of them have as yet been materialized.

Japanese Immigrants into Manchoukuo.

The most notable of the Japanese immigrants into Manchoukuo are those sent by the Department of Overseas Affairs, who are known as "self-guarding immigrants". Taking the opportunity of the growing interests of the Japanese in Manchuria due to the Manchurian incident, in February, 1932 the Department of Overseas Affairs drew up the outline of a plan for sending Japanese emigrants to Manchuria and has since sent four batches of emigrants. Then there are the Tenshoyen experimental immigrants represented by the To-a Industrial Company, Korean immigrants forming what are known as "safe agricultural districts," Tenrikyo settlements formed by Tenrikyo followers.

Immigrants By Department of Overseas.—A subsidy which is given by the Department of Overseas to the immigrants according to the progress of their colonization extends over four years. Its details per household are as follows:—

	yen
Passage	200
Livestock	75
Agricultural Implements	150
Housing	250
Clothing	30
Living	85
Total	790

Besides, a subsidy of ¥144,260 is granted to such public enterprises as primary schools, boarding houses, bath houses, etc., for every unit, or one thousand of these buildings.

First Batch of Immigrants.—The first batch of immigrants, 500 in number chosen from among ex-soldiers of under thirty years of age who had experience in agriculture representing eleven prefectures of North Eastern Japan was sent in February, 1933 to Yungfengchen. The district chosen for settlement covers an area of 26,000 cho, of which 18,000 cho is arable land. The soil, topography, climate and all other conditions are very favourable to farming. In the first year of immigration they cultivated such crops as barley, wheat, soya beans, small beans, millet, rice, potatoes, vegetables, etc. But, the total amount of these crops was as limited as 500 koku owing to such unfavourable causes as fighting with bandits, horses and cattle on the farms having to be devoted to other uses, prevalence of diseases among the farm workers, etc. From the second year of settlement, however, they began steadily to approach the stage of self-sufficiency, raising 1,600 koku of staple crops, 34,000 kan of potatoes, 100 kan of tobacco, 3,000 kan of beet sugar on the programme of bringing one cho of land under cultivation per capita. As for stock raising, there were 180 horses, 70 cattle, 350 sheep and 180 pigs. Besides, they made some agricultural manufactures. As on August 15, 1935 the number of these immigrants was reckoned at 563.

Second Batch of Immigrants.—The second batch of immigrants, who were also 500 in number, representing Tokyo, Chiba, Saitama and a few other prefectures were sent in July, 1933 to Tsihuli about seven ri south of Yungfengchen. This district covered an area of about 40,000 cho, of which 24,000 cho is arable. It is almost the same as Yungfengchen in the fitness for agriculture. In the first year of their settlement the immigrants had to confine their work on the farms to the raising of vegetables as the season for the cultivation of various cereals had been over when they arrived from home. On the other hand, they directed their efforts to the repairing of dwellings, the construction of walls against the attack of bandits, the gathering of fuel, road improvements, stock raising, etc. As at the end of 1935 the number of these immigrants stood at 297. This decrease in the the number of the settlers is due partly to some being killed in battle and some having withdrawn or having been evicted from the party.

Third Batch of Immigrants.—The third batch of immigrants numbering 300 were all under thirty-five years of age and represented sixteen prefectures. Of this number 259 were sent to Peitakou in October, 1934 and the rest or 50 in March, 1935. In 1935 they ploughed upland farms of 220 cho and paddy fields of 50 cho, totalling 270 cho. The results of their tillage were far better than those shown by the former settlers owing to their painstaking preparations.

Fourth Batch of Immigrants.—The fourth batch of immigrants who were special farming settlers for 1935, were intended to cover 500 houses to be quartered at Hataho and Chengtzuho which are both well suited for developing paddy fields.

These immigrants collected from all parts of the country were to have been settled in February, 1936. In view of satisfactory results being shown by the immigrants already sent, the Department of Overseas Affairs has worked out a scheme for sending a larger number of agricultural and economic immigrants beginning with 1936 and budgeted ¥1,000,000 for the purpose.

Tenshoyen Immigrants.—The Tenshoyen immigrants were originally chosen from among the unemployed cared for in the Tensho-Koku, Tokyo in February, 1932 under the support of the Social Affairs Bureau of the Tokyo Municipality and the Government of Kwantung Province. They first received practical training at Machiatun, Kwantung Province and in March, 1933 were migrated to the Tungliao Farm owned by the To-a Industrial Company. They are 89 in number at present. In the first year of their settlement they showed some net profits, thereby surpassing any of the Japanese settlements. The following year, however, they suffered so seriously from floods that they earned bare living only by susidiary occupations. The area under tillage in 1935 was 650 cho and the yield therefrom is estimated at 4,500 koku. As for stock raising, at present there are 80 horses, 55 cattle, 300 pigs. There is the possibility of raising about 10,000 sheep in the future.

Tenrikyo Village.—At Ashihho in the outskirts of Harbin there is a settlement known as Tenrikyo-Mura (Tenrikyo Village) formed by followers of Tenrikyo (See under Chapter on Religion in the Japan Section of the Japan-Manchoukuo Year Book). The first batch of settlers who numbered 205 and represented 43 houses were sent in November, 1934. This Tenrikyo-Mura is provided with a primary school, medical offices, cinema hall, a place of worship, telegraph and telephone apparatus and electric lights.

Korean Farming Immigrants

The immigration of Koreans to Manchuria with Chientao as a centre is very old in origin. Korean immigrants mostly worked on the paddy fields which are not suited for Chinese farmers. But the famine which had come at close intervals since 1920 had dealt a serious blow to these Korean farming immigrants. This, coupled with the frequent occurrence of battles caused great difficulties to them in the way of getting repayments from their Chinese debtors or securing credit. To make the situation worse, since 1929 they had suffered from a serious set-back of silver price and pressure brought to bear upon them by the Chinese authorities. The Manchurian incident offered them a rare opportunity to revive. They have well availed themselves of the opportunity thus offered. The authorities of the Government-General have not remained inactive. On the contrary, they have a plan for emigration of Koreans farmers to North Manchuria extending over a period of ten years and have estimated ¥50,000,000 as a necessary expenditure. On the other hand, directly after the Manchurian incident, the Government-General caused needy Korean farmers to set up a "safe farming village" by granting them a certain sum of money. These safe farming villages are now in four different places, namely, Yingkow, Tieling, Suihua, Hotung. The village at Yingkow was established in May, 1933. There are about 1,000 households and paddy fields are under tillage to the extent of 2 cho 4 tan per household. The results of farming for 1934 were very satisfactory as the rice crop was 2 koku 3 to per tan on the average. The Suihua farming village covers an area of 1,000 cho. The area of paddyfields is 2 cho 4 tan per household. At present there are 350 households. The area under plough for 1935 was 840 cho. Earnings are estimated at ¥420 per household. The rest of the Korean settlements are the same as the foregoing in style. The Tiehling settlement was started in 1932 with 190 households. The number of households increased to 233 in 1933 and to 242 the following year. The area under cultivation is 700 cho. The Hotung settlement was started in 1933 with 852 households including some local inhabitants. The number of their households increased to 1,000 in the spring of 1935. The area under tillage is 2,000 cho all representing paddy-fields.

New Immigration Companies

Sen-Man (Korean-Manchoukuo) Colonization Co.—The Government-General of Korea contemplates organizing a Sen-Man Colonization Company with a view to controlling the "safe agricultural villages" referred to above and also dealing with the emigration of Koreans to Manchoukuo in general. The Company is to be capitalized at ¥30,000,000 and guaranteed a 5% dividend by the Government-General. It is intended to settle 160,000 households of a million Koreans in the course of fifteen years.

Manchou Colonization Co.—The organization of the Manchou Colonization Company, which had

been pending for a long time, was at last materialized on December 13, 1935 when the Manchou Colonization Company Law was promulgated. The Company which is a Japan-Manchoukuo joint undertaking is capitalized at ¥15,000,000 and intended to settle 200,000 Japanese immigrants in North Manchuria with Ilan as a centre in the course of ten years.

Table 1.

(A) No. of Households (June, 1935)

Locality	Manchus	Japanese	Koreans	Foreigners	Total
Kirin Province	704,947	2,986	5,853	84	713,870
Lungkiang „	347,580	3,420	1,002	146	352,148
Heiho „	10,747	334	377	92	11,550
Sankiang „	155,030	393	2,497	22	157,951
Pinkiang „	691,382	749	8,296	46	700,473
Chientao „	229,012	2,499	75,173	56	106,740
Antung „	400,063	170	7,856	11	408,100
Fengtien „	1,482,134	2,542	13,197	318	1,498,191
Chinchow „	592,652	1,681	251	16	594,600
Jehol „	566,382	850	109	18	567,359
Hsinking Special Municipality	26,422	2,209	302	20	28,953
Harbin „ „	76,558	4,455	1,776	16,637	99,426
North Manchuria Special District	37,142	2,055	1,015	5,014	45,226
West Hsingan Province	82,674	55	59	6	82,794
South „ „	87,523	194	976	2	88,695
East „ „	10,251	46	15	109	10,421
North „ „	6,630	30	—	1,164	7,824
Total	5,307,138	24,668	118,754	23,761	5,474,321

(B) No. of Population (June, 1935)

Locality	Manchus			Japanese		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Kirin Province	2,561,128	2,196,228	4,757,356	6,087	3,687	9,774
Lungkiang „	1,217,245	944,892	2,162,137	5,624	3,272	8,896
Heiho „	32,689	17,362	50,051	442	299	741
Sankiang „	514,920	380,156	895,076	1,289	653	1,942
Pinkiang „	2,294,611	1,872,960	4,167,571	1,941	878	2,819
Chientao „	91,637	61,526	153,163	4,208	2,994	7,202
Antung „	1,517,022	1,219,145	2,736,167	354	202	556
Fengtien „	5,141,818	4,290,013	9,431,831	4,775	2,962	7,737
Chinchow „	1,747,341	1,523,131	3,270,472	3,260	2,269	5,529
Jehol „	1,422,301	1,184,171	2,606,472	2,877	1,158	4,035
Hsinking Special Municipality	84,098	52,819	136,917	4,417	3,007	7,424
Harbin Special Municipality	269,296	132,003	401,299	8,792	7,996	14,788
North Manchuria Special District	130,083	75,496	205,579	1,847	1,343	3,190
West Hsingan	219,810	182,001	401,811	105	42	147
South „	337,716	247,874	583,590	793	368	1,161
East „	32,747	23,418	56,165	270	86	356
North „	20,528	16,034	36,562	73	59	132
Total	17,634,990	14,417,229	32,052,219	67,154	29,275	76,429

Locality	Koreans			Foreigners			Grand Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Kirin Province	16,889	13,124	30,013	234	100	334	2,584,338	2,213,139	4,797,477
Lungkiang „	2,037	1,457	3,494	318	239	557	1,225,224	949,860	2,175,084
Heiho „	686	607	1,293	187	464	651	34,004	18,732	52,736
Sankiang „	8,627	6,577	15,204	50	110	160	524,886	387,496	912,382
Pinkiang „	23,741	15,686	39,427	83	57	140	2,320,376	1,889,581	4,209,957
Chientao „	228,394	210,699	439,093	143	82	225	324,382	275,301	599,683
Antung „	26,476	20,403	46,879	18	23	40	1,543,870	1,239,772	2,783,642
Fengtien „	37,552	32,024	69,577	508	378	886	5,184,654	4,325,377	9,510,031
Chinchow „	554	493	1,047	32	19	51	1,751,187	1,525,912	3,277,099
Jehol „	378	224	602	32	16	48	1,425,588	1,185,569	2,611,157

Locality	Koreans			Foreigners			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Grand Total
Hsinking Special Municipality	858	705	1,563	15	23	38	89,388	56,554	145,942
Harbin Special Municipality	3,957	3,288	7,245	29,190	30,943	60,133	311,235	172,230	483,465
North Manchuria Special District	1,238	1,357	2,595	5,340	2,075	7,415	138,508	80,271	218,779
West Hsingan	114	72	186	12	2	14	220,041	182,117	402,158
South „	2,914	1,683	4,597	3	4	7	341,426	247,929	589,355
East „	29	17	46	268	206	474	33,314	23,727	57,041
North „	—	—	—	3,672	2,700	6,372	24,273	18,793	43,066
Total	354,445	308,418	662,861	40,105	37,440	77,545	18,076,694	14,792,360	32,869,054

Table 2.

(A) No. of Households (Dec., 1936)

	Japanese	Koreans	Manchus	Foreigners	Total
Kwantung Province:					
Ryojun (Port Arthur)	2,872	38	19,608	12	22,524
Dairen;					
Dairen	18,397	269	27,238	317	46,221
Hsiaokangtzu	4,036	117	13,613	3	17,769
Hsiaohokou	7,510	144	22,494	100	30,248
Harbour	43	1	346	—	390
Total	29,986	531	63,691	420	94,628
Chinchow	565	21	18,797	1	19,384
Pulantien	421	34	24,285	—	24,740
Pitzuwo	401	27	22,153	—	22,581
Total	34,245	645	148,534	433	183,857
S.M.R. Zone:					
Wafangtien	1,025	20	1,906	—	2,951
Tashihchiao	1,196	49	1,107	—	2,352
Yingkow	1,001	155	186	2	1,344
Anshan	4,001	136	2,657	4	6,798
Liaoyang	1,218	57	1,013	4	2,292
Ssuchiatun	1,057	7	479	—	1,543
Mukden	13,770	232	2,939	208	17,149
Penhsihu	752	29	593	—	1,374
Fenghuangcheng	434	109	784	1	1,328
Antung	3,563	3,084	9,696	5	16,348
Fushun	4,621	824	9,666	9	15,120
Tiehling	892	34	624	—	1,550
Kaiyuan	626	492	3,024	—	4,142
Ssupingkai	1,529	149	2,380	5	4,063
Kungchuling	1,255	99	2,042	—	3,396
Fanchiatun	181	7	859	—	1,047
Hsinking	7,148	448	2,930	797	10,605
Grand Total	78,514	5,931	42,885	17	93,402
Total	44,269	6,576	191,419	750	277,259

(B) No. of Population (Dec., 1935)

	Japanese		Koreans	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Kwantung Province:				
Ryojun (Port Arthur)	6,562	6,222	27	96
Dairen:				
Dairen	45,198	41,284	817	666
Hsiaokangtzu	10,495	8,666	329	287
Hsiaohokou	18,719	16,958	218	305
Harbour	100	65	1	—
Total	74,512	66,973	1,365	1,258

	Japanese		Koreans	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Chinchow	1,264	1,089	81	58
Pulantien	869	781	80	106
Pitzuwo	786	691	73	62
Total	83,993	75,756	1,671	1,589
S.M.R. Zone:				
Wafangtien	1,922	1,685	42	56
Tashihchiao	2,515	2,087	119	132
Yingkow	2,201	1,985	439	380
Anshan	9,092	7,047	308	312
Liaoyang	2,452	2,167	154	156
Ssuchiatun	2,016	1,710	29	27
Mukden	33,550	28,014	1,262	533
Penhsihu	1,710	1,459	86	80
Fenghuangcheng	901	751	298	283
Antung	7,907	7,479	7,877	7,123
Fushun	11,485	10,148	2,421	2,165
Tiehling	1,677	1,426	143	77
Kaiyuan	1,343	1,226	1,372	1,150
Ssupingkai	3,628	2,936	410	351
Kungchuling	2,580	2,238	290	243
Fanchiatun	358	293	15	17
Hsinking	8,195	14,235	1,800	1,157
Total	103,622	86,886	17,173	14,242
Grand Total	187,615	162,642	18,844	15,822

	Manchus		Foreigners		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Kwantung Province:						
Ryojun (Port Arthur)	67,996	61,199	15	22	74,645	67,539
Dairen;						
Dairen	116,887	54,235	532	470	163,434	96,655
Hsiaokangtzu	56,273	21,019	9	15	67,106	29,987
Hsiaohokou	71,331	47,824	144	146	90,412	65,233
Harbour	1,496	467	—	—	1,597	532
Total	215,977	123,545	685	631	322,549	192,407
Chinchow	65,344	59,315	—	1	66,689	60,463
Pulantien	91,720	82,659	2	—	92,671	83,582
Pitzuwo	83,699	74,014	—	—	84,558	74,767
Total	554,746	400,768	702	654	641,112	478,738
S.M.R. Zone:						
Wafangtien	8,886	3,304	—	—	10,850	5,045
Tashihchiao	5,270	2,333	—	—	7,904	4,552
Yingkow	1,517	312	2	1	4,159	2,678
Anshan	14,410	4,752	15	12	23,925	12,123
Liaoyang	5,183	1,918	8	4	7,797	4,245
Ssuchiatun	1,806	914	—	—	3,941	2,651
Mukden	17,632	4,336	356	304	52,800	33,187
Penhsihu	12,373	1,162	—	—	4,169	2,701
Fenghuangcheng	3,289	1,872	5	—	4,493	2,906
Antung	29,943	17,661	81	6	45,538	32,269
Fushun	47,204	16,426	18	18	61,128	28,757
Tiehling	3,676	992	—	—	5,496	2,495
Kaiyuan	12,872	5,993	—	—	15,587	8,369
Ssupingkai	12,018	4,316	9	6	16,065	7,609
Kungchuling	9,254	3,782	—	—	21,132	6,263
Fanchiatun	4,256	1,528	—	—	4,629	1,838
Hsinking	22,202	5,193	177	136	42,374	20,721
Total	201,591	76,794	601	487	322,987	178,409
Grand Total	756,337	477,562	1,303	1,141	964,099	657,167

Table 3. Comparative population of the principal cities including the S. M. R. Zone in Manchoukuo (Dec. 31, 1934)

Mukden	
Manchurians	457,342
Japanese	68,029
Others	1,508
Total	526,879

Harbin	
Manchurians	334,663
Japanese	20,396
Others	64,420
Total	419,479
Hsinking	
Manchurians	181,882
Japanese	45,157
Others	1,284
Total	228,323
Antung	
Manchurians	168,047
Japanese	26,145
Others	38
Total	194,230
Kirin City	
Manchurians	136,555
Japanese	6,581
Others	114
Total	143,250
Yingkow	
Manchurians	135,756
Japanese	5,029
Others	90
Total	140,875

Table 4. Population of Cities in Manchoukuo (Dec., 1935)

Town	No. of households	Population			Population Per household	No. of Men per 100 women
		Male	Female	Total		
Hsinking Special Municipality	47,613	155,420	93,006	248,426	5.22	167.11
Harbin Special Municipality	94,579	291,408	166,971	458,379	4.85	174.53
Mukden City	80,635	279,735	163,494	443,229	5.50	171.10
Kirin City	24,769	75,000	53,754	128,754	5.20	139.52
Tsitsihar	19,426	59,248	37,404	96,652	4.98	158.40
Heiho	2,592	7,791	4,000	11,791	4.55	194.78
Chiamussu	6,953	22,892	14,368	37,260	5.36	159.33
Yenki	5,188	14,222	11,419	25,641	4.94	124.55
Antung	15,581	56,710	32,475	89,185	5.72	174.63
Chin-hsien	17,294	49,958	37,737	87,695	5.07	132.38
Chengteh	9,759	26,610	20,341	46,951	4.81	130.82
Huaiteh (Kungchuling)	3,283	9,619	6,707	16,326	4.97	143.42
Lishou	3,130	9,429	8,283	17,712	5.66	113.84
Ssupingkai	5,457	15,103	10,856	25,959	4.76	139.12
Changtu	3,443	10,670	7,915	18,585	5.40	134.81
Kaiyuan	4,564	13,729	11,647	25,376	5.56	117.88
Tiehling	8,953	26,816	19,738	46,554	5.20	135.86
Fushun	9,197	25,110	16,546	41,656	4.53	151.76
Penhsihu	2,893	10,105	6,419	16,524	5.71	157.42
Fengcheng	3,685	11,565	10,545	22,110	6.00	100.17
Fu-hsien	2,380	7,753	6,541	14,294	6.01	118.53
Kaiping	5,237	15,825	13,536	29,361	5.61	116.91
Yingkow	21,948	75,354	48,182	123,536	5.63	156.39
Haicheng	4,550	16,883	11,863	28,746	6.32	142.32
Liaoyang	10,770	39,146	27,388	66,534	6.18	142.93
Total	413,879	1,326,101	841,135	2,167,236	5.24	157.66

Table 5. Population of Other Cities (Dec. 31, 1933)

City or Town	Province	Population
Fuyu	Kirin	64,969
Hsinmin	Fengtien	64,723
Shwangcheng	Pinkiang	61,618
Taonan	Lungkiang	56,315
Huatien	Kirin	44,848
Tungliao	South Hsingan	42,018
Hulan	Pinkiang	40,940
Jaoho	Sankiang	38,606
Ningan	Pinkiang	35,093
Hailun	Pinkiang	32,405
Liaoyuan	Fengtien	31,074
Sanchengchen	Fengtien	29,105
Sifeng	Fengtien	28,741
Suihua	Pinkiang	27,826
Chihfeng	Jehol	27,407
Wangkuei	Pinkiang	27,173
Payen	Pinkiang	26,853
I-hsien	Chinchow	26,803
Paichuan	Lungkiang	25,724
Tunghua	Antung	25,665
*Nungan	Kirin	29,153
Talai	Lungkiang	24,921
Taipingchen	Sankiang	24,234
Peichen	Chinchow	24,197
*Tunhua	Kirin	26,443
Faku	Fengtien	23,284
*Pingchuan	Jehol	24,722
Panshih	Kirin	22,983
Chaoyangchen	Fengtien	22,759
Tetu	Lungkiang	22,024
Sian	Fengtien	21,681
Antachan	North Manchuria Special District	21,090
Koshan	Lungkiang	20,918
Hailung	Fengtien	20,437

Table 6. Number of Foreigners Classified by Locality (June 30, 1935)*

Provinces	Japanese excluding Koreans		Koreans		Other Foreigners		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Kirin	5,449	3,922	20,151	14,797	113	52	44,484
Lungkiang	4,860	2,936	2,578	2,083	288	238	12,984
Heiho	613	404	393	283	161	700	2,554
Sankiang	1,599	1,005	8,030	5,625	99	72	16,430
Pinkiang	2,337	1,227	25,842	19,077	373	280	49,136
Chientao	6,848	5,018	228,824	207,259	64	45	448,058
Antung	555	252	40,262	33,092	28	31	74,220
Fengtien	5,663	3,740	41,330	35,086	445	358	86,632
Chinchow	3,100	2,484	682	635	23	18	6,942
Jehol	3,782	2,032	375	371	33	12	6,625
Within Jurisdiction of Metropolitan Police Board	5,038	3,546	1,869	1,298	23	31	11,805
Within Jurisdiction of Harbin Police Board	8,177	6,457	2,466	2,373	26,957	28,588	75,018
North Manchuria Special District	5,812	3,149	3,627	2,753	7,919	7,485	30,745
Total	53,833	36,192	376,429	324,732	36,536	37,911	865,633

* Exclusive of Kwantung Leased Territory and S. M. R. Zone.

Table 7. Classification by Nationality (June 30, 1935)

Nationality		Number of Households	Male	Female	Total
Japanese	Japanese excluding Koreans	22,965	53,833	36,192	90,025
	Koreans	123,625	376,429	324,732	701,161
Denationalized (Ordinally Russians)		5,891	21,686	22,673	44,359
British		168	217	207	424
Soviets		5,894	10,230	11,042	21,272
Naturalized White Russians		1,479	2,619	2,435	5,054
Americans		134	134	92	226
French		110	110	75	185
Czechoslovaks		61	102	91	193
Belgians		20	26	1	27
Finns		1	—	2	2
Lithuanians		6	13	6	19
Swedes		6	11	8	19
Indians (British)		6	7	2	9
Dutch		14	11	19	30
Australians		1	—	1	1
Hungarians		4	4	4	8
Portuguese		3	6	4	10
Germans		152	256	203	459
Italians		16	24	22	46
Poles		441	781	738	1,519
Turks		14	20	15	35
Danes		42	60	76	136
Canadians		14	29	32	61
Swiss		16	20	18	38
Norwegians		1	2	5	7
Latvians		43	100	79	179
Austrians		11	22	14	36
Armenians		12	23	25	48
Greeks		16	23	22	45
Total		161,167	466,798	398,835	865,633

Table 8. Chinese Immigrants entering, departing and remaining in Manchoukuo

	entered	departed	remained.
1930	748,213	488,504	259,709
1931	467,402	461,339	6,063
1932	414,034	498,783	—
1933	631,962	497,264	134,698
1934	690,925	439,628	251,297
1935	519,552	495,009	24,543

The number of foreigners who were admitted into Manchoukuo in 1935 with their passports duly viséd totalled 12,194 including 7,189 males and 5,005 females. The detailed list is as follows:—

Table 9. Visés Issued

(a) By Locality

	Male	Female	Total
Dairen	2,557	2,082	4,639
Antung	799	566	1,365
Yingkow	148	44	192
Shanhaikwan	1,834	1,296	3,130
Suifenho	71	18	89
Manchouli	928	383	1,311
Tumen	209	110	319
Heiho	20	8	28
Kupeikou	39	32	71
Embassy, Tokyo	367	271	628
Consulate, Blagoveschensk	19	11	30
Foreign Commissioner's	22	1	23
Office, Harbin	175	183	351
Foreign Office, Hsinking	1	—	1
Total	7,189	5,005	12,194

(b) By Nationality

	Male	Female	Total
American	1,000	935	1,935
British	926	571	1,497
Soviet	600	381	981
German	788	298	1,175
Polish	173	99	272
French	253	132	385
Dutch	101	34	135
Danish	96	55	151
Swiss	69	35	104
Austrian	43	17	60
Sithuanian	153	71	224
Czechoslovakian	91	30	121
Belgian	58	27	85
Italian	66	17	83
Others	409	173	582
Denationalized	2,274	2,130	4,404
Total	7,189	5,005	12,194

(c) By Occupation

	Male	Female	Total
Diplomats	296	8	304
Other Public Officials	139	2	141
Officials of Ussuri Railway	92	15	107
Military Officers	78	—	78
Missionaries	413	267	680
Scholars & Teachers	298	377	675
Students	448	284	732
Employees of banks	84	14	98
Business men	2,477	59	2,536
Engineers	737	10	747
Journalists	78	11	89
Physicians	177	94	271
Housekeepers	—	2,247	2,247
Labourers	74	12	86
Others	1,390	754	2,144
Unemployed	408	851	1,259
Total	7,189	5,005	12,194

References: Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9—The Official Bulletin of Manchoukuo.

CHAPTER VI

ADMINISTRATION

The administration of Manchoukuo is nominally vested in the person of the Emperor. The highest central administrative organ is the State Council which consists of nine departments. It is headed by the Prime Minister, who performs the task of national administration.

The departments of the State Council, and their composition are as follows:

Department of Civil Affairs. 6 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Local Administration, Colonization, Police, Public Works, Public Health. Other organs: the Metropolitan Police Board, Central Police Institute, Special Police Corps, Land Bureau, Provincial Governments, Special Municipalities, Patients' Hospital, Quarantine Stations.

Department of Foreign Affairs. 4 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Commercial Affairs, Political Affairs, Information & Publicity. Other organs: the Manchoukuo Legation in Japan, Office of the Foreign Commissioner for North Manchuria, Consulates, Passport Offices.

Department of Defence. 3 bureaux, viz., General Staff, Military Supply, Horse Administration. Other organs: Central Military Training Institute, Gendarmerie Training Institute, Military Arsenals, Military Clothing Depots, District Army Headquarters, River Patrol Fleet Headquarters, Imperial Guards, Central Military Communications Department.

Department of Finance. 3 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Revenues, Finance. Other organs: the Tax Bureau, Revenue Inspectorate, Customs Houses, Ki-hei Salt Transportation Office, General Monopoly Bureau, Land Superintendence Office, Salt Administration Office.

Department of Industry. 5 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Agriculture, Forestry, Industry & Commerce, Mining. Other organs: Patents Bureau, Central & Local Meteorological Observatories, Bureau of Weights & Measures, Mining Inspectorate, Forestry Office, Yingkow Marine Products Bureau, Experimental Farms.

Department of Communications. 3 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Transportation, Posts. Other organs: Post Offices, Navigation Bureaux.

Department of Justice. 3 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Civil Affairs, Criminal Affairs. Other organs: Deposits Bureau, Prisons, Law college.

Department of Education. 3 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Education, Rites & Religions. Other organs: Committee for Compiling Text-books, Instructors' Training Institute, Higher Normal School, Higher Agricultural School.

Department of Mongolia Administration. 3 bureaux, viz., General Affairs, Civil Affairs, Industrial Development. Other organs: Hsingan College, and Hsingan Sheep Breeding Firm.

General Affairs Board. The General Affairs Board is directly attached to the State Council and is controlled by the Prime Minister, and handles affairs relating to secret matters, personnel, accounting, and the requirements of the various departments. The General Affairs Board supervises not only the budgets but also national policies. The basic principles in forming the state budget and its assessment are under its control. The Board consists of 7 bureaux as follows: Secretariate, Planning, Legislation, Personnel, Accountant, Statistics, and Information. Attached to the State Council there are also the following offices: Decorations Bureau, Capital Construction Bureau, State Highways Bureau, Civil Engineering, Repairs, and Supplies Bureau, and Continental Institute of Science.

Supervisory Council. The Council is under the direct control of the Emperor, and is independent of the State Council, entrusted with the work of supervision and auditing. The Supervisory Council consists of the following three bureaux: General Affairs, Supervisory, Auditing. Each of the three bureaux are divided into three or four sections or divisions. General Affairs Bureau: Secretariat Section, Documents Section, General Office Section; Supervisory Bureau: First Division, Second Division, Third Division, Fourth Division; Auditing Bureau: First Division, Second Division, Third Division, Fourth Division.

Legislative Council. Functions of the Legislative Council are to draft and approve laws and budget bills. It possesses the authority to present opinions on state affairs to the State Council. Members of the Council are appointed by the Emperor from among the representatives of the peoples. The Legislative Council consists of one secretariat.

Privy Council. The Privy Council gives its opinion at the request of the Emperor on Imperial Ordinances, Laws, Budget, Negotiations and Treaties with foreign countries, declarations to foreign countries made in the name of the Emperor, appointment of important officials, and other State affairs, and may also submit its opinion to the Emperor in respect to important State affairs, without the request of the Emperor.

Department of Imperial Household Affairs. This Department was created following the inauguration of the Imperial Regime in March 1934 and is directly responsible to the Emperor. The Department consists of the following 6 bureaux: General Affairs, Domestic, Attendants, Ceremony, Guards, and Gentlemen-at-Arms.

Courts of Justice. Courts of justice include District Courts, High Courts, and the Supreme Court. In keeping with the spirit of its foundation proclamation, the new Government is seriously endeavouring to abolish all forms of evils and abuses prevalent in the days of the old regime as regards the judicial administration, to protect life and property, and to assure the dispensation of justice by the establishment of modern courts and the appointment of upright and impartial judges.

Local Administration. The founding of Manchoukuo has brought extensive changes in the matter of local administration. While much is yet to be accomplished in consummating a system of smooth and coordinated execution of administrative affairs, it is noteworthy that in the case of local administration a highly unified system has been achieved. The provinces are under the supervision of governors appointed by the Central Government and are directly responsible to it in general matters. Unlike the practise in the previous regime, the collection of taxes, stationing of troops and the compiling of budgets are done under the direction of the central Government. The realization of such a policy has not only brought about unity in local administration, but has considerably eliminated such opportunities as would lead to fraudulent practises and divisional dissensions. As noted elsewhere the Department of Civil Affairs of the Central Government takes charge of provincial affairs, but an exception is made with regard to the administration of the newly established Mongolia Administrative Department which is under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister.

The newly established fourteen provinces of Manchoukuo are divided into counties and the supervision of each county is vested in a magistrate who is responsible to the respective provincial governors.

A province consists of several Hsien or counties, and towns. The counties are divided into four classes according to their area and population. Each Hsien has an administrative office and a chief, who is responsible to the Governor of the respective province.

The administration of special municipalities such as Hsinking and Harbin is under the direct control of the central Government in virtue of the Organic Regulation for Special Municipalities issued in August, 1932 and amended in June 1933. The public affairs of a special municipality are controlled by the Mayor with the assistance of a council chosen from among the inhabitants.

The North Manchuria Special District is under the jurisdiction of the Civil Minister, and is administrated by a governor. The Chi or Banner is the administrative unit of Hsingan Province. A Banner is a legal body under the supervision of the State, and handles the public affairs with the sanction of the Mongolian Administration Department. A Banner has an autonomic assembly to determine the budget and other important affairs.

Japan in Administration of Manchoukuo

"We are hereby set to formulate all the far-reaching designs for the safe-guarding of our domain and the future policies for its administration, in close co-operation and harmony with the Empire of Japan": so declared the first Emperor of Manchoukuo on the day he ascended the throne on March 1,1934. The above expression enunciating the fundamental principle of administrative policy becomes tangibly clearer when it is remembered that in 1932 Foreign Minister Hsieh Chieh-shih, in his note addressed to leading nations of the world, declared the intention of his government "to perfect the institution of laws and to establish security for life and property, contrary to the 'corrupt discipline', 'outrageous exaction' and 'anti-foreign policies' which were characteristic of the old militaristic Government." Of the scope and character of what has actually been accomplished to date by way

of realizing the above official promise the following parts of this chapter and other sections of the present compilation will afford a comprehensive idea. What engages our attention here is the question how far and in what ways Japan has co-operated, and is co-operating, in the task of making the new Manchou empire.

The official list of men serving in one capacity or another in the present administration of Manchoukuo is composed of 5,700 names of which about 3,250 are Japanese as judged from their personal names. Of the remaining portion the Chinese and Manchou officials are in a preponderate number, the Mongol and Koreans making up each a small percentage. These Japanese officials serving in Manchoukuo are for the most part retired civil or military officers, some having been taken out of active service. The ministerial posts are held without exception by men of Chinese, Manchou or Mongol extraction. These ministers are invariably supported by high executives of Japanese origin.

It is scarcely of less significance to look into the composition of administrative system from the racial point of view. Japanese ability of organization and executive efficiency seem to have been availed of wherever necessary. Where corruption ruled in old days, and is most to be feared, the Manchou officials are assigned to subordinate places. The posts of councillors who in each department are in charge of actual administrative work are held by Japanese officials.

Directly under the State Council, the highest organ headed by the Prime Minister, the Secretariate and the seven bureaux constituting the General Affairs Board are each headed by Japanese.

The nine departments of state, with the exception of that of Mongolia Administration are under the direction of Manchou Ministers, sometimes assisted by Manchou Vice-Ministers, but in no case are Japanese placed in any of these high places. But the bureaux and sections under these ministers are in charge of Japanese chief executives known as Councillors. The Department of Mongolia Administration is presided over by a Mongol prince. Of the three principal executive sections under him two are in charge of Mongol officials, the one being headed by a Japanese sectional chief.

Under the Department of Civil Affairs the Bureau of Police Affairs comprises numerically the largest staff. The central police force is formed about equally of Manchous and Japanese. But the frontier police guard forces, forming altogether what is known as the Special Police Corps, is formed of about 170 Japanese against 50 Manchous, the latter being employed as low-ranked patrol men. What is known as the Harbin Mobile Police Force is formed exclusively of Japanese.

The Department of Foreign Affairs is the only division with a Japanese Vice-Minister, the similar places being held by Manchous in the other departments. Of the four bureaux of General Affairs, Commercial Affairs, Political Affairs and Information and Publicity all are headed by Japanese.

In the Department of Defence all important positions are held by Manchou officers. On the general Staff the Manchous far outnumber the Japanese. The advisory body to the General Staff consists of more Japanese than Manchou military men.

The efficient management of finances in Manchoukuo is apparently to be credited to the Japanese officials who far outnumber the other nationals in the Department of Finance. The monopoly offices of matches, opium, etc., and in the salt administration office actual executive work is chiefly entrusted to Manchou officials who are in a preponderate number.

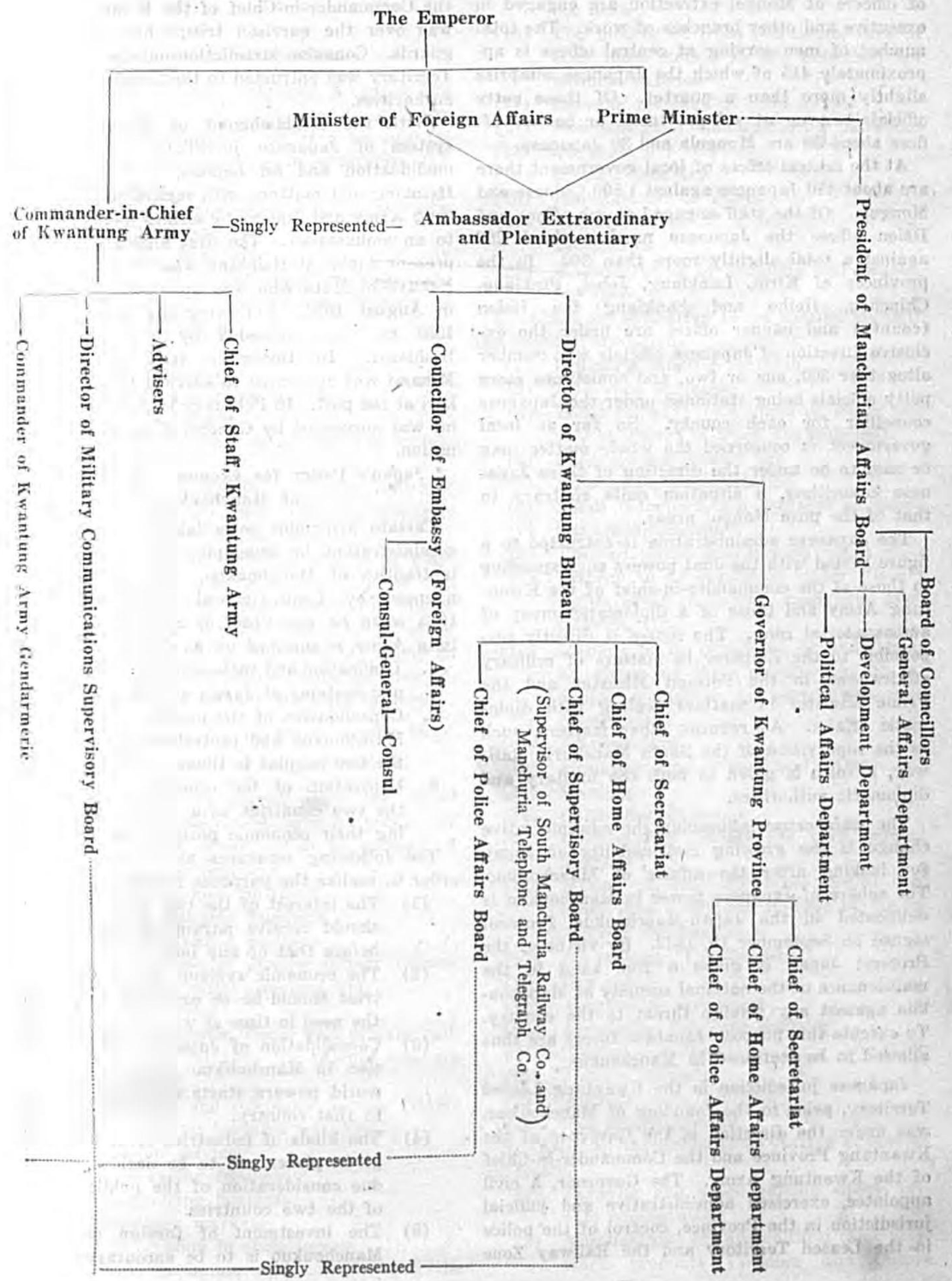
In the Department of Communications, post and air services are practically carried on by Manchou officials and employees, though the higher places are held by Japanese. The post-offices are without exception in charge of Chinese and Mongol masters.

In judicial administration where the former Chinese authorities had been notoriously guilty of mismanagement, it is not surprising that most of the more responsible places have been filled by men from Japan. Each of the four sections is headed by them. The Districts Courts are also in charge of Japanese jurists. They are also in charge of public prosecution. It is also of significance that six prisons of Kirin and Mukden are entrused to Japanese officials.

With regard to the matter of public education it is natural that Japan, in view of her bitter experience in the past, should see that it is conducted in ways free from racial antagonism. While the Minister and Vice-minister are both Manchous, the two bureaux of General Affairs and Educational Affairs are in carge of Japanese chiefs, only the bureau of Rites and Religions being left under Manchou managment.

The Department of Mongolia Administration is featured by somewhat different policy, if the numbers of Mongol men employed are to be

Diagrammatic Chart of Japanese Administration in Manchoukuo



taken as a guide. Different from other departments of administration, a far greater percentage of officers of Mongol extraction are engaged in executive and other branches of work. The total number of men serving at central offices is approximately 415 of which the Japanese comprise slightly more than a quarter. Of those petty officials serving at sub-provincial or banner offices about 50 are Mongols and 30 Japanese.

At the central offices of local government there are about 450 Japanese against 1,500 Chinese and Mongols. Of the staff engaged at sub-offices and Hsien offices the Japanese number about 250 against a total slightly more than 300. In the provinces of Kirin, Lunkiang, Jehol, Pinkiang, Chinchou, Heiho and Sankiang the Hsien (county) and banner offices are under the exclusive direction of Japanese officials who number altogether 300, one or two, and sometimes more petty officials being stationed under the Japanese councillor for each county. So far as local government is concerned the whole matter may be said to be under the direction of these Japanese councillors, a situation quite contrary to that of the pure Mongol areas.

The Japanese administration is entrusted to a figure vested with the dual powers corresponding to those of the commander-in-chief of the Kwantung Army and those of a diplomatic envoy of ambassadorial rank. The figure is directly responsible to the Emperor in matters of military affairs and to the Foreign Minister and the Prime Minister in matters dealing with diplomatic affairs. As regards other matters, such as the supervision of the South Manchuria Railway, a voice is given to both the military and diplomatic authorities.

The main cause influencing the administrative change is the growing responsibility of Japan for looking after the affairs of Manchoukuo. The sphere of Japanese power in Manchoukuo is delineated in the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932. By virtue of the Protocol Japan is given a free hand in the maintenance of the national security of Manchoukuo against any foreign threat to the country. To execute this purpose Japanese forces are thus allowed to be stationed in Manchoukuo.

Japanese jurisdiction in the Kwantung Leased Territory, prior to the founding of Manchoukuo, was under the direction of the Governor of the Kwantung Province and the Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung Army. The Governor, a civil appointee, exercised administrative and judicial jurisdiction in the Province, control of the police in the Leased Territory and the Railway Zone and supervision of the business of the South Manchuria Railway Company. The sphere of the Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung Army was over the garrison troops and the railway guards. Consular jurisdiction outside the Leased Territory was entrusted to the Japanese consular authorities.

With the establishment of Manchoukuo the system of Japanese jurisdiction underwent a modification and an embassy was founded at Hsinking and matters with regard to the Kwantung Army and diplomatic affairs were entrusted to an ambassador. The first ambassador to represent Japan at Hsinking was the late Marshal Nobuyoshi Muto who was appointed to the post in August 1932. Following his death in July 1933 he was succeeded by General Takashi Hishikari. In December 1934 General Jiro Minami was appointed to succeed General Hishikari at the post. In February 1936 General Minami was succeeded by General Ueda on his resignation.

Japan's Policy for Economic Development of Manchoukuo

Certain principles were laid by the Japanese administration in developing the economic potentialities of Manchoukuo. The policy as announced by Lieut.-General Kuniaki Koiso in 1933 when he was Chief of Staff of the Kwantung Army is summed up as follows:—

1. Unification and rationalization of the economic systems of Japan and Manchoukuo.
2. Consolidation of the position of Japan and Manchoukuo and protection of the lives of the two peoples in times of war and peace.
3. Utilization of the economic resources of the two countries as a means for improving their economic positions in the world.

The following measures are to be taken in order to realize the purposes mentioned above:—

(1) The interest of the two nations at large should receive paramount consideration before that of any individual.
(2) The economic systems of the two countries should be so arranged as to meet the need in time of war.
(3) Consolidation of Japan's economic position in Manchoukuo before any of the world powers starts economic activities in that country.
(4) The kinds of industries to be started in given places are to be decided on with due consideration of the public interest of the two countries.
(5) The investment of foreign capital in Manchoukuo is to be encouraged in order to show respect for the open door policy and the principle of equal opportunity.

Economic Administration

At the outset of its industrial program the Manchoukuo Government designated the placing of certain basic enterprises under governmental control. The following kinds of enterprise fall into the category:

(1) Business of importance relating to traffic and communication.
(2) Technical industries, mining, and any other kinds of basic industry with close relations with the national defence of the two countries.
(3) Gold mining.
(4) Electric industries.
(5) Leading businesses partaining to the banking business.
(6) Industries closely connected with public interest.
(7) Some of the special industries, which it is necessary to place under the economic control policy of the authorities.

These seven kinds of industry are to be placed under the economic control policy of the authorities by placing them under the direct management of government organs or of semi-official ones, or of allowing some of them to be managed by special people furnished with official licenses issued for the purposes in view.

Table of Industries to be Placed Under the Economic Control of the Authorities

1. Industries to be placed under the direct management of government organs, public office or semi-official offices, or to be carried on by virtue of special licenses:—

(1) Special banking business
(2) Savings banking business
(3) Central banking business
(4) The business of issuing lottery tickets, debentures with premium, etc.
(5) Postal service
(6) Railway service (local and private railways, i.e. railways for private use, are excluded)
(7) Telegraph and telephone service (Radio broadcasting business excluded)
(8) Aviation service
(9) Horse-racing business
(10) Slaughtering business
(11) Live-stock markets
(12) Afforestation in state forests
(13) Trade in opium and cocaine, and the manufacturing of these chemicals
(14) Gold mining in the mining districts of the State
(15) The mining of iron, petroleum, ores of such light metals as are necessary for national defence
(16) Refining industry of light metals
(17) Iron and steel manufacturing industries
(18) Oil shale industry
(19) Electric industry
(20) Manufacture of gunpowder
(21) Manufacturing of other kinds of war necessaries
(22) Manufacturing of weighing and measuring tools.

2. Kinds of industries to be carried on with the official permission.

(1) Ordinary banking business
(2) Insurance business
(3) Local railways (All kinds of traffic service by means of track are included)
(4) Railways for private use
(5) Automobile transportation
(6) Small transportation business on rivers
(7) Sea-transportation
(8) Transportation business on small scale
(9) Fishery to be conducted under Fishery rights given to fishing companies, associations, etc.
(10) Fishery to be conducted by individuals by virtue of their membership of the fishing companies or associations with fishery right
(11) Afforestation
(12) Manufacturing of wool and cotton
(13) Hunting
(14) Cultivation of opium
(15) Gold mining outside the state mining districts
(16) Mining of coal and other useful ores other than mentioned in (15) of the industries itemized in 1
(17) Oil refining (Petroleum)
(18) Gas supply
(19) Automobile production
(20) Ammonium-Sulphate industry
(21) Alcohol distillery
(22) Sodium industry
(23) Tobacco Manufacturing
(24) Salt manufacturing

3. Kinds of industries to be started or carried on freely.

(1) Farming and stock raising under private management
(2) Manufacture of agricultural and live-stock products (Woolen and Cotton

manufacturing industries are excluded)
(3) Fishery in general
(4) Lumber industry
(5) Trade in marine products (Salt manufacturing is excluded)
(6) Trade in live-stock products
(7) Trade in agricultural and forestry products
(8) Pulp and Paper manufacturing
(9) Sugar Industry
(10) Flour Industry
(11) Brewery (Alcoholic distillery is excluded)
(12) Provision manufacturing
(13) Oil and Grease manufacturing
(14) Cement producing (Production control is needed)
(15) Spinning
(16) Dyeing and weaving
(17) Production of hides and skins
(18) Pharmaceutical business at large
(19) Machinery industry
(20) Porcelain manufacturing.

Industries Closely Related to National Defence

The Kwantung Army has been doing its best to accelerate the healthy development of various kinds of industry closely connected with national defence of the two countries with the valuable cooperation of the Tokyo Government in consideration of the wishes on the part of the Manchoukuo Gocernment. The present condition of these industries (except the traffic and communication industries) is as follows:—

1. Iron and Steel Industry.—With a view to establishing a complete system of Iron and Steel Industry in Manchoukuo, the establishment of the Showa Steel Works at Anshan has been decided upon in consideration of the capacity of the Anshan Iron Foundry, and various preparations required for the establishment of the mill are being hurried.

2. Coal-mining Company.—In order to place all the coal-mining business in Manchoukuo under the control of the authorities concerned, studies required for the establishment of a large coal mining company, which will be realized at no distant date are being made.

3. The shale oil industry in Manchoukuo is now producing a good deal of crude oil. Plans are being formed to make naphtha from the crude oil, and if the result be successful, the greater portion of the crude oil taken from the oil shale is to be refined into naphtha. The production of some liquid fuels mixed with alcohol in order to secure the supply of fuel for automobiles running in Manchoukuo are being encouraged.

4. Preparations are under way in order to establish an aluminium manufacturing company making use of the abundant supply of ores from various parts of Manchoukuo.

5. Magnesium Industry.—Rich supplies of magnesium ore from Tashihchiao district will before long lead to the establishment of a magnesium manufacturing company.

6. A sulphate of ammonium manufacturing company with an annual production of 18,000 tons will be established at no distant date with a view to meeting the demand for it, not only in Japan and Manchoukuo, but for the markets abroad.

7. Sodium Industry.—Manchoukuo has a bright future in regard to this industry as she is rich in the supply of salt and fuel which are necessary for the production of electric power required for sodium manufacturing. The authorities are now making a special study in this connection.

8. The alluvial gold and gold mines of North Manchuria are noted for their rich deposits. The plan of establishing a special company for the production of gold is now under serious study by a special party organized by the Government.

9. Electric Industry.—Most of the electric industries in Manchoukuo are under the management of the Japanese, a very small number of electric works being carried on by the natives owing to their lack of technical knowledge and skill. The Manchuria Electric Association, an organ established by the Japanese and Manchoukuo authorities, is now making studies about the regulations and system for the control of the electric industry of Manchoukuo.

10. Production of Ordnance.—The Joint Stock Company, Mukden Arsenal established by the Japanese capitalists by availing themselves of the equipment of the Mukden Arsenal of Chang Tso-lin is now engaged in the production of various kinds of arms and ammunitions, besides measuring and weighing apparatus. The amount of capital invested therein is not large at present. In case of necessity, however, it will be increased to meet any demand.

11. The authorities are now studying where to establish an automobile plant. Automobile manufacturing in Manchoukuo is intended for accelerating the growth of a similar industry in Japan proper.

12. The Manchoukuo Government are to abolish all the private works engaged in the manufacture of gunpowder. The business will shortly be monopolized by the government.

13. Weights and Measures.—For the present, the Manchoukuo Government shall adopt the Shaku (foot) and Kin (pound) system, which later will be replaced by the metric system. The weighing and measuring tools of simpler nature will be manufactured by the Manchoukuo Government, while those of a more complex nature by the Mukden Arsenal or by companies appointed by the Commercial and Industrial Department of Japan.

14. In order to obtain goods of the standard quality, all kinds of products in Manchoukuo will in the future be subjected to the same kind of examination as is now being enforced in Japan proper. For this purpose, a special commitee has been organized in the Commercial Department of the Manchoukuo Government.

15. In consideration of the defective nature of the present Mining Industry Regulations of Manchoukuo, it is planned to promulgate new and up-to-date regulations before long.

16. Investigations are going on among the authorities concerned in order to improve the physical condition of the native horses of Manchoukuo. According to the plan, the height of the improved Manchoukuo horses will be 1.45 meters, and the required number of the improved horses will be obtainable in 45 years.

17. The authorities are now studying how to improve and enlarge the wool and sheep-raising industry in Manchoukuo in consideration of its importance as one of the war materials during the cold season.

18. The authorities are recommending the cultivation of the upland cotton recommended by the S.M.R. experts. According to the government's plan the area of land under cotton will be increased to 300,000 chobu (One cho is equal to 2.45 acres) in 20 years, which will yield 150,000,000 lbs. a year.

19. Meteorological Service System.—The completion of the meteorological service system is essential to the healthy growth and development of the traffic and transportation business. The authorities have already framed a plan in this connection, which will be enforced in about five years beginning the 1st year of Daido (1932) in consideration of the financial capacity of the country.

20. The central banking organ, which is essential to the consolidation of the financial and economic basis of Manchoukuo has been established in view of the paramount necessity of Manchoukuo showing the common economic front with Japan in time of peace and war.

Ordinance of Manchoukuo Empire

In March 1934, the Government issued the following ordinance on the inauguration of an Imperial Regime in Manchoukuo.

By the grace and will of Heaven, We have acceded to the Throne and have indicated the fundamentals of the sovereign organization by enacting the Organic Law. In the exercise of the supreme power We shall conform to the provisions of the said Law and shall not suffer the same to be violated.

Imperial sign-manual and Imperial seal
First day of March, First year of Kangte (1934).
Countersigned by
The Prime Minister and
Minister of the Departments.

Chapter I. The Emperor

Article I.—The Manchou Empire shall be reigned over and governed by an Emperor. The succession to the Imperial throne shall be as determined separately.

Article II.—The dignity of the Emperor shall be inviolable.

Article III.—The Emperor is the head of the Empire, supervising the sovereign rights, and shall exercise them in accordance with the provisions of the present Law.

Article IV.—The Prime Minister shall give his advice to the Emperor and be responsible for it.

Article V.—The Emperor shall exercise the legislative powers with the approval of the Legislative Council.

Article VI.—The Emperor shall cause the courts of justice to exercise the judicial powers in accordance with the law.

Article VII.—The Emperor shall issue or cause to be issued ordinances for the maintenance of public peace and order and for the promotion of public welfare, or for the carrying out of laws. But no such ordinance shall in any way alter any of the existing laws.

Article VIII.—The Emperor, in consequence of an urgent necessity of maintaining public safety or averting emergency calamities, shall be empowered to issue, with the approval of the Privy Council, when it is impossible to convene the Legislative Council, Imperial ordinances which shall have the identical force of law. Such Imperial ordinances, however, shall be reported at the following session of the Legislative Council.

Article IX.—The Emperor shall determine the organization of the different branches of administration,

appoint or dismiss government officials and shall fix their salaries, except in the case of those especially provided for in the present law or other laws.

Article X.—The Emperor shall have the power to declare war, make peace, and conclude treaties.

Article XI.—The Emperor shall have the supreme command of the military, naval and air forces.

Article XII.—The Emperor shall confer decorations and other marks of distinction.

Article XIII.—The Emperor shall order amnesty, pardon, commutation of punishments and rehabilitations.

Chapter II. The Privy Council

Article XIV.—The Privy Council shall be composed of Privy Councillors.

Article XV.—The Privy Council shall, when consulted by the Emperor, submit its opinions relative to the following matters:

(1) Laws;
(2) Imperial House Law;
(3) Imperial Ordinances;
(4) Budgets and matters pertaining to contracts other than budgets which entail obligations upon the National Terasury;
(5) Treaties and agreements negotiated with foreign nations and declarations issued in the name of the Emperor;
(6) Major appointments and dismissals of government officials;
(7) Other important matters of state.

Article XVI.—The Privy Council may report its views to the Throne on important matters relating to the affairs of the State.

Chapter III. The Legislative Council

Article XVII.—The organization of the Legislative Council shall be as determined separately by law.

Article XVIII.—All legislative and budgetary bills and matters pertaining to contracts other than budgets entailing obligations upon the National Treasury shall require the approval of the Legislative Council.

Article XIX.—The Legislative Council may present proposals relating to affairs of the State to the State Council.

Article XX.—The Legislative Council may receive petitions presented by the People.

Article XXI.—The Legislative Council shall be convoked annually by the Emperor. The duration of the ordinary session shall be one month which may, however, be prolonged by the Emperor in case of necessity.

Article XXII.—No session of the Legislative Council can be opened unless more than one third of the total number of the members are present.

Article XXIII.—The proceedings at a session of the Legislative Council shall be decided by a majority vote. In case of a tie-vote, the chairman shall have the casting vote.

Article XXIV.—The deliberations of the Legislative Council shall be held in public. Closed sessions may, however, he held upon demand by the State Council or by a resolution of the Legislative Council.

Article XXV.—All legislative and budgetary bills and matters pertaining to contracts other than budgets which entail obligations upon the National Treasury shall be sanctioned, promulgated and put into force by the Emperor.

In the event of the legislative and budgetary bills and matters other than budgets pertaining to contracts which entail obligations upon the National Treasury being rejected by the Legislative Council, the Emperor shall represent them to the Legislative Council by indicating his reasons therefore. When further rejected, the Privy Council shall be consulted for its decision thereon.

Article XXVI.—No member of the Legislative Council shall be held responsible outside the Council for his opinions uttered or for any vote given within the Council.

Chapter IV. The State Council

Article XXVII.—The State Council shall take charge of all administrative affairs.

Article XXVIII.—The State Council shall be composed of the Departments of Civil Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Defence, Finance, Industry, Communications, Justice and Education.

Article XXIX.—The State Council shall have a Prime Minister and each of the Departments a Minister.

The Minister of each Department shall be responsible for the affairs over which he exercises jurisdiction.

Artcle XXX.—The Prime Minister and the Ministers of the Departments may attend the sessions of the Legislative Council at any time and may have a voice in its deliberations, but shall have no vote.

Article XXXI.—All Imperial edicts or rescripts, Imperial messages, laws and Imperial Ordinances relating to State Affairs shall bear the countersignatures of the Prime Minister and the Ministers of the Departments concerned.

Chapter V. The Courts

Article XXXII.—The Courts shall, in accordance with law, conduct trials of civil and criminal cases. In respect to administrative and other special litigations, however, special provisions shall be made by law.

Article XXXIII.—The organization of the courts and the qualifications of the judicial officials shall be determined by law.

Article XXXIV.—The judicial officials shall command independence in the discharge of their duties.

Article XXXV.—No judicial official shall be dismissed except by trials on criminal offence or disciplinary punishment, nor shall he be subjected to suspension, transfer of position or office and reduction of salary, against his will.

Article XXXVI.—The trials and judgements of the Courts shall be open to the public. Cases which threaten to disturb the public order and peace, or in which public morals are liable to be in danger, however, may be closed to the public in accordance with the law or by a decision of the Courts concerned.

Chapter VI. The Supervisory Council

Article XXXVII.—The Supervisory Council shall conduct supervisory duties and audit the accounts. The organization and duties of the supervisory council shall be determined separately by law.

Article XXXVIII.—The Supervisory Council shall have supervisors and auditors.

Article XXXIX.—No supervisor or auditor shall be dismissed except by trials on criminal offence or disciplinary punishment, nor shall any supervisor or auditor be subjected to suspension, transfer of position and reduction of salary, against his will.

Supplementary Provisions

Article XL.—The present Law shall come into force on the First day of March, First year of Kangte.

Article XLI.—The Emperor may, for the time being, issue Imperial ordinances or decrees possessing the identical force of laws, fix the budgets or make contracts other than budgets which entail obligations on the National Treasury, with the approval of the Privy Council.

Articles XLII.—All previous ordinances, Council orders, and other laws and ordinances irrespective of their designations or titles shall continue to remain in force.

Theory of "Wangtao"

Manchoukuo's administrative policies, both internal and external, are based upon the theory of "Wangtao." This word which literally means the "Way of the King," but which may be freely translated as the "Way of Benevolent Ruler" is by no means a product of modern times; it is the fundamental idea of Confucianism. The great masses of Manchoukuo, tired of the imported ideas of Republicanism, Nationalism or Dr. Sun Yat-sen's "Three People's Principles," which have all proved gross failures in China, quite naturally turned their minds to their own traditional political ideas inherent in Confucianism. The golden age of such ancient sage-kings as Yao and Shun loomed large and fascinating in their eyes and the result was the unanimous voice of the 30,000,000 people, "Back to Wangtao."

As to the essential ideas of "Wangtao," H.E. Mr. Cheng Hsiao-hsu, Former Premier of the Manchoukuo Government and staunch advocate of the doctrine, has the following to say:

Yen Yuan asked about perfect virtue. The Master (Confucius) said: "To subdue one's self and return to propriety is perfect virtue. If a man can for one day subdue himself and return to propriety, all under heaven will ascribe perfect virtue to him." Tzu-lu asked what constituted the superior man. The Master (Confucius) said, "The cultivation of himself in reverential carefulness." "And is this all" said Tzu-lu. "He cultivates himself so as to give peace to others," was the reply. "And is that all" asked Tzu-lu again. The Master said, "He cultivates himself so as to give peace to all people, even Yao and Shun were solicitous about this."

The sentence "He cultivates himself so as to give peace to others" means that in regard to the aged, to give them rest; in regard to friends to show them sincerity; in regard to the young, to treat them tenderly. The sentence "He cultivates himself so as to give peace to all people" has the same meaning as "Yu (the King who succeeded Shun) thought that if any one in the empire were drowned, it was as if he drowned himself." Tzu-lu thought that if any one in the empire suffered hunger, it was as if he famished himself. Yao and Shun took the responsibility of the empire as their own.

In the ancient Chinese "Book of Rites" we find the following:

When the great doctrine prevails all under heaven will work for the common good. The virtuous will be elected to office, and the able will be given responsibility. Faithfulness will be in constant practice and harmony will rule. Consequently, mankind will not only love their own parents and give care to their own children; all the aged will be provided for, and all the young employed in work. Infants will be fathered; widows and widowers, the fatherless and the unmarried, the disabled and the sick, will all be cared for. The men will have their rights and the women their home. No goods will go to waste, nor need they be stored for private possession. No energy should be used for personal gain. Self-interest ceases and theft and disorder are unknown. Therefore, the gates

of the houses are never closed.

The "Way of the King," according to Premier Cheng Hsiao-hsu, should rule not only internal politics but also international relations. He says:

It is argued that, in this age of rationalism and militarism, no nation can exist without militarism, no nation can exist without military power. Yet history tells us that men like Napoleon and William the Second failed to achieve their ambitions though their military forces were more than sufficient for their own protection. Today we find small countries existing as independent nations regardless of their military strength. Larger and stronger nations are prevented from annexing them by the principle of the "balance of power," which protects the small nation from the fear of the larger. The safety of the small nations likewise is the protection of the larger.

Hence a similarly developed nation, a "Wang tao" nation in the Far East if brought into existence should be of enormous advantage to the whole and would be under the protection of the great nations. Its weakness will be its strength, for unjustifiable force used against it by any one Power would excite the rest of the powers to come to its assistance and prevent invasion. As a result of a surfeit of war the world is sick of war. If "Wangtao" is adopted the outlook of the whole world will be changed. The development of such an attitude should contribute to the solution of naval and military armament reduction problems. But the most serious menace which confronts us is Communism, because its aims is to overthrow world morality. Communism is our chief enemy, as its very use of the principles of force is contrary to the teachings of "Wangtao."

It may be said that "Wangtaoism" is neither nationalistic nor communistic but represents the golden mean between fascism and Bolshevism. By buttressing "Wangtaoism" with modern science in all government administration leaders of Manchoukuo feel confident that they can build up a nation that will at once receive the full support of the populace and at the same time hold promise for a bright and progressive future.

Decorations

Decorations granted by the Imperial Court of Manchoukuo are divided into four 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 have been conferred the First Order of Merit and who have been granted the Order of the Lung-kuang.

The orders of merit consist of nine grades. They are the Grand Order of Merit and those from the first to the eighth order. The orders of merit are conferred through letters patent. The letters patent for holders of the Grand Order of Merit, the First or the Second Order of Merit shall bear the Imperial Sign Manual and the Seal of the State as well as the signature of the Prime Minister who also enters the date by Imperial command. The letters patent for holders of any of the orders of merit of or below the Third Order of Merit shall bear the Seal of the State and the signature of the Prime Minister who shall also enter the date by Imperial command. The Director of the Bureau of Decorations (of the General Affairs Board) shall enter in each letter patent a number according to the grade of decoration to be confered, and shall append a note to the effect that the number has been entered in the Register provided for the purpose, and shall also affix the Seal of the State Council and his signature.

Allowance to Officials

(1) For medical treatment.
  (a) at home .....M¥ 2.00 a day.
      M¥ 1.50 a day after 20 days.
  (b) at hospital:—
      Te-jen & Chien-jeh ... M¥10.00 a day.
      1st to 4th classes, of Chien-jen ..... M¥ 8.00 „
      5th class of Chien-jen to 2nd class of Wei-jen ..... M¥ 6.00 „
      Others ..... M¥ 4.00 „
      The limit of period is 180 days.

(2) For injuries.
  The sum differs according to the kinds of injuries.
  1st class ..... 18 months' salary.
  16th class ..... half a month's salary.

(3) For the family of the deceased.
  Ordinary case .... 15 months' salary.
  Special case ..... 18 months' salary.
  (Battle, etc.)

Persons qualified to the above allowance in their respective order are given below: 1. Wife. 2. Son. 3. Grandson. 4. Parents or parents-in-law or sisters-in-law and brothers-in-law. When the persons qualified in the same class exceed a certain number, the allowance is divided in equal portions.

Grant to Officials

(1) Resigned officials. (after more than one year's service). This rule is applied to the officials who resigned due to public injuries or disease after over a year's service.

Period of service	Pension
1 year 1	month's salary
2 years 2	„ „
3 years 3	„ „
4 years 4	„ „
5 years 6	„ „
6 years 8	„ „
7 years 10	„ „
8 years 12	„ „
9 years 14	„ „
10 years 16	„ „
More than 10 year	An additional monthly salary for one year.

The official may appoint the person qualified for this pension. Otherwise, the order shall be the same as the allowance mentioned above.

(2) To the deceased during his service.
  The pension shall be his last salary multiplied by the number of his service years plus 2 years.
  The official can nominate the person qualified for the pension.

Order & Salary of Officials

Officials of Manchoukuo are divided into four ranks. They are the following:

(1) Te-jen. Appointed by the Emperor himself.
  Monthly Salary....between M¥ 1,800 and M¥ 1,000.

(2) Chien-jen Appointed by the Imperial Command.
  Monthly Salary....between M¥ 1,000 and M¥ 500.

(3) Chien-jen Appointed by the approval of the Emperor.
  Monthly Salary....between M¥ 450 and M¥ 75.

(4) Wei-jen Appointed by the judgment of the Government.
  Monthly Salary....between M¥ 170 and M¥ 30.

The number of official, exclusive of the Army and Navy, classified by ranks, was returned as follows at the end of December 1935.

Rank	Number
Te-jen	38
*Chien-jen	171
Chien-jen	1,648
Wei-jen	7,787
Total	9,644

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

CHAPTER VII

JUDICATURE

General

The judicial administration of Manchoukuo is in a state of transition. That the present laws and their administration are far from adequate to meet the actual condition of the country is officially admitted. What with the envisaged abolition of exterritoriality and the social and economic issues arising from the conditions peculiar to the new Empire, the jurists of Manchoukuo are expected to work out innovations along many lines in 1935 and the next few years. The officials charged with such undertakings are chiefly those who were taken from Japanese schools and courts. Under the circumstances it is not unnatural that the judicial system of Manchoukuo should in future be modelled after Japanese jurisprudence just as it has been done in China.

It is therefore of interest to know that the present judicial system of Manchoukuo is in part and parcel the same as that of the Nanking Government which in turn had practically adopted the laws which were in force toward the end of the Manchou regime.

Courts and Jurisdiction

District Court (Tifang Fayuan).—This is a court of the mixed system corresponding in general to the Japanese District Court (Chiho Saibansho) and, in some respects, to the Japanese local Court (Kusaibansho). Tifang Fayuan is composed of Chientieng or the Subordinate Court where trials are held by a single judge in such cases as are handled at the Subdistrict Court in Japan, and of the regular court where a bench of three judges sit on cases such as are handled at the District Court in Japan. The civil cases handled are of two kinds: (1) "Local Cases" which are cases involving less than 100 yuan and tried in the collegiate section of the District Court; and (2) "First Grade Cases" which are cases involving less than 100 yuan (800 yuan in Jehol) tried by a single justice.

A feature of the latter section of the District Court is that the judge as a rule tries to effect a settlement out of court wherever possible. Only upon his failure so to do is the case formally tried. From his decisions appeals may be made to the collegiate section of the same court which handles them as second instance hearings.

The District Court handles appeals from summary decisions or orders other than those given by single judge trial. The collegiate section may also take up as cases of second instance any decision made on first grade cases by Hsien (county) judicial offices or county magistrates.

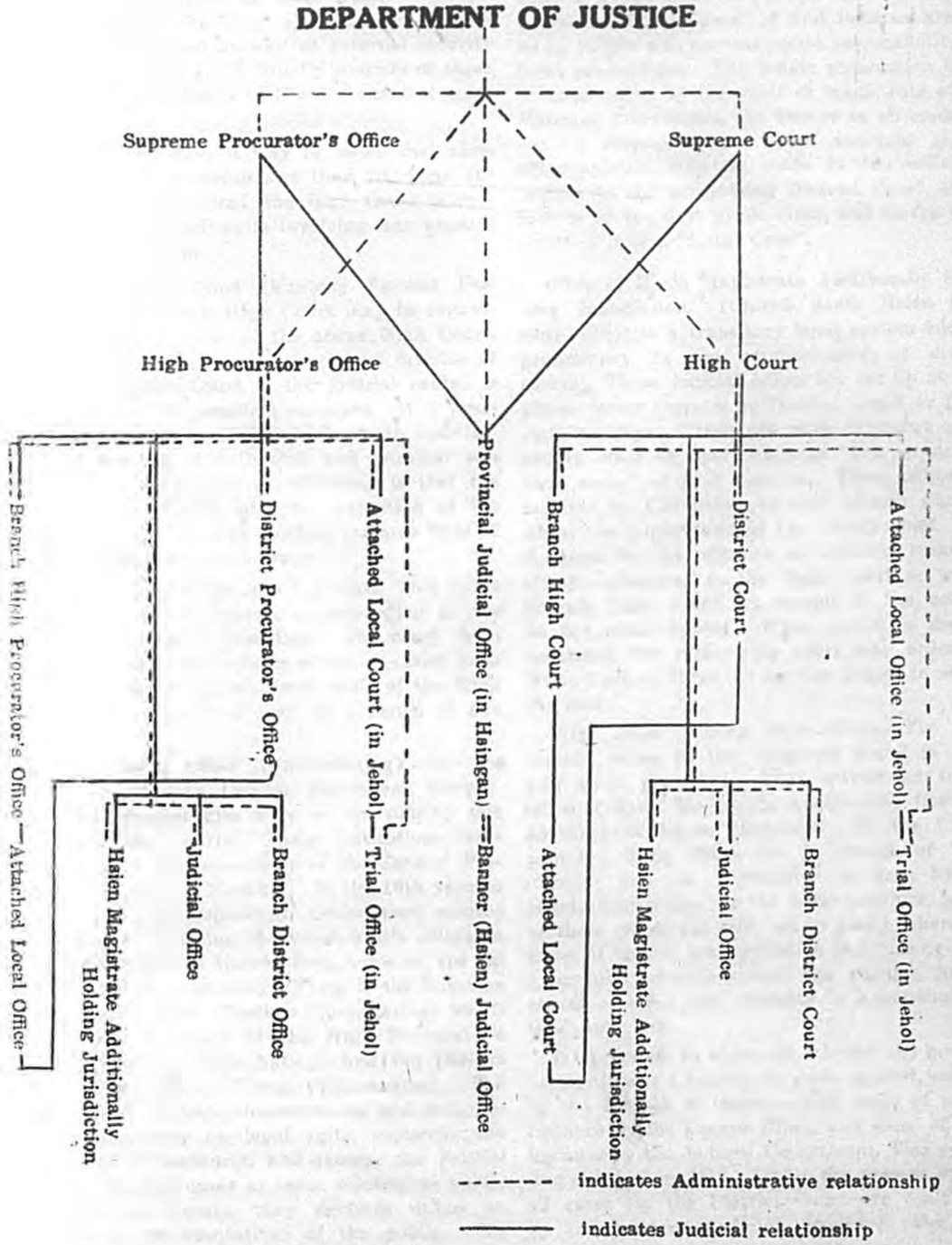
The criminal cases handled by the District Court are also divided in two classes; (1) "First Grade Cases" which are provided under Article 8 of the Criminal Trial Law, or the offences liable to punishment with "the maximum imprisonment of less than three years, or to detention or fines. (2) Local Cases other than classified under the above. Thefts, swindles and breach of trust and some others, though punishable by imprisonment of more than three years, are treated as first grade cases.

In criminal procedure as in civil all "First Grade Cases" are tried by single judges, while the "Local Cases" are handled by the collegiate section of the District Court.

There are two exceptional judicial organs with the same ranking as the District Court: (1) the District Court attached to the High Court in Jehol, and (2) the District Court attached to certain Branch High Courts. The former institution, confined to Jehol, deals with second instance trials of First Grade Cases. The latter district court deals with first instance trials of both "Local" and "First Grade Cases" within its judicial district, and also with second instance trials of both "Local and First Grade Cases" within the district over which extends the jurisdiction of the Branch High Court to which it belongs.

Branch District Court (Tifang Fayuan Fenting).—This branch of the District Court handles second instance trials of "First Grade Cases" and first instance trials of all cases other than those handled by the Supreme Court, High Court, or **Chientiting** of the District Court. In other words, the Branch District Court handles cases of first instance of both "Local and First Grade" classes. The bench is of one judge except in exceptional cases where three judges may be

JUDICIAL SYSTEM OF MANCHOUKUO



ordered to it.

High Court (Kaoteng Fayuan). This court corresponds to the Japanese Court of Appeal, though its function covers a wider field. The High Court deals with second instance trials of "Local Cases," third of final trials of "First Grade Cases." The Court also handles offenses against the internal as well as external security of the state. The bench usually consists of three judges, and sometimes of five for cases of third instance.

In this connection it may be noted that since for civil cases involving less than 100 yuan the second instance is final, the High Court is concerned with no civil suits involving any amount less than the same.

Branch High Court (Kaoteng Fayuan Fenyuan).—The Branch High Court may be regarded as a local division of the above High Court. It is established where the territorial division of which the High Court is the judicial centre is too extensive for practical purposes. It is practically the same as the High Court, in constitution, consisting of both civil and criminal sections. The only point of difference is that the Branch High Court, with the exception of the Fengtien court, handles no third instance trial of the so-called first grade cases.

Supreme Court (Tsuikao Fayuan). This is the highest Court of Appeal, corresponding to the Japanese Court of Cassation. The court deals with trials of third instance of the so-called local cases, and hears appeals from trials of the High Court. It is presided over by a bench of five judges.

Procurator's Office (Chienchating).—In the early days of the Chinese Republican Government the prosecurates were set up side by side with the law courts. These institutions were placed under the supervision of the General Procurator's Office of Nanking. In the 16th year of its regime the Republican Government altered the system, attaching the procurator's offices to the law courts. In Manchoukuo, however, the old system has been adopted. There is the Supreme Procurator's Office (Tsuikao Chienchating) which supervises the work of the High Procurator's Office (Kaoteng Chienchating) and the District Procurator's Office (Tifang Chienchating). The procurators institute investigations and make indictments, carry on legal suits, supervise the execution of sentences, and oversee the judicial police. In civil cases or cases relating to public interests or morals, they perform duties as suitors or representatives of the public. The Procurator's Office functions independently of the Courts.

Hsien Judicial Office, (Hsien Ssufa Kungshu). These local judicial offices are set up within Hsien or county administrative offices where there is no law court within the same area. "First Grade and Local Cases" of first instance are tried by judges who assume entire responsibility for legal proceedings. The public prosecution is instituted either by the chief or magistrate of the Hsien or procurators, the former in all cases assuming responsibility. From decisions of the office appeals may be made to the collegiate section of the supervising District Court, if the case is of the first grade class, and to the High Court if it is a "Local Case".

Office of Hsien Magistrate Additionally Handling Jurisdiction. (Chienli Ssufa Hsien Kung shu).—This is a transitory legal system adopted preliminary to the establishment of district courts. These judicial offices are set up at local places where there is no District Court, or Hsien Judicial Office. Trials are made in charge of the county chief or magistrate on "first grade and local cases" of first instance. These offices are assisted by Chengshen or trial officers who are under the supervision of the county chief. The decisions by the office on all criminal cases are always submitted to the High Court or to the Branch High Court no matter if the accused do not make appeal. When retrial is deemed necessary the supervising court may order the Hsien Judicial Office, or appoint judges to review the case.

Trial Office (Cheng Shen Chu).—The local judicial offices of this class are found in Jehol and Kirin provinces. They correspond to the office of Hsien Magistrate Additionally Handling Jurisdication above mentioned. In the former province these offices are in charge of "trial officers" and the prosecution is done by the county magistrate. In the latter province, judges of these offices are sent out to places where, because of lack of transportation facilities or other geographic considerations, the regular judicial courts or office find difficulty in expending this legal authority.

Trial System In Mongolia.—Under the previous regime it was a rule to try cases of first instance by the Jassack or banner chief, cases of second instance by the League Chief, and those of third instance by the Judicial Department. This system was changed in 1932. Under the present system all cases for the District Court are dealt with by the banner or Hsien (county) office, and

those for the High Court by the Hsien provincial Office. Cases of third instance are handled by the Supreme Court. At the former offices trials are conducted by the banner chief or magistrate. At the provincial offices trials are in charge of a collegiate court of the administrative councillor and judicial officials, with the chief of the province presiding as chief judges. The prosecution is represented by one of the police inspectors of the Hsingan Police Office.

Civil Cases.—The number of civil cases accepted by the High Court and other judiciary courts as at the end of June, 1934 was as follows:—

Table 1. Number of Civil Cases

Accepted During Former Regime	Accepted During New Regime	Total	Decided	Remaining to be Decided
3,895	12,972	132,867	129,005	3,862

Criminal Cases.—The number of criminal cases accepted by the High Court and other judiciary courts as at the end of June, 1933 was as follows:—

Table 2. Number of Criminal Cases

Accepted During Former Regime	Accepted in New Regime	Total	Decided	Remaining to be Decided
1,574	72,137	73,711	71,430	2,281

Police System.—In accordance with the organization of the various departments of the State Council of Manchoukuo promulgated on March 9, 1933, the police affairs of the whole country (exclusive of Hsingan Province) were placed under the control of the Minister of Civil Affairs who should supervise Governors of Provinces, Governor of the North Manchuria Special District, the Chief of the Metropolitan Police Board and the Chief of the Harbin Police Board and under the direct charge of the Bureau of Police Affairs. Thus the Bureau of Police Affairs takes charge of Peace Police and Administrative Police Affairs and is divided into six sections, namely, General Affairs Section, Special Service Section, Peace Preservation Section, Judicial Affairs Section, Detectives Section and Inspectors Office.

Metropolitan Police Board and Harbin Police Board.—Police Boards under the direct control of the Department of Civil Affairs are placed in Hsinking, the Capital of Manchoukuo and Harbin. The former, which is known as the Metropolitan Police Board, was opened on October 15, 1932, and has under its control the city of Hsinking and the whole of Changchun and the latter which, is known as the Harbin Police Board, was opened on March 3, 1933 and has under its control the entire extent of the special city of Harbin.

Special Police Corps.—Police corps under the direct control of the Department of Civil Affairs are stationed at important points on the frontier and seacoasts in view of the necessity of providing against emergencies, the unlawful entry of foreigners into the country, the smuggling in and out of goods, etc. Besides, mobile police corps have been organized under the direct control of the Department of Civil Affairs in order to guard against bandits.

Provincial Police Affairs Board.—In accordance with the organization of the Provincial Government established on March 9, 1932, the Police Affairs Board was instituted with every Provincial Government by abolishing the Whole Province Police Affairs Board which had been in existence before the establishment of the new state to take charge of affairs relating to police, health, and anti-opium smoking, and also settlement of disputes, etc. The Chief of the Police Affairs Board executes his duties in accordance with orders of the Governor of the Province and directs and superintends the police in the Province.

Police Boards.—Prior to the founding of the new State each Provincial Castle town, city and trading port were provided with a Public Peace Bureaus, which were under the direct control of the Whole Province Police Affairs Bureau. After the foundation of the state these bureaus were all placed under the direction of the chiefs of hsiens. In June, 1932 the organization of the Police Board was enacted and promulgated, in accordance with which the Police Boards were instituted in Mukden, Kirin, Tsitsihar, Yingkow, Antung, Chinchou, Yenki, Heiho and Fushun under the direct control of the Governors of the Provinces to take charge of police, fire-fighting, especially health affairs, which may be designated by the Governor. The following are the names of the Police Boards and the districts under their jurisdiction designated by the Department of Civil Affairs on January 25, 1934:—

Seat of Police Board	Name of Police Board	Districts under Jurisdiction
Mukden	Shenyang Police Board	Mukden City
Kirin	Kirin Police Board	Kirin City
Tsitsihar	Tsitsihar Police Board	Tsitsihar City
Antung	Antung Police Board	Antung City

Hsien Police Organs.—The Public Peace Bureau in each hsien before the establishment of Manchoukuo was under the direct control of the Whole Province Police Affairs Bureau and was to be under the supervision of the chief of the hsien. In practice, however, the chief of the Public Peace Bureau wielded greater power than the chief of the hsien. That was prolific of various evils in the way of local administration. Therefore, a Police Bureau was instituted with each Hsien Government in accordance with the hsien organization promulgated on July 5, 1932 in order to secure the unity of hsien administration. Simultaneously with this, Public Peace Bureaus in each district of the hsien and in trading ports were transformed into police offices under the direction and supervision of the chief of the hsien.

Water Police Bureau.—What had been known as water public peace bureaus were renamed Water Police Bureau to take charge of police affairs on the principal rivers of the country. There are four water police bureaus as follows:—

Table 3. Water Police Bureaus

Fengtien Province	Yalu & Han Rivers Water Police Bureau
	Liaoho Water Police Bureau
Kirin Province	Sungari Upper Water Police Bureau
	Sungari Lower Water Police Bureau

Police Affairs Bureau in the North Manchuria Special District.—Formerly, police affairs in the North Manchuria Special District, which was known as the Eastern Province Special District, was under the control of the Eastern Province Special District Police Superintendent Bureau, which had branch offices in important places. With the promulgation of the organization of the North Manchuria Special District on July 1, 1933, the Eastern Province Special District Police Superintendent Bureau was abolished and a Police Affairs Bureau was established in the North Manchuria Special District Office to take charge of the police affairs of the whole district.

The number of police offices and fire stations in Manchoukuo is tabulated below:—

Table 4. Number of Police Offices and Fire Stations

(End of February, 1934)

Headquarters and Provinces	No. of Police offices	No. of Fire Station	Total
Metropolitan Police Board	9	1	10
Harbin Police Bureau ..	11	4	15
North Manchuria Special District Office	12	—	12
Fentien Province	470	20	490
Kirin Province	257	13	270
Heilungkiang Province ..	139	—	139
Jehol Province	25	—	25

(For police administration in Hsingan Province see Chapter 26 on the Hsingan Provinces).

Reformed Jurisdiction

Under the previous regime of Manchuria legal practices, despite the improvements made in codification and other lines, remained in quite inefficient hands. The administration of the law courts was seldom free from political interference. In view of this fact, the judicial authorities of Manchoukuo have bent their efforts on securing the independence of the judicial administration of the country. In consequence the law courts higher than the local branches have all been placed in positions to function their authority, maintaining their dignity and independence. The only case where reform has yet to be made is that the local judicial offices and Hsien chiefs are entrusted with dispensation of justice. The system, however, being a transitory one, is to be done away with when local courts have been added to extend their work over all parts of the country.

The attention of the Department of Justice has since its establishment been mostly given to adjustment of the conditions in which it found the matter of judicial administration. In the first fiscal year the Department appropriated no

more than 3,181,126 yuan with additional appropriation of 3,547,444. In the second fiscal year the budget appropriations advanced to the total of 5,897,135 yuan, and in 1934 to 8,024,000.

One of the earliest reforms made under the present administration was to raise the salaries of the justices and other officials. Under the previous regime the legal authorities were so underpaid that they were perforce compelled to practice corruption, courting in consequence open public contempt. At the same time the accounting system of all judicial institutions, the source of confusion and maladministration in the past, has been unified on a countrywide basis. Appropriations have been made for recodification of the laws with the object of reviewing them to meet the sanitary and other conditions of the prisons, laws being in substance those of the old Manchu dynasty. Work has also been started on repairs and reconstruction of court and other buildings which had been suffered to fall into decay by the former militarist rules. Improvement on the sanitary and other conditions of the prisons was also a matter of early concern under the present administration.

Consular Jurisdiction

Among all reforms and changes under contemplation, by far the most important is the question of abolishing the system of consular jurisdiction, an undertaking involved in the envisaged work of withdrawing Japanese extraterritoriality. So far as Manchoukuo is concerned, extraterritoriality is part of the treaty obligations she undertook from the former regime. The Department of Justice has since the first year of Tatung been striving for improvement of the judicial system, a condition to abolishment of the consular courts. Some of the more important things accomplished to date are described below.

Participation of Japanese Jurists.—The contempt in which the courts of justice and its administrators were held under the former Chinese rule had kept men of quality or ability away from jurisdiction. Of these legal officials many, especially of South China origin, left the country when the new state of Manchoukuo was established. To meet this situation a number of jurists were engaged from Japan. The law School of the Department of Justice was hurriedly called into being, though the depleted force will not be filled yet another year by its graduates. Wherever Manchu officials are engaged they are placed under the direction of Japanese jurists.

In view of Japan's successful abolition of extraterritoriality in a period of 30 years, Manchoukuo has since its first year been engaging Japanese jurists of high scholarship and practical experience. In the latter part of 1932, 82, 200 yuan was appropriated for this purpose. As an initial undertaking a collegiate section was formed at the Fengtien High Court of two Japanese and as many Manchou judges. In 1933, the sum of 198,329 yuan was appropriated to appoint Japanese officials at the High Court of Kirin and Harbin. The High Procurator's Office of Fengtien, Kirin and Harbin as well as the District courts and Prosecutorates of the last named district were likewise reenforced by judges of Japanese nationality. These experimental arrangements having proved successful, the budget appropriation was substantially increased to 506,262 yuan for 1934 for engagement of more judicial officials from Japan. The total number of these judicial officials from Japan is given below as at the end of June of 1934.

Table 5. No. of Judicial Officials

Court	Total No.	Chief Judge	Judge	Prosecuor	Clerks	Interpreters
Mukden High Courts						
Fengtien High Procurator's Office ..	12	1	1	1	5	4
Kirin High Courts						
Kirin High Procurator's Office	9	1	1	1	4	2
North Manchuria Special District High Courts						
North Manchuria Special High Procurator's Office	10	1	1	1	5	1
North Manchuria Special District Courts						
North Manchuria Special District Procurator's Office	6	—	1	1	3	1
Total	37	3	4	4	17	9

In 1934 the Department of Justice appropriated some 30,000 yuan with the object of sending Manchou officials to Japan and to the Kwantung Leased territory for study of Japanese legal system and institutions.

Complete Transformation of Judicial System

It was announced on May 8th, 1936 that the organization law of Manchoukuo Courts, promulgated on January 4, 1936 would take effect on July 1, 1936. A complete transformation of the Manchoukuo judicial system will be brought about by its enforcement, resulting in an increase in the number of Courts and Procurators' offices, a revision of the present trial system, the independence of the judiciary, the establishment of a circuit court system and in the appointment of vice-presidents of Courts and Procurators' Offices.

With the enforcement of the new law, local Courts and local procurators' offices will be newly established. The new law provides in principle for the establishment of a three instance trial system for both civil and criminal suits, with one or two exceptions in criminal cases. That is, lese majeste cases will be adjudicated under the first, and at the same time, final instance, and will fall under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. Offences of internal disturbance and cases of espionage will be subjected to two trials, the first trial falling under the jurisdiction of the High Court.

Law **School of Department of Justice.**—In order to meet the urgent situation as regards judicial administration, the Department of Justice set up its Law School in 1934. The regular course is to be completed in three years, the scholars being examined for entrance in their health and scholarship of higher middle school grade. Scholars are also taken to a certain number by recommendatioin and otherwise from among the clerks serving at courts.

The secondary course is to be completed in six months. The scholars are enrolled by recommendation of chief judges and otherwise from those who are serving as judges and prosecutors at district and other courts and not older than 40 years of age.

Attached to the school is the goalers' training institute where officials selected by recommendation from those who are serving as warders or chief goalers and not older than 40 years of age. The training course is completed in 4 months.

Other Reforms.—Manchoukuo's interest in penology was early shown in the matter of improving the prisons and the detention quarters where unconvicted prisoners are kept. Under the former administration any idea of improving the prison was frowned upon as encouraging crime. Evil practices were especially notorious where the prisons were administered under contract.

Manchoukuo's earliest improvement in this direction was seen in the abolition of the old system of commuting prison terms to payment of fines, a system by which any one could buy his freedom. Improvement of food and regular supply of clothing to the prison inmates were also undertaken. Special funds are also being appropriated each year for training under Japanese direction Manchu jailers who were often in the past men of undesirable character and not above unscrupulous practices.

At the end of June 1934 there were 24 new style prisons and 110 old style prisons.

Prison Law

The organization law of prisons was promulgated by Imperial Ordinance No. 32 on April 1, 1935:

An official translation of the new prison law follows:

ARTICLE I

The prisons shall come under the supervision of the minister of justice.

ARTICLE II

When he deems it necessary, the minister of justice may establish sub-prisons.

ARTICLE III

The entire personnel of the various prisons shall be composed of the following members:

Twenty-three governors (Tienyu) of the grade of recommended appointment;

Eight health experts (Pochienchitso) of the grade of recommended appointment;

Thirty assistant-governors (Tienyutso) of the delegated appointment (eight of whom may be of the grade of recommended appointment);

Twenty-nine instructors (Chiaowukuan) of the grade delegated appointment;

One hundred fifty-seven chief warders (Kanschouchang) of the grade of delegated appointment.

In addition to the above personnel, the prisons shall have chief warders who shall be in charge of general affairs, (Chujenkanshou) and warders (Kanshou), all of whom shall be treated as officials of the grade of delegated appointment.

ARTICLE IV

Prison superintendents shall be appointed from among the governors.

Sub-prison superintendents shall be appointed from among the assistant governors of the chief warders.

ARTICLE V

The prison superintendents shall, under the direction and supervision of the minister of justice, administer the affairs of their respective prisons, and direct and supervise their subordinate officials. They shall also, by their decisions, execute all matters concerning the promotion and degradation of chief warders or warders.

ARTICLE VI

The sub-prison superintendents shall administer the affairs of their respective sub-prisons, and direct and supervise their subordinate officials, under the direction and supervision of prison superintendents.

ARTICLE VII

The health expert shall take charge of all matters concerning the medical examination and treatment of prisoners, and matters concerning prison sanitation.

ARTICLE VIII

Those assistant-governors, who are not sub-prison superintendents, shall attend to prison affairs under the direction of their superior officials.

ARTICLE IX

The instructors shall, under the direction of their superior officials, take charge of all matters concerning the building of character and education of prisoners.

ARTICLE X

Those chief warders, who are not sub-prison-superintendents, shall attend to prison duties under the direction of their superior officials.

ARTICLE XI

Regulations concerning the regular numbers of chief warders and warders, their duties and discipline, shall be determined by the minister of justice.

ARTICLE XII

The allotment of prison duties shall be determined by the minister of justice.

ARTICLE XIII

The names and locations of the prisons shall be as listed in a separate table.

SUPPLEMENTARY

The present law shall come into force on May 1, 2nd year of Kangte.

As for all existing prisons excepting those that are listed in the following table, and excluding those that have become sub-prisons in accordance with the provision of Article 11 of the present law, all affairs relating to such prisons shall, for the time being, be dealt with in accordance with the practice obtaining hitherto.

The table of the names and locations of prisons follows:

Name — *Location*

Hsinking Prison, Hsinking Special Municipality;
Kirin Prison, Kirin City, Kirin Province;
Lungkiang Prison, Tsitsihar City, Lungkiang Province;
Paichuan Prison, Paichuan-hsien, Lungkiang Province;
Taonan Prison, Taonan-hsien, Lungkiang Province;
Ilan Prison, Ilan-hsien Sankiang Province;
Pinkiang Prison, Harbin Special Municipality;
Hulan Prison, Hulan-hsien, Pinkiang Province;
Yenki Prison, Yenki-hsien, Chientao Province;
Antung Prison, Antung-hsien, Antung Province;
Mukden Prison, Mukden City, Fengtien Province;
Fushun Prison, Fushun--hsien, Fengtien Province;
Liaoyang Prison, Liaoyang-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Yingkow Prison, Yingkow-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Fuchow Prison, Wafangtien, Fu-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Tiehling Prison, Tiehling-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Liaoyuan Prison, Chengchiatun, Liaoyang-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Sian Prison, Sian-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Changtu Prison, Changtsu-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Hailung Prison, Hailung-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Hsinking Prison, Hsinking-hsien, Fengtien Province;
Chinchow Prison, Chin-hsien, Chinchow Province; and
Chengteh Prison, Chengteh-hsien, Jehol Province.

References: Table 1, 2, 3, 4—Manchoukuo Nienpao (Annual Report of Manchoukuo), 1935. Table 5—Research of the Justice Department of Manchoukuo.

CHAPTER VIII

DIPLOMACY

Recognition of Manchoukuo

The diplomatic policy of Manchoukuo has been obviously concerned in the question of recognition by foreign nations. Since the formal recognition of the country first by Japan in September 1932 and next by El Salvador in March 1934, there has been no other diplomatic procedure of the same kind, though any diplomatic gesture suggestive of such movement has naturally received serious considerations at Hsinking.

The visit therefore to Manchoukuo in the autumn of 1934 of the F. B. I. delegation under Lord Barnby, though its mission was one of strictly economic nature, was regarded in Manchoukuo as something of more than economic significance. It was equally significant that the British industrial delegation's report on its Manchurian trip was couched in language very favourable to the new empire. The British paper "Observer" was quoted about this time as having expressed its inclination to question anew whether it would not be politic to recognize Manchoukuo in order to maintain the British commercial relations unimpaired.

The sale agreement of the North Manchuria (Chinese Eastern) Railway was regarded by a large section of opinion in Manchoukuo and Japan as implying a de facto recognition of the former by the Soviet Union. Whatever technical view of the matter may be taken, Manchoukuo has been diplomatically dealing with the Soviet through the consular channels since 1932.

The opening at Dairen of the Norwegian Consulate in January 1935, and of the Esthonian Consulate in October, followed by the establishment of the Czechoslovakian Consulate at the same city, as well as the appointment by Berlin in March 1935 of Dr. Knoll as Commercial Councillor at Mukden, were all received in Manchoukuo as gratifying indications of its growing importance in international trade and of the changing attitude of the powers.

As one of the indications of the world situation as regards the same question, it is not without interest to note that the New York "Times," in its issue of May 5th 1935, contained a wireless despatch from its Belgium correspondent, saying that the matter of recognizing Manchoukuo had been discussed there, and that a group of metallurgists had put themselves on record as favouring the recognition. Other interests, it added, were inclined to oppose an immediate move because recognition might be used as a valuable argument in future commercial negotiations.

However that may be, opinion in Manchoukuo, and in Japan for that matter, holds that the only way to secure a de jure recognition of Manchoukuo by any foreign nation can be conceived only as a logical issue of the commercial and industrial developments to be made on Manchurian soil.

Japanese Diplomacy Under New System

The unification of Japanese diplomacy, as seen in the new system inaugurated in December 1934, while pregnant with potentialities, is important, so far as Manchoukuo is concerned, because of the fact that Japanese diplomacy will hereafter be conducted only through one channel represented by the commander of the Japanese garrison in Manchuria. Under the altered system Japanese diplomacy is to be conducted, no longer by consular representatives as in the past, but by the military chief, with the Councillor and his diplomatic staff to assist him in technical matters. The general-ambassador is responsible only to the Prime Minister. The Foreign Minister at Tokyo, so far as Manchuria is concerned, has the nominal power to supervise the work of the military-diplomat, though in reality he is only to get reports from the latter on the diplomatic situation.

This change was foreshadowed in 1933 when General Muto was appointed as Japanese Ambassador in Hsinking at the same time that he assumed command of the Kwantung army. In the past, Japanese diplomacy in Manchuria used to be accused of being "four-headed", orders emanating from the South Manchuria Railway, Consulate, Kwantung Civil Government and Kwantung army.

Another notable feature of the administrative change is seen in the virtual elimination from the Manchurian field of the Ministry of Overseas

Affairs under which the Kwantung Civil Government had been operating. The Kwantung Goverment, reduced to the status of a bureau, is placed under the direction of the military ambassador. The police force previously of the same Kwantung Government has been placed under the commander of the Gendarme force in Manchuria.

Preparations for Abolition of Extraterritoriality

In order to respond to sympathetic measures taken by Japan in connexion with the abolition of extraferritoriality in Manchoukuo the Department of Foreign Affairs has made every effort in conjunction with the other government departments concerned to reform and replete various institutions on the line of Japanese examples by estimating considerable expenditures in the Budgets.

With reference to the forthcoming partial abolition of extraterritorial rights by Japan, the Foreign Office authorities of Manchoukuo consider it natural to apply it to other countries, which have had extraterritorial rights in Manchuria since the former regime. They are considering jointly with the other government departments concerned measures to be taken to that end. Manchoukuo is steadily developing as an independent country. She is determined to abolish unilaterally the extraterritorial rights of any country which may go on keeping them without recognizing that fact. She believes that at a time when Japan is going to abolish of her own accord her extraterritorial rights there is no reason whatever to treat any other country better than Japan. The earliest possible recognition of Manchoukuo is fast being in fermentation among such countries as Italy, Poland, Siam and countries of Central and South America who have perceived that situation.

Japan's Policy Regarding Abolition of Extraterritoriality

On August 9, 1934 the Japanese Government issued the following statement in the form of remarks by the authorities of the Foreign Office:—

"The key-note of Japan's national policy towards Manchoukuo is as already stated clearly in the Imperial Rescript issued in March 1933, in connection with Japan's withdrawal from the League of Nations and in the Japan-Manchoukuo protocol signed on September 15, 1932.

"It is that the indivisible relationship between Manchoukuo and Japan shall be maintained. Manchoukuo shall attain a healthy development as an independent state so that the situation in the Far East may be stabilized, and so that the new State may contribute to Japan's national policy, the justice of which Japan is trying to proclaim throughout the world.

"Since its foundation Manchoukuo has been showing sound development. Internally, while working for a readjustment and completion of its political, economic and other systems, externally, the new State has been endeavouring to gain the confidence of other nations.

"In preparation for the abolition of extraterritoriality, it has been devising measures for the improvement of its land system, police, taxation, etc.

"For this purpose it had even appropriated the sum of more than 8,000,000 yen in the budget for the first fiscal year of Kangte (1934-35).—

"Japan has for many years enjoyed in Manchuria extraterritorial rights, which under the conditions existing prior to the establishment of Manchoukuo, were important factors which were essential to Japanese progress in Manchuria. "However, with the development of Japanese policy towards Manchuria, these factors have gradually come to lose their importance.

"At the same time it has become necessary to relinquish these rights if Manchoukuo is to be allowed to attain full development.

"Such a relinquishment is also essential for real harmony between the Manchoukuo and Japanese nations, and for the strengthening of the friendly and indivisible relationship between the two countries which is required if full progress of Japanese nationals in Manchoukuo is to be made possible as well as assured.

"As for the South Manchuria Railway zone, it was obtained by our country in the Russo-Japanese war at the risk of our national fortune.

"Since then for 30 years it has been administered with untiring energy.

"Needless to say, it has formed the basis of Japanese development in Manchuria.

"Since the foundation of Manchoukuo, it has become necessary to readjust and transfer Japan's administrative rights in the railway zone gradually, owing to the new situation arising as a result of the establishment of the new State.

"The Japanese Government consequently at a cabinet meeting on August 9 decided upon the following principles concerning the relinquishment of extraterritoriality and the readjustment and transfer of administrative rights in the S.M.R. zone, and is planning to devise concrete measures to be carried out step by step:

"(a) In accordance with the spirit of past agreements and in step with the improvement of various systems and facilities in Manchoukuo, Japanese extraterritorial rights in Manchoukuo shall be relinquished gradually so as to avoid any sudden change in the life of our nationals in that country.

"In relinquishing such rights special consideration will be also given to the desire to see a greater development of the Japanese citizens throughout the whole of Manchoukuo and to the necessity of a smooth execution of Japanese policy towards Manchoukuo.

"(b) The S.M.R. zone itself will of course be retained by Japan, but Japan's administrative rights in the said zone shall be readjusted and transferred in view of their connection with the cession of extraterritoriality mentioned above.

"Such readjustment and transfer shall be undertaken as improvements are made in the various systems and facilities of Manchoukuo, and in step with the gradual retrocession of extraterritorial rights and in accordance with the nature of each matter to be affected thereby.

"Finally a word must be added here that the lease of the Kwantung territory is a very different matter, in origin as well as nature, from the administrative rights within the S.M.R.

"Consequently it is obvious that a readjustment and transfer of these rights will have no bearing or connection whatsoever upon the question of the lease of the Kwantung Territory."

In response to the above statement by the Japanese Government, the Manchoukuo Government issued a statement in the form of remarks by a Foreign Office spokesman, which was to the following effect:—

From the foundation of Manchoukuko all Japan has assisted in her growth at the cost of anything and everything with the result that she has attained the present prosperity. Furthermore, the Japanese Government decided at a Cabinet Council to relinquish Japan's extraterritorial rights which she has enjoyed as her paramount interests for more than thirty long years and also to transfor gradually her administrative rights in the S.M.R. Zone. It is a cause of deep gratitude to Manchoukuo, which is on the road to development, that Japan should have thus demonstrated to the whole world a proof of the friendly relations of Japan and Manchoukuo. While offering heartfelt gratitude for the amity and great decision thus shown by Japan, H.I.M. the Emperor and his 30,000,000 people rejoice the fact that the foundation of the friendly relations between the two countries is being more and more solidified.

Rupture of Manchouli Conference

In the previous issue of the Japan-Manchoukuo Year Book reference was made to the Harha incident in January, 1935 and the Manchouli Conference, which was opened in June to settle the incident. This conference broke down late in November, 1935 owing to the Outer Mongolians' stubborn resistance in their contention. The details of the situation will be seen from the following statement made by the Department of Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo under date of November 25, 1935:—

The boundary between Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia extends over a distance of 700 kilometres and, moreover, it is not clearly defined in a number of places, which facts, to our regret, have frequently given rise to complications. Prompted by the Harhar incident, which took place on January 24th this year, the representatives of Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia on June 1st opened negotiations at Manchouli for the settlement of the incident. On June 23rd, however, another incident broke out at a place near Hailastengol, within the territory of Manchoukuo, in which case the members of a surveying party of the Kwantung Army despatched there at the request of this Government were unlawfully attacked and taken away as captives by Outer Mongolian soldiers into their territory, in consequence of which, negotiations were for a time suspended.

Subsequently, on October 2nd, the conference was resumed to settle the aforementioned affairs and also to consider the questions of exchanging envoys or representatives and of creating a commission to deal with border disputes.

We proposed at the conference that envoys be stationed at Ulanbator (Urga) and Hsinking, respectively, and local represntatives at Tamusksumu and Sanbeis, in Outer Mongolia, and Manchouli and Hailar, in Manchoukuo, which are situated close to the border, suggesting further that in case any question should arise which could not be settled by these local representatives, it should be dealt with by the envoys stationed at each other's capital. In this way we hoped to establish friendly relations between the two countries.

The Mongolian side, however, firmly insisted that it was sufficient for each country to have a representative only at a single spot in the other country, namely, at Manchouli and Tamusksumu, and refused to yield from this position.

Realizing that to station our representative at such a remote place as Tamusksumu alone would be of little value in dealing with border troubles in promoting amicable relations between the two countries, we earnestly endeavoured to bring the Outer Mongolian representatives to reconsider their position. But the Outer Mongolians not only indulged in slandering propaganda with regard to our attitude but also stubbornly persisted in its contention so that our labours exerted for the cause of amity and good neighbourliness were brought to naught, and the conference finally broke down on November 25th.

While Outer Mongolia poses as an independent state, her doors are tightly closed to other countries, even to a neighbourly state like ours whose people are related to theirs racially, and there is no means whatsoever of knowing her internal conditions. Moreover, her police and military often invade our territory and fire upon our nationals or take them away as captives. Her existence is thus a source of great concern to us. It was, therefore, to open the doors of this mysterious realm with the view to establishing cordial and brotherly relations on the one hand and to settling amicably border disputes on the other, that our delegates submitted the most reasonable proposals and strove so patiently and prudently for their acceptance by the Outer Mongolian representatives. In spite of such endeavours on our part, the Mongolian delegates were obstinate to the very end in complete disregard of our goodwill shown to them, and this led to the rupture. Thus it is self evident that the responsibility for the disruption rests entirely with the Outer Mongolian side.

The true nature of Outer Mongolia has hitherto been a mystery because of her policy of seclusion which is exclusive and secret. In view of the fact that at the recent conference she went so far as to refuse the admission of even such elementary right of intercourse as that of exchanging envoys, which is recognized without exception by international law and international usage as a basic right of a state, thereby giving the impression that her freedom is restrained by some agent, we can on no account regard her as a normal state. Accordingly we hereby wish to declare that we shall henceforth regard her as a dangerous and mysterious region lying contiguous to our territory, and that we are determined to settle those outstanding issue, the opportunity of whose solution has been lost due to the breakdown of the conference, as well as those that may arise in future, independently and according to our own disposition.

Unlawful Acts of Outer Mongolians:—A clash occurred in the vicinity of Bulun Dersy on December 19, 1935 and in the vicinity of Ulahodok on December 24 between the Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolian guards which had been facing each other over the border with anything but friendly spirits since the breakdown of the Manchouli Conference. The spot where the clash occurred on the 19th of December is one of the places, which, despite the fact that they are definitely within the territory of Manchoukuo, had hitherto been invaded and occupied by Outer Mongolian troops. In spite of the warnings given by Manchoukuo guards, the Outer Mongolian troops involved in that affair assumed an aggressive attitude, instead of consenting to withdraw, thus compelling the Manchoukuo guards to repulse the attack.

In the latter clash on the 24th of December one member of the Manchoukuo troops was killed and three of the Japanese detachment which participated in the action assisting the Manchoukuo troops were wounded. The clash was caused entirely by the Outer Mongolian soldiers, fifty or sixty in number who suddenly crossed the borders between Manchoukuo and the Soviet troops which had been on guard.

Border Disputes with Soviet

Ever since the foundation of Manchoukuo the borders between Manchoukuo and the Soviet Union and between Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia have been seething with disturbances, disputes between the former (up to the end of August, 1935) numbering as many as 247 and those between the latter 44. These disputes have largely been due to either illegal crossing over the border or other unlawful deeds on the part of Soviets or Outer Mongolians. None of them has arisen through provocation on the part of either Japanese or Manchus. Most of these border troubles remain to be settled. According to investigation conducted by the Kwantung Garrison, from the establishment of the country up to the end of August, 1935 there were 184 unlawful acts including 136 unlawful crossing over the border committed by Soviets against Manchoukuo. Of these, 107 were formally protested against by the Manchoukuo Government. Only four have been completely and twelve partially settled, the rest or 91 still are awaiting attention.

This frequent occurrence of border disputes between Manchoukuo and Soviet Russia is due, of course, chiefly to the vagueness of the border line between the two countries and also to

deliberate action or a lack of sincerity on the part of the Soviet Union. More than once since the foundation of the country, Manchoukuo has proposed to the Soviet Union in regard to the redemarcation of the border line, but the latter has consistently refused to consider this just and reasonable proposal on the part of the former under the pretext that the border line has definitely demarcated. The boundary between the two countries extending over 3,700 kilometers is largely left uncertain.

Suifenho Incident.—Two Japanese and four Manchurians were killed and five others were wounded on October 12, 1935 when about 50 Soviet cavalrymen, who had illegally crossed the Manchoukuo frontier, attacked a border inspection party at a spot about 20 kilometres north of Suifenho, according to an official announcement made by the Headquarters of the Kwantung Army. On the 13th the Manchoukuo Foreign Affairs Office at Suifenho lodged a verbal protest with the Soviet Consul there against the illegal firing by Soviet troops upon a border inspection party in Manchoukuo territory. The announcement runs as follows:—

"In order to effect a satisfactory settlement of the border clash between Manchoukuo and Soviet soldiers near Suifenho on October 6, an investigation party, composed of Corporal Nemoto and two other gendarmes statioined at Suifenho, one member of the Japanese consular police at Suifenho and five border police familiar with the topography of the border region, was dispatched by the Kwantung Army to make further investigation on the spot.

"The party which was accompanied by two Manchoukuo officers, who were connected with the above incident, and 30 Manchoukuo frontier patrols as guards, was erecting a post at the scene of the incident at about 3 p.m. on October 12 when it was suddenly fired upon without warning by about 50 Soviet soldiers who carried four or five heavy machine guns.

"The party was compelled to return fire and in the severe fighting which ensued, one Japanese gendarme, one Japanese guide and four Manchoukuo frontier guards were killed, and five other frontier guards wounded.

"Upon receipt of the news of the clash, the chief of the Kwantung Army's special service mission at Suifenho immediately dispatched Captain Nakamura from the Suifenho garrison to the scene to make a thorough investigation.

On the 22nd October the Department of Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo issued the following unofficial statement:—

"Incidents frequently occuring on the border of late and charges of crossing the frontier can be traced to the ambiguity of the present border line. Naturally, once a clear line of demarcation is drawn, the whole question will be settled at once. The Mukden Protocol and the Sino-Russian Treaty stipulate that a joint commission to define the border be created, but it is much to be deplored that owing to a breach of faith of the Union, anything resembling such an organ has not been established thus far.

"Furthermore, notwithstanding the fact that this matter involves Manchoukuo and the Soviet Union and therefore ought to be settled directly the Soviet Union in the past has never approached the Government of Manchoukuo. It is on this account that Manchoukuo has so far refrained from acting positively on the question.

"If, however, a Soviet proposal in any form is received in the near future, the Government of Manchoukuo will be willing to agree to the appointment of a joint border commission, in the hope that a line will be defined quickly to make possible a satisfactory solution of all relevant problems.

"Illegal crossing by Soviet nationals at the border and the capture and kidnapping by Soviet authorities of Manchoukuo subjects have been reported. These cases, which have been handled officially by the Manchoukuo Foreign Office during the three months from June 1, this year to September 30, numbered as many as 32.

"According to a recent report from the councillor of the Fuyuan hsien, there have occurred since the icethawing season, this year, three cases in which Manchoukuo postmen were illegally carried off by Soviet authorities on the Ussuri river in that hsien and along the Heilungkiang river. At each time, mail matter carried by the three postmen was forcibly opened by Soviet officials. Stricken with terror, these postmen have resigned. Under such circumstances, communications in these districts are now in a state of suspension.

"At present, the Government of Manchoukuo is not in a positiion to take effective measures in this direction, but it is anxious for a speedy solution of the entire problem either through the appointment of a joint commission or other appropriate measures. It should be reiterated that the matter is for the Soviet Union and Manchoukuo directly to deal with, but recently there has broken out another case in which a Japanese gendarme was shot dead, presenting a problem for settlement by the Soviet and Japan."

Chinchangkow Affair.—On January 29, 1936, a

part of the Manchoukuo contingent stationed at Chinchangkow situated to the west of No.22 boundary-mark on the eastern Manchoukuo-Soviet frontier, numbering about 108, rose in mutiny, and after slaying three officers, looting Government property, and setting fire to the barracks, fled towards Soviet territory.

When, at about 1 p.m. on January 30, a Manchoukuo-Japanese detachment stationed in the neighbourhood, receiving the report of the mutiny, followed the path of the fleeing soldiers to a spot near the boundary line, 8 kilometres southwest of No.22 boundary-mark, to investigate the affairs, a body composed of the aforementioned deserters and Soviet soldiers, numbering about 100 or more, crossed the border and suddenly fired upon the said Manchoukuo-Japanese detachment. The latter was compelled to return the fire and the fighting continued until the evening of that day. The deserters and Soviet soldiers were finally driven back into Soviet territory, but in the meantime the Manchoukuo troops suffered two killed and two wounded, and the Japanese ten killed and ten wounded. In this engagement, three men of a commanding rank in the Soviet army were unmistakably observed to be directing the deserters with whips. In addition, two or three Soviet soldiers crossed the border far into Manchoukuo territory and approached to attack the right flank of the Manchoukuo-Japanese detachment. The bodies of the attackers and the arms used by them, which were left within Manchoukuo territory, have been recovered by the detachment.

Later, on February 1, a Japanese detachment which proceeded to inspect the scene of the incident was again fired upon from a thick wood in the front. The detachment responded and repulsed the attackers. On this occasion, too, some Soviet soldiers were clearly recognized participating in the firing. and on that day, the action likewise took place entirely within Manchoukuo territory.

The Government of Manchoukuo lodged a strong protest with the Soviet Government against protecting the mutineers and demanded their return in the first place; secondly they protested against the Soviet troops' helping the mutineers who have caused so many casualties among the Japanese and Manchoukuo men and officers. The Manchoukuo Government maintained that the Manchoukuo-Japanese forces had moved well within the border, which was clear on the map as well as in practice, while the Soviet authorities insisted that the Manchoukuo soldiers had trespassed over the boundary.

Manchoukuo Contends that Proper Demarcation is Necessary for Prevention of Border Clashes

On February 21, 1936 the authorities of the Manchoukuo Foreign Office issued to the United Press Association a statement on border clashes, which begins as follows:—

"Since the establishment of the country, there have been incessant troubles in the Manchoukuo-Soviet border, all of which have been left unsettled after protests and counter-protests from each other. In 1935 alone there were 106 comparatively important troubles consisting mostly of illegal trespassing over that boundary by the Soviet GPU and kidnapping, shooting, pillaging and indendiarism inflicted upon our people and properties. The Soviet side imputes all these troubles to the trespassing of the boundary by our people. In view of the necessity of preventing such unpleasant occurrences, we have alway- observed that the most necessary step to be taken for preventing such troubles is to delimit the boundary which is altgether unsettled at present." Then, after referring to the Chinchangkow incident, the statement continues:

"Although the Soviet officials claim that the boundary is already settled by treaties as well as by practice, we contend that it is not, and that it should be clearly demarcated, for otherwise it would be very difficult to solve future troubles by peaceful means. Any one who has read the final stipulations between China and Russia relating to the question of boundaries, namely, a certain provision in the Sino-Soviet Agreement and the Mukden-Soviet Agreement of 1924 (Article 7 of the former and Article 3 of the latter) reading "the Governments of the two contracting parties agree to redemarcate their national boundaries through a commission—" will have no doubt that the Soviet themselves admitted by so agreeing to redemarcate the boundaries, that the boundaries were not definitely settled. In fact, there are a large number of treaties and agreements between Russia and China regarding boundaries which are not clear. For instance, as for the so-called Tsitsihar Agreement of 1911 delimitting the frontier in the West, the Chinese Government has consistently refused to admit its effectiveness due to the irregular form of the said agreement. There are about 1,000 small islands on the Amur River, but the Aigun Treaty of 1858 only mentions that the land to the north of the Amur belongs to Russia and that to the south to China, and does not touch upon the ownership of these numerous islands, although the Soviets maintain that the ownership is already clear from the red line marked on the map affixed to the treaty, we have reason to believe that no such red line could have been drawn at the time of the treaty making.

"One of the most important boundary issues between this country and the U.S.S.R. relates to the ownership of the delta between the Amur and the Ussuri Rivers, which is about 1 sq. km. in area. By treaty provisions, as well as in practice, the delta indisputably belongs to Manchoukuo. As for the eastern frontier, while there are several agreements, which more or less define the border line, the boundary monuments or boundary marks are erected only at an interval of 19 kilometres one from the other, some having been removed and others pushed forward by the Russians. There is no sign between these land marks to indicate where the boundary line is, the agreements only stipulating "by that small hill" or "by this river, etc. The Soviet contention that the boundary are already settled both by treaties as well as in practice is altogether unfounded. The reson why the Soviets did not redemarcate the boundaries by the commission according to the Agreements of 1924 can be imagined easily, as they probably thought that it might have been better for them to leave the border line indefinite in view of the weak position of China. In other words, the boundaries were left ambiguous for strong Russia against weak China. The Manchoukuo Government is not opposed in principle to setting up a commission for settling disputes, but this Government strongly insists that the boundaries must first of all be delimited, for otherwise there would be no way of judging as to which side did the trespassing when any dispute arose.

In the recent Chinchangkow incident we demanded that the Soviets return the Manchoukuo mutineers, but they refused to do so. By the way, we have reason to believe that these soldiers were instigated to riot by secret Soviet agents. There are numerous instances, and facts to prove them that such agents have been active throughout the mountainous regions of this country, especially in the eastern sections, sovietizing bandits, supplying them with arms and ammunition. There have been cases wherein the Soviet afforded refuge and shelter to Manchoukuo bandits who had fled across the border. The refusal on the part of the Soviet officials to return the deserters, creating such examples as giving protection to our deserting soldiers, is bound to give strong moral support to other bandits or discontented elements within our country, and will greatly hinder our work of preserving peace and order. If, therefore, the Soviets have a tiny bit of sincerity to co-operate with us in preserving peace in this part of the world, they, by forgetting small quibbles on international usage, ought to return these runaway soldiers as criminals, as they have killed our people, destroyed our property, and set fire to barracks, etc. Even if they are political criminals as contented by the Soviets, there is no law prohibiting the Soviets from returning these mutineers to us. Among the numerous cases of Soviet activities in this country, we may mention a very prominent one. Our investigations some time ago disclosed a chief of bandits named Chao Shang-chih, who obtained twice during the latter part of August last year some 30 rounds of rifle ammunition and 2,000 rounds of revolver ammunition from the Soviet agents. It was also found that since the spring of last year he had received some 10,000 rounds of bullets, on eight different occassions. It very often happens that our police would capture bullets of guns of Soviet make from captured bandits. Concurrently it came to our notice that an interesting manifesto appeared in the issue of December 1, 1935, of the Communist organ, the Communistichesky International, which manifesto was addressed to the people of Manchoukuo by six bandit chiefs who appointed themselves commanders of the allied troops against Japanese in Manchoukuo. The manifesto states that the Manchurian bandits have been organized into six allied groups under the direction of the Anti-Japanese Allied Committee, the groups including tens of thousands of partisans. Among these six bandit chiefs the name of the aforementioned Chao Shang-chih prominetly appears. On January 12, 1936, a Soviet plane landed at a spot some 100 km. from the eastern border. After burning the plane, the Soviet pilots, with the aid of the bandits nearby gave some thousand rounds of ammunition. They were later safely escorted back into Soviet territory by the bandits. These facts, combined with numerous other cases, in spite of Soviet endeavours to conceal and destroy traces of their activities, convince us that the Soviet agents and partisans are busy within our borders, disturbing peace and order. In the Chinchangkow incident, a large quality of inflammatory literature written in the Russian language have been found left nearby the barracks of the soldiers who deserted. Naturally we came to the conclusion that the Soviet hand was at work in this.

"**Vague Delimitation.**—The boundary between Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia dates back to

the first half of the 18th century in the reign of Emperor Yungcheng of the Ching dynasty. For the convenience of administration, the Emperor vaguely delimited the boundary between Outer and Inner Mongolia, which was so vague that in later years many disputes arose but they were not serious because of the kinship between the Outer and Inner Mongols, in blood, language, customs, habits, etc. They used a common ground for grazing and traded freely and forgot about their boundary. But around 1924, since the Soviet influence came into Outer Mongolia she has arbitrarily delimited the boundary, closed the doors tight, cut off all intercourse, commercial and otherwise, with Inner Mongolia posting strong frontier guards armed to the teeth. Any Inner Mongolian who went nearby was in danger of being shot to death. You will remember that in 1931 a German Ludthansa plane which was en route to Peiping was shot down by Outer Mongolian sharpshooters near Lake Buir.

In former days Hailar and Manchouli (towns in Manchoukuo near the border) were flourishing trade centres between Outer and Inner Mongolia. Since Outer Mongolia closed the doors to all foreigners excepting to the Soviets, all trade has stopped, and Outer Mongolia has remained a dangerous and mysterious land, completely unapproachable to any foreigner, with the exception of the Soviets. The present bourdary was arbitrarily delimited and there are a number of places where the border line has been pushed inside this country.

In January, 1935 the so-called Harhar Miao incident took place near Lake Buir. Our Manchoukuo troops drove out the Outer Mongolian outpost from the Harhar Miao district as we were convinced that this district belonged to Manchoukuo and was illegally occupied by Outer Mongolians. Then the Manchouli conference was opened in June of that year to settle this incident. The discussions went along, but during the conference there occurred the kidnapping by Outer Mongolian troops of a surveying party of the Kwantung Army, who were working at the request of this Government. The situation assumed a serious aspect. Both recognized the need of setting up some sort of machinery whereby disputes could be settled. Our side maintained that, since Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia were related in blood and culture, and since the two countries were contiguous to each other over a boundary 700 kilometres long, we should resume the old friendly relations and exchange representatives, in Hsinking and Ulanbator. We also proposed to exchange local representatives, ours at Tamusksumu and Sanbeis, and theirs at Hailar and Manchouli, thereby enabling mutual contract and, if necessary, organizing commissions to settle all boundary disputes and problems through peaceful means, even going, if necessary, so far as to delimit the boundary and wipe out all causes of friction. The Outer Mongolians rejected our proposal and insisted on exchanging only local representatives, ours to be stationed at a small village called Tamusksumu, a tiny spot containing just a few hundred paos or yurts, a lonely hamlet in the most desolate corner of Outer Mongolia. We replied that to station our representative at this village alone would not help the promotion of understanding and friendship between the two peoples. And the conference broke down. Since then, many minor cases, such as kidnapping and shooting, have occurred along the border, giving the impression to the outside world that a dark cloud was hanging over the Far Eastern horizon. Quite recently Outer Mongolians became very aggressive. In the middle of last December they sent strong units of troops into our country and expelled our frontier guards. On January 15 this year, they captured seven of our police officers at Helmut station, which is clearly within our territory. They also took possession of a place called Jaminhottok (the Outer Mongolians call it Olanhottok arbitrarily), and have been holding the place ever since with strong detachments detailed from Sanbeis and Tamsksumu. On February 12, a few hundred Japanese and Manchoukuo soldiers, in order to guard our border, proceeded to attack and drive out the Outer Mongolians out of the aforementioned Jaminhottok. The Outer Mongolian troops resisted with the help of tanks and aeroplanes, but were finally forced to retreat. However, after the Japanese and Manchoukuo forces withdrew, they again came and occupied the place.

"Unfounded Reports.—The Outer Mongolians disseminate wild rumours to the effect that our proposal of exchanging envoys was motivated by our intrigue to send military mission in disguise for the purpose of disturbing their country from the inside. But any man who has even a scant knowledge of the nature of Outer Mongolia's topography, its people and general conditions, will easily find out that any such scheme would not only end in futility but would on the contrary arouse the ire of our brother people. Thus the allegation is far from our intentions, which are merely to resume friendly intercourse and to settle border disputes in a peaceful way. We have no intention whatever of invading their country. Outer Mongolia also sends out false news that we have demanded the installation of telegraphic lines or that our delegate at the Manchouli conference has threatened to invade Ulanbator by force. All these are fabricated stories and far from our intentions. It must be made clear that we are most eager to find some reasonable method to settle all disputes in some such way as we have suggested at the Manchouli conference. You will see very readily how impracticable is the Outer Mongolian proposal to have our representative only at Tamusksumu, if you remember the fact that here in this village there are just a few fixed establishments and only several hundred paos or yurts, which the Outer Mongolians could remove very easily if occassion demanded, leaving the Manchoukuo delegate shivering in the wilderness, more than 2,000 km. from Ulanbator and several hundred km. from Hailar the terminus of civilization.

"In conclusion, we might be able to say that while there have occurred a number of incidents indicating unpleasant tendencies, there is no real danger of war on a major scale on the whole Far Eastern front, provided Soviet Russia does not take any offensive action. However, once in a while we are unable to understand Soviet attitudes and actions as manifested in the incidents all along the border. Kidnapping, shooting, border trespassing are of daily occurrence, so that in some quarters it is believed that the Soviets have become conscious of their great strength in the Far East, where they have assembled more than 200,000 troops, 900 aeroplanes. several hundred tanks, and some 40 submarines, as well as other modern implements of war.

"All along the border, the Soviets have built thousands of tochkas, which are strung with kolhoz and troops, the entire frontier being literally armed to the teeth. On the Manchoukuo side there is nothing going on; the land is open. And it is no wonder that in Manchoukuo and Japan the opinion is gradually gaining ground that unless we are well prepared, the time will come when the peace of the Far East will be disturbed by the aggressive actions of the Soviets. It may, therefore, be an opportune time now to recall the Russian traditional eastward march in the Tsarist days. Prior to the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5 as described in Count Witte's famous memoirs, the military cliques in Russia at that time led by a certain General Kropatkin conceived the gigantic idea of concerting the whole of Manchuria, Mongolia, and North China into one vast Russian territory. This finally gave rise to the Russo-Japanese War. To-day under the strong leadership of Stalin, it seems that the Soviet Government is planning to shift the centres of activity to western Siberia, where they have finished the colossal task of building the Turk-Sib railway, 800 miles long, and have to dominate the large province of Sinkiang, making use of deserted Manchoukuo soldiers. On the other hand, they have almost completed the double-tracking of the 9,000 km. trans-Siberian railway from Moskow to Vladivostock. Even in the blistering cold of 60 degrees below zero, they are working day and night on the bridges over the Amur and other rivers, under strong arc lights. Under such circumstances it may be natural that some people should auspect that the Soviets, in spite of the professed peace ideaology of their regime, are determined to strike at Manchoukuo and make the road easy for the conquest of Eastern Asia, copying the old Tsarist idea."

Exchange of Goodwill Mission Between Manchoukuo and East Hopei

In the middle of April, 1936 the East Hopei autonomous Government sent a goodwill mission to Manchoukuo for the purpose of partly expressing gratitude to the Kwantung Army for its friendly attitude towards the autonomous government and partly promoting friendly relations with the Manchoukuo Government.

The Goodwill Mission headed by Mr. Chih Taung-mo, chief secretary of the East Hopei Autonomous Government, arrived at Hsinking on April 15. On arrival there the Goodwill Mission issued the following statement:—

"We are highly delighted to have come to Manchoukuo on a goodwill mission of the East Hopei Autonomous Government which is under the chairmanship of Mr. Yin Ju-keng. We have two important tasks to fulfill, one is to express the gratitude of our Government to the Kwantung Army and the other to extend our respects to His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Manchoukuo.

"We have been in Manchoukuo for two days but we have been impressed most profoundly by what we have observed on the way, which indicates prosperity everywhere and which shows that the people are pursuing their occupations at ease and in an orderly manner. We are well aware of the fact that the prosperous and orderly conditions in this new-born State are symbolic of the august virtues of His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Manchoukuo and of the co-operation of the Japanese Empire.

"The Chinese Republic has for the past twenty-five years been under the oppression and misgovernment of the Kuomintang with militarists

scrambling for their own spheres of influence. Mencius says: 'When war is resorted to in struggling for the possession of territory, the fields will be crowded with dead bodies. The hardships of the people will simply grow under misgovernment.' These words may be used in explaining the present conditions in China.

"Indeed, it is because of these conditions that Mr. Yin Ju-keng, acting in compliance with the ardent wishes of the 6,000,000 people of the twenty-two hsien in Hopei Province on November 25 last year, proclaimed the autonomy of East Hopei and established the new regime, thereby completely severing this territory from the Nanking Government. Ever since he has been working day and night for the promotion of the welfare of the people.

"Now, the aspirations for the prevention of the spread of Communism and the realization of autonomy are becoming more and more ardent among the inhabitants of the whole of China. It may be said that the collapse of the Nanking regime has become a mere question of time.

"We have been able to realize such aspirations ahead of our compatriots in the other parts of China, largely owing to the righteous sympathy and assistance extended to us by both Japan and Manchoukuo. This is the reason why Mr. Yin Ju-keng, chairman of our Autonomous Government, has dispatched us on the present important mission.

"Upon setting foot in this Capital, we cannot help expressing our admiration for the steady achievement of the rule of Wangtaoism and benevolence."

On the 16th the East Hopei Goodwill Mission visited the Headquarters of the Kwantung Army and presented to Gen. Kenkichi Uyeda, Commander-in-Chief of the Kwantung Army, a formal message from Mr. Yin Ju-keng, Chief Administrator of East Hopei. Availing himself of the opportunity, Mr. Chih Tsung-mo, leader of the Mission, expressed the gratitude of the 6,000,000 people of East Hopei for the full-hearted assistance given by the Kwantung Army in connexion with the establishment of the East Hopei Autonomous Government.

Gen. Uyeda expressed thanks and congratulated the Mission of the East Hopei Government on the remarkable progress made by the East Hopei Government in the short period of five months since its foundation. He hoped that the new regime would continue to co-operate in order to promote friendly relations among Japan, Manchoukuo and China. On the 18th the members of the Goodwill Mission were received in audience by H.I.M. the Emperor of Manchoukuo at the Imperial Palace. They left for home on the 19th.

The Manchoukuo Government sent Mr. Kao Chung-lu, Chief of the Secretariate of the Foreign Office, as official envoy to the East Hopei Autonomous Government to return the visit of the Goodwill Mission from that Government. On May 18 Mr. Kao Chung-lu, Head of the Manchoukuo Goodwill Mission, presented a personal letter from the Manchoukuo Foreign Minister Mr. Chang Yen-ching to Mr. Yin ju-keng, Chief Executive of the East Hopei Autonomous Government, thereby consummating the great task of creating a strong bond of friendship between the two neighbouring lands which was started some time ago by he visit of the Hopei Goodwill Mission.

The Manchoukuo Foreign Minister's letter to Governor Yin reads in substance as follows:—

"I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of your letter. The great principle for which Manchoukuo was founded as an independent State lies in the realization of a paradise of Wangtaoism through harmony of the five races, while the ideal of the East Hopei Autonomous Government is none other than to lead other parts of the Chinese Republic in eliminating the Red peril and party evils thereby promoting the welfare of the people. Thus both states are following one and the same course, and there exists no difference of opinion between them.

"Particularly it must be said that amity and co-operation between Manchoukuo and East Hopei are in comformity with the laws of nature in view of their relations of mutual dependence.

"I was exceedingly pleased to receive the goodwill envoy you dispatched together with the letter he brought, all the more so because the import of your letter has been found to be most pertinent. As you state in your letter, sincere collaboration among Japan, Manchoukuo and China is the only way to consolidate peace in Eastern Asia and promote lasting prosperity in this sector of the world.

"At present the evils of the modern materialistic civilization are eroding the spirit of various races in East Asia, and it is feared that all roads to salvation may be lost unless the three neighbouring nations awaken themselves to enhance the true significance of Oriental morals before it is too late. The necessity of these three nations arousing themselves as soon as possible is felt all the more keenly in view of the growing rampacy of Communism which is now a great menace to the Eastern Asian countries.

"As peoples of the same script and same race who have common interests among them, these three Eastern Asian nations should abandon their minor differences for the sake of a greater common cause and thus co-operate among themselves immediately. It is in complete accord with my cherished desire that our Manchoukuo and East Hopei have taken the lead in realizing amity and co-operation, besides being determined to reach mutual agreements in the future in order to meet the necessity of preventing the spread of Communism or for the sake of the well-being of the people, thus promoting their relations of interdependence and contributing to friendship among Japan, Manchoukuo and China and peace in Eastern Asia."

In response to the Manchoukuo Foreign Minister's letter, Governor Yin thanked the Goodwill Envoy for having come all the way from Hsinking and at the same time expressed his gratitude to the Government and people of Manchoukuo for the warm reception they accorded to the East Hopei Goodwill Mission in April. The Governor again emphasized the close relations obtaining between East Hopei and Manchoukuo, and hoped that both peoples would remain bound by an ever-growing bond of friendship and co-operation.

Interviewed upon his return to the Capital after putting the finishing touch to the ushering in of a new epoch in Sino-Manchoukuo-Japanese co-operation, Mr. Kao, the Goodwill Envoy, declared that it was a great honour to him to be charged with this important task and expressed profound gratitude to all those who rendered assistance in the fulfilment of his important mission.

"It is less than a half year since the East Hopei Autonomous Government was brought into existence," the Goodwill Envoy went on to say, "but the various establishments and construction work are all well under way. New vigour is evident everywhere throughout the autonomous land, which reminds one of the conditions which existed at the beginning of the founding of our Manchoukuo as an independent State. The people at large there are all enjoying their respective occupations and are doing their work with great efficiency.

"My colleague and I, in the Goodwill Mission, were welcomed by the Government and people of East Hopei with a warmness which I have no words to describe. All of them manifested heartfelt friendliness in receiving us. We felt deeply that it is possible to bring about real and permanent peace in East Asia through close co-operation by Manchoukuo, East Hopei and China as a whole, assisted by the magnanimity and generosity of the Japanese Empire."

Manchoukuo-German Trade Agreement

On May 1, 1936 an announcement was made by the Manchoukuo Embassy at Tokyo of the conclusion of a Manchoukuo-German trade agreement. It was as a result of negotiations between Dr. Kiep, the German Far Eastern Economic Envoy, and Mr. Hsieh, the Manchoukuoan Ambassador at Tokyo, through the good offices of the Japanese Government that the agreement was concluded. It was signed on April 30 at the Foreign Office, Tokyo in the presence of Mr. Matsushima, Director of the Commercial Affairs Bureau.

The Manchoukuo Embassy announcement runs as follows:—

"Through the German economic mission to East Asia, a trade agreement has been negotiated between the German Foreign Exchange Administration and the corresponding authorities of Manchoukuo for the purpose of promoting German-Manchoukuo trade by according new facilities to the firms engaged therein.

"Such details of the agreement as it is deemed necessary to make known to commercial interests will be disclosed to them as soon as the necessary preparations have been made to put the agreement into effect, which is expected to be about the beginning of June.

"In drafting the agreement, special attention has been paid to avoiding interference with or control of the existing organization of German-Manchoukuo trade, assuring to all firms engaged therein equal opportunity to continue business as heretofore and to enjoy the facilities offered under the new agreement." (For the text of the Agreement see Supplement II)

The Manchoukuo Government's Statement Regarding Reich Trade Agreement

On May 25, 1936 important instructions regarding the Manchoukuo-German Trade Agreement, which came into force on June 1, were given out in a statement by the Department of Foreign Affairs at Hsinking to all the exporters and importers of the country interested in trade with Germany. The instructions contained in the statement follow:—

A. Exports from Manchoukuo (including the Kwantung Leased Territory) to Germany.

(1) Exchange and credit: The German Exchange Control Bureau at the request of German importers of merchandise from Manchoukuo is to issue a licence authorizing the payment in foreign exchange of three-fourths of the C.I.F. value of merchandise imported and another

licence authorizing the payment in Reichmark of the remaining one-fourth thereof.

The settlement of three-fourths of any transaction may be made as in the past through "London acceptances" or by other means, but that of the remaining one-fourth will be affected by the present agreement. The latter payment will be made through letters of credit or orders issued by the Hamburg branch of the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd. In other words, as regards this payment, letters of credit or orders in English currency for a sum equivalent to the amount indicated on the licence referred to above will be issued at the request of German importers.

In this case, it is needless to say that the Hamburg branch of the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd., will be required through the Manchoukuo trade representation in Germany to make sure of the sums indicated on both licences issued by the German Exchange Control Bureau.

Bills of exchange based on the above mentioned letters of credit or orders must be exchanged into Reichmark before the stipulated dates of payment at the official telegraphic exchange rate in Berlin and paid into the special account of the Hamburg branch of the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd.

(2) Trade transactions not through exchange: Any transactions between businessmen of Germany and Manchoukuo which are to be settled on their own responsibility and on the so-called barter system will require in advance the official approval of the authorities concerned of their respective Governments. Inasmuch as transactions of this kind will have effects on the ratio of trade between the two countries, they will not be authorized in principle.

B. Imports from Germany to Manchoukuo (including the Kwantung Leased Territory)

(1) Manchoukuo will import German merchandise within the limits of the amount equivalent to the special account in Reichmark arising from the settlement of accounts relating to her exports to Germany. Accordingly, any importation of German goods, which does not utilize the aforementioned special account, will not be authorized.

In principle, although it will be convenient for the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd., to handle alone all credit matters and the drawing of bills of exchange relating to the importation by Manchoukuo of German merchandise, out of consideration for the past trade practices and of the special standpoint of the businessmen concerned, such imports may be handled through banks other than the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd., to an amount not exceeding one-fourth of the said special account in Reichmark annually.

In case such imports of German merchandise handled through banks other than the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd., exceed in value one-fourth of the said account, they shall be controlled temporarily by regulations issued by the Department of Finance of Manchoukuo and the Kwantung Bureau of Japan based on the Foreign Exchange Control Law.

C. Utilization of the foregoing special account.

(1) Bills of export from Germany: Those currency must be exchanged into Reichmark at the telegraphic exchange rate fixed in Berlin before the stipulated dates of payment thereof. Drafts handled through banks other than the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd., will all be purchased by the Reichsbank and then turned over to the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd., at their original value. Necessary payments in this connection will be made from the special account in Reichsmark held by the Yokohama Specie Bank.

(2) Consignment shipments etc: In the light of the present agreement, although imports of German merchandise must be made in principle through letters of credit and orders issued by banks, in case imports of German merchandise on consignment are to be made through means other than letters of credit or orders, the Government's permission must be obtained in accordance with the Foreign Exchange Control Law.

(3) Purchase of German industrial patents: In case any subjects of Manchoukuo purchase German industrial patents along with the importation of German machinery or factory equipment, or in case any contracts are to be made for payment of fees for the use of German patents or in case German experts employed by Manchoukuo enterprises remit part of their salaries or allowances to Germany, the special Reichmark account held by Manchoukuo in Germany is to be utilized. Such persons therefore are asked to get in touch in advance with either the Manchoukuo Government (Commercial Bureau of Foreign Office) or the Manchoukuo Trade Representation in Germany.

(4) Importation of German merchandise for use outside of Manchoukuo: In case any businessmen connected with Manchoukuo desire to import German merchandise for use in any districts outside Manchoukuo, the aforementioned special account must also be utilized. As in the foregoing paragraph such businessmen are asked to get in touch in advance with either the Manchoukuo Government (Commercial Bureau of Foreign Office) or the Manchoukuo Trade Representation in Germany.

(5) Utilization of the special account and its relation to the German Exchange Control Law: Under the German Exchange Control Law, all foreign exchange for exports is handled by the Reichsbank alone, but Reichsmarks paid to Germany through the special account in the Hamburg branch of the Yokohama Specie Bank will be regarded as "free Reichmark payments" and therefore, not affected by the said Law.

(6) Procedure required for importation of German merchandise: In regard to the importation of merchandise from Germany, regulations to be promulgated by the Department of Finance of Manchoukuo and the Kwantung Bureau in accordance with the Manchoukuo Foreign Exchange Control Law should be referred to.

D. Other matters.

(1) In case any trouble arises regarding trade transactions between Manchoukuo and Germany, the Manchoukuo Trade Representative in Germany will offer his good offices for the solution of such trouble. Accordingly, the businessmen of Manchoukuo engaged in trade with Germany are requested to utilize his services or keep in contact with him.

(2) Any inquiries regarding trade between the two countries will be accepted by the Manchoukuo Government authorities concerned (the Departments of Foreign Affairs, Industry and Finance and the customs authorities), the residental commercial representatives of both Governments and the branches and correspondents of the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd.

In order to promote trade between Manchoukuo and Germany, a law for the establishment of the Office of Manchoukuo Trade Commissioner in Germany was adopted by the State Council, which with the Imperial sanction was promulgated on June 4, 1936.

The provisions of the Law organizing the Office of the Manchoukuo Trade Commissioner in Germany are as follows:

Article 1.

An Office of the Manchoukuo Trade Commissioner shall be established in Germany.

Article 2.

The said Office shall have the following officers:

One Trade Commissioner (the Grade of Selected Appointment);

Two Assistant Trade Commissioners (the Grade of Recommended Appointment); and

Two Chancellors (the Grade of Delegated Appointment).

Article 3.

The Trade Commissioner shall supervise the affairs concerning trade under the direction and supervision of the Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Article 4.

In respect to matters of promotion, reward and punishment of the officials of the said Office, the Trade Commissioner shall submit a report to the Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Article 5.

The Assistant Trade Commissioners shall take charge of general affairs of the Office by order of their superior officer.

The Chancellors shall attend to affairs under the direction of their superior officers.

Supplementary

The present law shall come into force on the day of its promulgation.

Concurrently with the promulgation of the above law, the announcement was made of the appointment of Mr. Hiyoshi Kato, Chief of Commercial Affairs Section of the Department of Foreign Affairs, as the Trade Commissioner and Messrs. Zengoro Ishizaka and Chuang Kai-yung of the Departments of Industry and Foreign Affairs, respectively, as the Assistant and For- Affairs, respectively, as the Assistant Trade Commissioners.

Japan-Manchoukuo Postal Agreement

On December 26, 1935 the Japan-Manchoukuo Postal Agreement was formally signed by Gen. Minami, Japanese Ambassador at Hsinking and Mr. Shigeru Kuno, Director of the Postal Affairs Bureau of the Department of Communications at Tokyo, on behalf of the Japanese Government, and Mr. Yasuaki Fujiwara, Director of the Bureau of Posts of the Department of Communications at Hsinking on behalf of the Manchoukuo Government.

The new treaty, which removes all the defects of the agreements of 1910 and 1922 then existing, took affect one month after its signing. (For the text of the Treaty see Chapt. XXX).

Japan Signs Treaty With Manchoukuo For Partial Abolition of Extraterritoriality

On June 10, 1936 Japan signed with Manchoukuo the eagerly awaited treaty for partial abolition of Japanese extraterritorial privileges in Manchoukuo.

The signing of this historic document which

is accompanied by a supplementary agreement, took place at 3 p.m. in the conference hall of the Manchoukuo Foreign Office, fittingly decorated for the occasion, in the presence of more than 100 dignitaries of both governments. The Japanese Government was represented by Gen. Kenkichi Ueda, Ambassador Plenipotentiary and Minister Extraordinary to Manchoukuo and the Government of Manchoukuo by Mr. Chang Yen-ching, Foreign Minister, who affixed their signatures to the documents.

The signing over, all persons present drank a toast to the prosperity of the two Empires. Thus, the solemn ceremony ended. After the termination of the ceremony, a celebration meeting under the joint auspices of the Special Hsinking Municipality and the local South Manchuria Railway Office was held at the Public Memorial Hall. The guests numbered 1,000, approximately, including Premier Chang Ching-hui and General Uyeda.

The whole city of Hsinking was in gala attire that day in celebration of the memorable event. All streets were bedecked with bunting. Flag processions by school children, lantern processions by Japanese and Manchu citizens took place. (For the text of the Treaty and the Supplementary Treaty see Chapt. XXX)

Manchoukuo Foreign Minister's Statement on Status of Foreigners

In connection with the enforcement on July, 1 of the Manchoukuo-Japan treaty for partial abolition of Japanese extraterritorial rights in that country, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, Mr. Chang Yen-ching issued a statement on that day clarifying the attitude of the Hsinking Government regarding the status of foreigners other than Japanese in that country. An official translation of the statement follows:

"Availing myself of the occasion when a treaty has recently been concluded with Japan concerning the residence, taxation, etc., of Japanese subjects in this country, I wish to clarify the views and intentions of our Government regarding the status in our country of foreigners other than Japanese subjects.

"At the time of its foundation Manchoukuo issued a statement and addressed communications to the effect that it would respect those rights enjoyed by foreign countries by virtue of their treaties with the Republic of China, which the new State is bound to respect according to international law and usage.

"While some foreign countries enjoy extraterritoriality in China in accordance with their treaties with that republic, it is self-evident in the light of international law and usage that this State, which has separated itself from, and become independent of, China, is not bound to succeed to, inter alia, such obligations as those imposed by extraterritoriality, and it naturally follows that the nationals of the countries which enjoy extraterritoriality in China do not differ in any respect from those whose countries do not enjoy the same rights there, so far as their status in Manchoukuo is concerned. This is all the more true when we recall that although more than four years have already elapsed since this State issued the aforementioned statement and communications, no foreign nation, with the exception of a very few, has responded to them, which have thus been reduced to a mere, unilateral statement of the principles of our foreign policy, and those countries that have ignored the said statement and communications are not in a position to claim any right on the strength of these documents. It is, therefore, the laws and regulations of this country that should govern the status of the nationals of these countries residing in our territory. and in respect of their entry, residence. travel, business and all other matters, they are subject to our laws and regulations.

"Nevertheless, as regards the nationals of the countries which have enjoyed extraterritoriality in the Republic of China, our government, with the intention of avoiding sudden change in their status, have heretofore, as a matter of favour, accorded them in effect and within certain limits such treatment as if their countries had continued to enjoy extraterritoriality in this country.

"Considerable time, however, has already elapsed since the foundation of the State, its basis has now been solidified, and the adjustment of its various institutions is becoming increasingly marked. Moreover, Japan who enjoys by treaty extraterritoriality in our country in accordance with the Manchoukuo-Japan protocol signed on September 15, first year of Tatung (1932), and whose nationals resident in our territory number considerably and whose investments in this country reach an enormous sum, has decided to abolish voluntarily and by gradual degrees her extraterritorial rights in order to assist in the healthy development of our country.

"In view of these facts, our government now regard that the continuation of such a generous treatment accorded to certain foregin nationals is not only unnecessary but is also impedimental to the administration of this State, and decided to abolish this special treatment by gradual steps. It goes without saying, however, that in dealing with this matter our government will be guided by the spirit of concilliation. Furthermore, it should be added that our government desious of coming to agreement with countries other than Japan regarding the status of the respective nationals resident in each other's territory upon the principle of justice, fairness and equality, and prepared to consider proposals for opening negotiations looking toward this end."

Japan-Manchoukuo Industrial Rights Agreement

On June 29, the Japanese-Manchoukuo agreement for the mutual protection of industrial rights was signed at the Foreign Office at Hsinking by Gen. Uyeda, Ambassador to Manchoukuo and Mr. Chang Yen-ching, Foreign Minister.

The new agreement, which went into effect on July 1, is made up of five articles and provisions for the same protection of industrial rights as between Japan and Manchoukuo as is specified in the international treaty drawn up in 1900, to which Manchoukuo is not a party, covering rights obtained through patents, trade mark registration and designs. The pact is expceted to assist greatly in promoting cooperation between Japanese and Manchoukuo industries. (For the text of the agreement see Supplement II)

Foreign Diplomats and Consular Officials in Manchoukuo

(Standing September 1936)

Japanese Embassy	at Hsinking	General Kenkichi Ueda, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary.
Japanese Consulate	General at Hsinking	K. Nakano, Acting Consul General.
" "	" " Kirin	S. Morioka, "
	Tunhua Branch Office	T. Katsuno, Chief.
Japanese Consulate	General at Mukden	U. Usami, Consul General.
	Tunghua Branch Office	T. Kurino, Chief.
	Shaucheng Chen Branch Office	B. Kudo, Chief.
Japanese Consulate	General at Harbin	S. Sato, Consul General.
" "	" " Chientao	H. Kawamura, Consul General.
	Hunchun Branch Office	T. Katagiri, Vice-Consul.
	Paitsaokou Branch Office	N. Arihisa, Chief.
	Yenki Branch Office	S. Tanaka, Vice-Consul.
	Toutoukuo Branch Office	M. Ogasawara.
	Tumen Branch Office	K. Furuya, Chief.
Japanese Consulate	at Antung	H. Masutani, Consul.
" "	" Yingkow	T. Mimura, Acting Consul.
" "	" Chinchow	H. Shibasaki, Consul.
" "	" Chihfeng	S. Kurimoto, Acting Consul.
" "	" Chengteh	K. Matsuura, Acting Consul.
" "	" Chengchiatun	S. Takiyama, Consul.
" "	" Suifenho	Y. Okitsu, Acting Consul.
" "	" Tsitsihar	S. Tanaka, Consul.
" "	" Paichengtzu Branch Office	S. Inui, Chief.
" "	" Hailar	R. Goto, Consul.
" "	" Manchouli	Y. Goto, Acting Consul.
British Consulate	General at Mukden	P. D. Butler, Consul General.
" "	" " Harbin	E. G. Jamieson, Consul General.
British Consulate	at Dairen	R. McP. Austin, Consul.
American Consulate	General at Mukden	J. W. Ballantine, Acting Consul General.
" "	" " Harbin	W. A. Adams, Consul General.
American Consulate	at Dairen	S. E. Grummon, Consul.
French Consulate	at Mukden	M. Rhein, Consul.
" "	" Harbin	L. Reynaud, Consul.
" "	" Dairen	F. Bryner, Consular Agent.
U.S.S.R. Consulate	General at Mukden	W. Shinsheff, Consul General.
" "	" " Harbin	M. M. Slavutsky, Consul General.
U.S.S.R. Consulate	at Dairen	E. Goloubtzoff, Consul.
" "	" Tsitsihar	V. V. Kuznetsoff, Consul.
" "	" Manchouli	V. V. Smirnoff, Consul.
" "	" Suifenho	E. B. Stermac, Consul.
" "	" Heiho	

German Consulate at Mukden ..... A. Tigges, Consul.
" " " Harbin ..... J. Schulze, Consul.
" " " Dairen ..... E. Bischoff, Consul.
Italian Consulate at Harbin ..... A. Maffei, Consul.
Polish Consulate at Harbin ..... A. Kwiatkowski, Consul.
Czechoslovak Consulate at Harbin ..... R. Hejny, Consul.
Portuguese Consulate at Harbin ..... S. L. Skidelsky, Consul.
Danish Consulate at Harbin ..... A. R. Jorgensen, Hon. Consul.
Dutch Consulate at Harbin ..... L. V. D. Hoeven, Hon. Consul.
Dutch Consulate at Yingkow ..... P. Farmer, Hon. Consul.
Norwegian Consulate at Yingkow ..... P. Farmer, Hon. Vice-Consul.
Norwegian Consulate at Dairen ..... G. I. Larkins, Hon. Consul.
Finnish Vice-Consulate at Dairen ..... P. Pansing, Hon. Vice-Consul.
Dutch Consulate at Dairen ..... W. H. Winning, Hon, Vice-Consul.
Swedish Consulate at Dairen ..... "
Lithuanian Consulate at Harbin ..... A. M. Lohmus, Hon. Consul.
Esthonian Consulate at Harbin ..... "
Esthonian Consulate at Dairen ..... A. E. Ruthe, Hon. Consul.
Belgian Consulate at Harbin ..... A. V. Cutsem, Acting Consul.
Belgian Vice-Consulate at Dairen ..... J. Furusawa, Hon. Consul.
Latvian Consulate at Harbin ..... P. Meak, Consul.
Austrian Consulate at Mukden ..... H. Jbaumann, Consul.

Manchoukuo's Diplomatic and Consular Services

Embassy in Tokyyo ..... Hsieh Chieh-shih, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary.
Consulate at Blagoveschensk ..... Chih-piu, Consul.
" " Chita ..... Li I-shun, Consul.
" " Shingishu ..... Yuan Tao, Acting Consul.
" " Moji ..... S. Idemitsu, Hon. Consul.
Office of Foreign Affairs Commissioner at Harbin ..... Shih Li-pen, Commissioner.

CHAPTER IX

NATIONAL DEFENCE

The national defence of Manchoukuo is under the joint supervision of the governments of Manchoukuo and Japan. By the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932, Japan is given the privilege of stationing troops in any place in the new Empire.

For geographical reasons the army takes the dominant role in the national defence of the country. The navy is a very insignificant element, and is represented at present by a small fleet of river gunboats.

The efforts of the Department of Defence have been concentrated for the past two years in quelling banditry within the country and in building up a systematic army, composed of Manchoukuo and Japanese officers and soldiers. Much attention has been directed also towards improving the air force.

For the military services rendered by the Japanese army in Manchoukuo the Manchoukuo Government has commenced appropriating annualy since the fiscal year 1934—35 a certain percent of its total revenue to the Japanese government. For the fiscal year 1934—35 the appropriation for this purpose amounted to 5,000,000 yuan and for 1935—36 it amounted to 19,500,000 yuan.

The amount shouldered by the Ministries of War and Navy of Japan for the national defence of Manchoukuo, as given in the state budget under the item "Manchuria Incident Expenses", is as follows:

Year	Amount (Yen)
1931	82,919,000
1932	258,941,000
1933	161,564,000
1934	145,471,000
1935	171,971,000
1936	183,273,838
Total	1,004,139,838

Organization:—The administration of national defence is entrusted to the Department of National Defence. The Department may be conveniently divided into a triad of parts. One part consists of a General Staff, a Military Supplies Bureau and an Advisory Bureau. A second, consists of a Horse Administration Bureau. The third has nineteen sections under its supervision, representing military institutes, military headquarters, etc. as shown below:

Section. 1 General Staff
Military Supply Bureau
Advisory Bureau
Section 2 Horse Administration Bureau
(a) State Race Courses (at Mukden and Harbin)
(b) State Stud-Farms (at Hailar and Taonan)
Section 3 1-5 Army District Headquarters
Hsingan Provincial Garrisons Headquarters
Central Military Academy
Gendarmes Training School
Hsingan Military Academy
Independent 1st Motor Corps
Army Clothing Depots (Mukden, Hsinking, Tsitsihar)
Arsenals (Mukden, Kirin, Tsitsihar)
Metropolitan Gendarmerie Headquarters
Chingan-Army Headquarters (Mukden)
Aide-de-camp's Office
Imperial Guards Regimental Headquarters
Hsinking Military Band
Intelligence Department
Military Communications Headquarters
1st Cavalry Brigade Headquarters
River Patrol Fleet Headquarters (Harbin)
Horse Administration Committee
Central Military Publicity Committee
Military Surgeons Institute (Harbin)

Standing Army:—The standing army of Manchoukuo consisted at the end of September 1935 of 26 brigades, and 8 cavalry brigades. The country, excluding Hsingan Province, is divided into five army districts. Hsingan Province possesses two garrisons consisting of four mixed brigades. Besides the brigades the army district are supplemented with the usual auxiliary corps.

ARMY ORGANIZATION OF MANCHOUKUO
(Sept., 1935)

IST ARMY DISTRICT (Mukden).....
Fengtien & Antung Provs.
Comdr. Gen. Yu Shen-chang
1st Local Army District (Antung)..3 mixed brigades
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Wang Tien-chung
2nd Local Army District (Mukden)..2 mixed brigades
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Liao Pi-tsin

2ND ARMY DISTRICT (Kirin).....
Kirin & Chientao Provs.
Comdr. Gen. Kie Hsing
3rd Local Army District (Kirin..3 mixed brigades
Comdr. Lieut. Gen. Li Wen-ping
4th Local Army District (Hsinking.....1 mixed brigade & 3 cavalry brigades
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Li Wen-ping

3RD ARMY DISTRICT (Tsitsihar).....
Lungkiang & Meiho Provs.
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Chang Wen-chu
5th Local Army District (Heiho)..1 mixed brigade
Comdr. Major-Gen. Chao Chen-pang
6th Local Army District (Tsitsihar).....4 mixed brigades & 1 cavalry brigade
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Chang Wen-chu

4TH ARMY DISTRICT (Harbin) .....
Pinkiang & Sankiang Provs.
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Kuo En-lin
7th Local Army District (Harbin)..3 mixed brigades
Comdr. Major-Gen. Chu Yung
8th Local Army District (Eastern Frontier) 2 mixed brigades
Comdr. Major-Gen. Wang Shou-tang
9th Local Army District (Chiamussu)....3 mixed brigades & 1 cavalry brigade
Comdr. Major-Gen. Li Yu-chiu

5TH ARMY DISTRICT (Chengteh) .....
Jehol & Chinchow Provs.
Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Wang Ching-hsiu
10th Local Army District (Chinchow)....2 mixed brigades
Comdr. Major-Gen. Tien Teh-sheng
11th Local Army District (Chengteh)....1 mixed brigade & 1 cavalry brigade
Comdr. Major-Gen. Wang Yung-ching

HSINGAN PROVINCIAL GARRISONS

1st Garrison (Hailar).....2 mixed brigades
Comdr. Major-Gen. Ulujin
2nd Garrison (Chienchiatien).....2 mixed brigades
Comdr. Major-Gen. Batemalabutan
Note: 1st Garrison consists of the former Hsingan West & South Provincial Guards.
2nd Garrison consists of the former Hsingan West & South Provincial Guards.

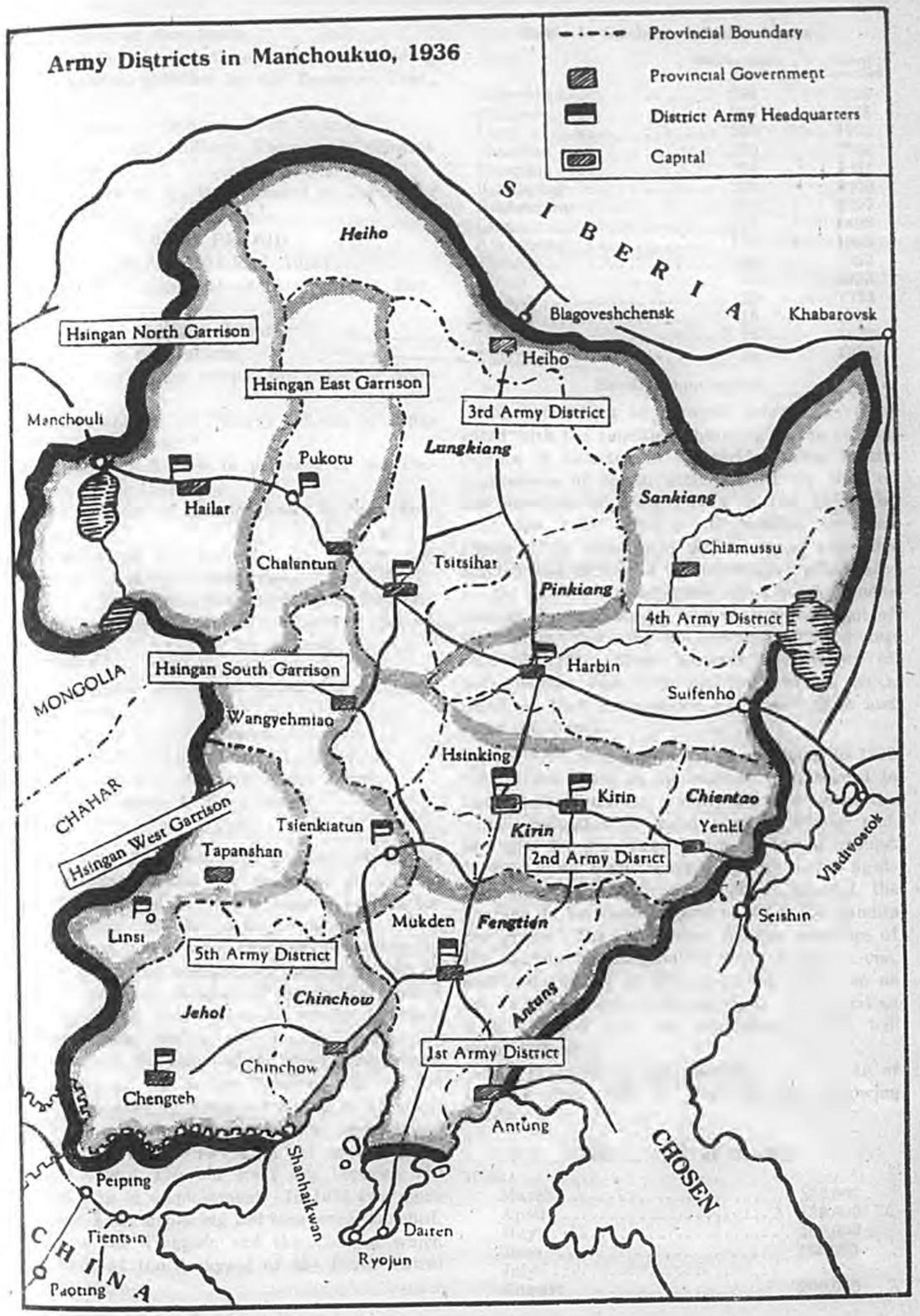
The steps in the military reorganization of Manchoukuo since March, 1932 is given in the following table by periods.

FIRST PERIOD
(March, 1932-April, 1933)

Proclamation of Army & Navy Laws.
Appointment of Provincial Guards Commanders.
Regulation of Provincial Army Jurisdictions.
Establishment of National Defence Department.
„ of Army Clothing Depots.
„ of Arsenals.
Regulation of Military Ranks.
Establishment of Military Carrier-pigeons section.
„ of Central Military Academy.
„ of Hsingan Provincial Guards.
Regulation of Military Uniforms.
Establishment of Metropolitan Gendarmerie Headquarters.
Establishment of River Patrol Fleet Headquarters.
Establishment of Central Military Publicity Committee.
Regulation of Army Aid-de-Camp to the Emperor.
Central Control of Arms & Ammunitions of Local Forces.
Establishment of Central Bandit Suppression Committee.

SECOND PERIOD
(May, 1933-March, 1934)

Establishment of Jehol Provincial Army.
Abolishment of Taoliao Guards Corps.
Changing of Army Jurisdictions.
Composition of Non-Commissioned Officers of Provinces.
Regulation for admitting recruits to depleted forces.
1st Reformation of District Army System.
Establishment of Horse Administration Bureau.
Reorganization of Military Communications.
Undertaking of Gendarmerie Training.
„ of Military Automobiles Equipment.
Composition of Hsinking Independent Cavalry Brigade.
Establishment of Central & Local Peace Preservation Committees.



Construction of Gun-Boats.
Memorial Service for those killed in founding Manchoukuo, presided by the Emperor, Sept., 1933.
Establishment of Hsingan West Garrison.
„ of Military Propaganda Cinema Company.
Despatchment of Military Officers to Japan for investigation.

THIRD PERIOD

(March, 1934-May. 1935)

Sanction of Imperial Mandate to Army, Mar., 1934.
Regulation of Military Colours.
„ of Decorations.
Relief to meritorious people for founding Manchoukuo.
2nd Despatchment of Military Officers to Japan for investigation.
Grand Military Review in presence of the Emperor, June, 1934.
2nd Reformation of District Army System, July, 1934.
Construction of 3 Gun-Boats.
Changing of Army Jurisdictions.
Appointment of Commanders of Army Districts.
Establishment of Gendarmerie Training School.
Reformation of Army & Navy Laws.
„ of Military Salaries.
Grand Military Manoeuvre under the Emperor, Oct., 1934.
Establishment of Gendarmerie Corps.
Opening of Hsingan Military Academy.
Establishmment of Military Motor Corps.
Adoption of Army & Navy Songs.

NAVY

The navy of Manchoukuo consists chiefly of river gunboats taken over from the old regime and supplemented by a few vessels built after the founding of the new government. The Manchoukuo navy was officially organized in June 1934 on the occasion of the completion of several warships. Because of the shallow waters in which such craft have to cruise in their defence areas, which are mostly along the Sungari river, the ships of the Manchoukuo navy do not exceed but a few hundred tons at the most. The navy at present consists of 15 small and large gunboats. Two of them, the Tatung and Limin, were completed in 1934 and displace 60 tons each. The old craft are between 150 and 275 tons in displacement. In 1935 two more gunboats, each displacing 290 tons were launched. They are the Tingpien and the Chinjen which were built at the dockyard of the River Patrol Fleet at Harbin.

Table 1. Gunboats of Manchoukuo

Name	Displacement (tons)	When launched
Tingpien	290	1935
Chinjen	290	1935
Lisui	275	1903
Shuntien	270	1934
Yangmin	270	1934
Kiangping	200	1900
Kiangching	210	1897
Litsi	210	1898
Kiangtung	150	1903
Tatung	60	1933
Limin	60	1933
Tsimin	20	1934
Enmin	15	1932
Huimin	15	1932
Pumin	15	1932

Bandit Suppression

The betterment in national defence, as compared with the condition obtaining in the former regime, is reflected in the strides taken in the suppression of bandit activity. At the time of the founding of Manchoukuo in the spring of 1932 the total number of bandits exceeded 130,000. By September of the same year the number had increased to 360,000 due principally to the subversive activities of Chang Hsueh-Liang's remnant troops who were thrown out of employment following the downfall of the young marshal. Since then, however the number of such banbits has been on the decrease as a result of their suppression by Manchoukuo and Japanese forces.

Compared with the condition obtaining in 1932 two factors loom in prominence with regard to the bandit situation. Firstly may be noted the actual reduction of bandits as a whole, and, secondly, the shrinkage in size of bandit groups. In 1932 some bandit groups had an active fighting force of 30,000 men, but at present the average is between a force of 40 to 50 bandits per group. The chief cause for the existence of the bandits in Manchoukuo is an economic one, and is the result of unemployment. As soon as the farming distress shows signs of alleviation it is believed that the remaining bandits will soon disappear.

The progress in the reduction in number of bandits since 1932 is given in the following table:

Table 2. No. of Bandits

1932:	
March	130,000
April	130,000
May	150,000
June	183,000
July	
August	200,000

September	360,000	November	30,000
October	360,000	December	39,000
November	284,000	1934:	
December	173,300	January	15,300
1933:		February	10,400
January	212,300	March	15,000
February	191,199	April	12,800
March	56,000	May	12,400
April	60,900	June	15,900
May	52,000	July	20,100
June	64,500	August	19,300
July	55,700	September	23,800
August	71,200	October	25,500
September	70,500	November	24,500
October	36,000	December	21,800

Table

CHRONOLOGY OF BANDIT SUPPRESSION

Date	Engagement	No. of Enemy Forces	No. of Manchoukuo Forces
March-June, 1932.	Suppression of Anti-Kirin Troops.	20,000	7,000
May-June, 1932.	1st Pacification of the Tungpien-Tao Region.	20,000	4,000
April-July, 1932.	Suppression of Ma Chan-shan.	16,000	5,000
May, 1932.	Suppression of Li Hai-ching.	10,000	6,000
June, 1932.	Punitive expedition against Feng Chan-hai near Yoshou (Kirin).	15,000	1,600

1935:	
January	22,400
February	21,310
March	21,270
April	25,000

Casualties:—In the bandit suppression campaign extending from May 1932 to May 1935 a total of 1,470 Manchoukuo officers and men were killed, and 1,261 wounded. Japanese casualties amounted to 41 killed and 7 injured. Details are given in the subjoined table:

Table 3. **Casualties in Bandit Suppression** (May 1932—May 1935)

Killed:	
Officers	313(37)
Non-Commissioned Officers	216 (1)
Private	933
Others	8 (3)
Total	1,470(41)
Wounded:	
Officers	111 (5)
Non-Commissioned Officers	167
Private	964
Others	19 (2)
Total	1,261 (7)

Figures in brackets indicate Japanese Soldiers.

4

BY THE MANCHOUKUO ARMY

Description of Manchoukuo and Enemy Forces	Remarks
Manchoukuo: Kirin army & River Patrol Fleet. Comdr. Gen. Yu Shen-chang. The Enemy: Anti-Kirin Troops. Leaders. Li Ting Tiao, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army cooperating with the Japanese Forces, drove back the Anti-Kirin Troops to the northern part of Kirin Prov., secured the water routes of the Sungari River and regained Iran-hsien.
Manchoukuo: Fengtien Army. Comdr. Gen. Yu Chi-shan. The Enemy: North Eastern People Salvation Army & Ta-ta-hui (Big Sword League). Leaders. Tang Tsu-wu & Wang Feng-ke.	Tang Tsu-wu revolted and attacked the Japanese Consulate at Tunghua. The Fengtien Army cooperating with the Japanese Police Corps, tried to drive the bandits but were repulsed.
Manchoukuo: Heilungkiang Army cooperating with the Japanese Army. Comdr. Cheng Chin-yuan. The Enemy: Ma Chan-shan Troops & Li Bandits. Leaders. Ma Chan-shan & Li Hai-ching.	Ma Chan-shan escaping from Tsitsihar in April, gathered his troops again and revolted. The Manchoukuo Army sent two troops and attacked his headquarters at Hailin, cooperating with the Japanese Army.
Manchoukuo: Heilungkiang, Kirin and Taoliao Army assisted by the Japanese Air Corps. The Enemy: A part of Ma Chan-shan's Troops & Li Bandits. Leaders. Li Hai-ching.	Bandit Li occupying the southern part of Heilungkiang Province and Fuyu of Kirin Province, took sway of the district. The Manchoukuo Army attacked the bandits with the aid of the Japanese air corps.
Manchoukuo: Kirin Army. The Enemy: Anti-Kirin Troops. Leaders. Feng Chan-hai & Kung Chang-hai.	Anti-Kirin troops gathered in the south of Harbin. The Manchoukuo Army encountered the enemy near Ssuhocheng (Pinkiang), but were repulsed.

Date	Engagement	No. of Enemy Forces	No. of Manchoukuo Forces	Description of Manchoukuo and Enemy Forces	Remarks
July, 1932.	Suppression of remaining bandits of Li Hai-ching troops.	2,000	1,500	Manchoukuo: Heilungkiang Army. Comrd. Major-Gen. Feng Kuan-you. The Enemy: Remaining bandits of Li Hai-ching.	The Manchoukuo Army attacked the remaining bandits and killed 50 and captured 2 chiefs.
June-July, 1932.	1st punitive expedition against Feng Chan-hai.	15,000	7,000	Manchoukuo: Taoliao & Kirin Army cooperating with the Japanese Army. The Enemy: Anti-Kirin Troops. Leaders. Feng Chan-hai & Kung Chang-hai.	The Manchoukuo Army pacified Shuangcheng, Acheng, Yushou, Wuchang, and Shulan Districts.
August, 1932.	Punitive expedition against Mongolian Bandits.	2,000	2,000	Manchoukuo: Taoliao Army. Comdr.Major-Gen. Tang Yu-lin. The Enemy: Mongolian Bandits. Leaders. Hu Pao-shan, Hei Pao-tao, and Li Pao-ting.	The Mongolian bandits occupied Chanyu-hsien and destroyed the railway. The Manchoukuo Army cooperating with the Japanese Army, attacked the enemy and recovered Chanyu-hsien.
August, 1932.	Attack on Tien-chien bandits at Shuangcheng (Pinkiang).	3,500	700	Manchoukuo: Kirin Army. The Enemy: Tien Chen Bandits. Leader. Tien Chen.	The Tien Chen bandits besieged Shuangcheng but were driven away by the Manchoukuo Army.
September, 1932.	2nd punitive expedition against Feng Chan-hai.	10,000	7,000	Manchoukuo: Kirin Army. The Enemy: Anti-Kirin Troops. Leaders. Feng Chan-hai & Kung Chang-hai	Finding that the Feng Chan-hai bandits were moving to Jehol Province, the Manchoukuo Army besieged them in Kirin-Changchun District, but the enemy eacaped to Jehol through Nungan district.
Sept.-Dec., 1932.	Suppression of Su Ping-wen at Hailar.	20,000	4,5000	Manchoukuo: Heilungkiang Army & Hsingan South Provincial Guards cooperating with the Japanese Army. The Enemy: Su Ping-wen Troops. Leaders. Su Ping-wen & Chang Tien-chiu.	Su Ping-wen revolted and the Manchuli Incident occured. The Manchoukuo Army cooperating with the Japanese Army, engaged in battle at Fulaluchi. Su Ping-wen fled into Russia after being defeated.
October, 1932.	2nd pacification of the Tungpien-Tao Region.	20,000	8,000	Manchoukuo: Fengtien Army. The Enemy: North Eastern People Salvation Army. Leader. Tang Tsu-wu.	The Manchoukuo Army made an expedition into the Tungpien-Tao Region with the Japanese Army. 1,000 bandits surrendered and 270 were killed.
October, 1932.	Punitive expedition against Li Hai-ching.	3,000	3,500	Manchoukuo: Heilungkiang Army: The Enemy: Li Hai-ching Bandits. Leader. Li Hai-ching.	The Manchoukuo Army engaged the Li bandits which were to attack the Manchoukuo & Japanese Army from the rear in response to Su Ping-wen, and drove them into Jehol Province.

Date	Engagement	No. of Enemy Forces	No. of Manchoukuo Forces	Description of Manchoukuo and Enemy Forces	Remarks
Nov.-Dec., 1932.	Pacification of middle territory between Kirin and Hailung.	5,000	5,000	Manchoukuo: Fengtien & Kirin Army cooperating with the Japanese Army. The Enemy: Professional bandits including Communist Bandits. Leaders. San Kiang-hao, Tien chen, Sung Kuo-jung, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army cooperated with the Japanese Army in pacifying the middle land between Kirin and Hailung.
Nov.-Dec., 1932.	3rd pacification of the Tungpien-Tao Region.	2,000	5,000	Manchoukuo: Fengtien Army. The Enemy: Professional bandits.	The Manchoukuo Army pacified the district and disarmed 1,800 bandits.
February-March, 1933.	Subjugation of Jehol Province.	130,000	42,000	Manchoukuo: Taoliao Army and other troops cooperating with the Japanese Army. Comdr. Gen. Chang Ching-hui & Lieut.-Gen. Kuo En-lin. The Enemy: Tang Yu-lin Troops, etc. Leader. Tang Yu-lin.	The Manchoukuo Army engaged in the subjugation of Jehol with the Japanese Army, pacified the Province, and drove away the Anti-Manchoukuo troops out of the Great Wall.
June-September, 1933.	Pacification of western side of Liao River.	600	900	Manchoukuo: Fengtien Army. Comdr. Gen. Yu Chi-shan. The Enemy: Professional bandits. Leader. Lu Shih-chieh, Pei Pa-tien, Li Hua-i, etc.	The bandits under Lu Shih-chieh, invaded the Western part of the Liao River to disorder the inland with a view to moving into the eastern part of the Liao River Region. The Manchoukuo Army attacked them for 4 months, and exterminated most of them, and disarmed 1,800 bandits.
October-November, 1933.	Punitive expedition into Kirin Province.	20,000	35,000	Manchoukuo: Kirin. Heilungkiang and other troops cooperating with the Japanese Army. The Enemy: Professioal bandits in Kirin Province.	The Manchoukuo Army cooperating with the Japanese Army, pacified Kirin Province. Wang Tien-chen and 2 other chiefs were killed, and many bandits surrendered or were exterminated.
June-August, 1934.	4th pacification of the Tungpien-Tao Region.	4,000	5,000	Manchoukuo: lst District Army. Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Liao Pi-chen. The Enemy: Professional bandits including Korean Bandits in Tungpien-Tao Region. Leaders. Kung Wen, Wang Tien-yang, Wang Feng-ke, etc.	Bandits in the Tungpien-Tao Region commenced activity after the Japanese Army centralized its troops stationed in small detachments in the country. The Manchoukuo Army, cooperating with the Japanese forces, gathered at Tungho, attacked and subjugated the bandits, and confiscated their arms.
July, 1934.	Summer expedition into East Kirin Province.	15,00	250	Manchoukuo: 2nd District Army. Comdr. Major-Gen. Chin En-kuei. The Enemy: North Eastern People's Revolutionary Troops. Leaders. Wu I-ching, Ching Shan, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army cooperating with the Japanese Army, attacked the bandits gathering near Lake Kingpofu (Sankiang), and drove them into the mountains and overthrew their headquarters.

Date	Engagement	No. of Enemy Forces	No. of Manchoukuo Forces	Description of Manchoukuo and Enemy Forces	Remarks
July-September, 1934.	Pacification of Antu (Chientao).	3,000	300	Manchoukuo: 2nd District Army cooperating with the Japanese Army. Condr. Major-Gen. Takeo Hino. The Enemy: Professional bandits. Leaders. Tai Wen-Yuan, Tao Chen-shan, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army preserved peace in Antu-hsien when bandits attacked the district.
September, 1934.	1st pacification of Yenki District (Chientao).	1,000	1,000	Manchoukuo: 2nd District Army cooperating with the Japanese Army. Comdr. Major-Gen. Chin En-Kuei. The Enemy: North Eastern People's Revolutionary Troops. Leaders. Chu Chen, Pe Chun, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army cooperating with the Japanese Army, overthrew the headquarters of the Communist bandits, and despatched forces to several places to oppress the operation of bandits and to help the farmers to get their crops.
September, 1934.	Summer expedition to the West Kirin-Fengtien Frontier.	800	1,300	Manchoukuo: 2nd District Army cooperating with the Japanese Army. Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Hsing Shih-lien. The Enemy: Professional bandits including Communist Bandits. Leaders. Tien Hu, Ma Tuan, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army pacified the western part of Kirin Province with the Japanese Army and subjugated most of the bandits there.
September-October, 1934.	5th pacification of the Tungpien-Tao Region.	4,500	6,000	Manchoukuo: 1st District Army cooperating with the Japanese Army. Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Liao Pi-chen. The Enemy: Professional bandits in Tungpien-Tao Region. Leaders. Wang Tien-yang, Wang Feng-ke, Ma Tuan, Tien Hu, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army cooperated with the Japanese Army in suppressing the bandits, and established the *PAO CHIA* system and improved the communications network.
October-November, 1934.	Blockade of Eastern Frontier & Japan-Manchou Joint Autumn Pacification of Kirin, the Tungpien-Tao Region and Pinkiang & Sankiang Provinces.	12,000	19,600	Manchoukuo: 1st, 2nd and 4th District Army cooperating with the Japanese Army. Comdr. Gen. Yu Chi-shan, Gen. Kie Hsing and Major-Gen. Wang Tsi-chung. The Enemy: Professional and other bandits in Kirin, Tung-Pien-Tao, and othe Districts. Leaders. Sieh Wen-tung, Tien Hu, Wang Tien-yang etc.	The Manchoukuo Army gathered its forces in Kirin Province, and commenced an autumnal expedition and blockaded the Eastern Frontier to make effective their operation. The expedition was ended in November, but the blockade was carried on. (In this period, each Army District made a punitive expedition in several districts.)
Dec., 1934-Jan., 1935.	Winter expedition into Iran District (Sankiang).	1,300	900	Manchoukuo: 4the District Army. Comdr. Major-Gen. Liu Wei-hun. The Enemy: Anti-Manchoukuo Bandits. Leaders. Sieh Wen-tung, etc.	The bandits under Sieh Wen-tung, were active in Iran & Poli districts. The Manchoukuo Army attacked them and drove them to the southwest.

Date	Engagement	No. of Enemy Forces	No. of Manchoukuo Forces	Description of Manchoukuo and Enemy Forces	Remarks
January, 1935.	Winter expedition into Yenki District (Chientao).	700	500	Manchoukuo: 4th District Army cooperating with the Japanese Army. Comdr. Major-Gen. Chin En-Kuei. The Enemy: Professional bandits including Communist Bandits. Leaders Pe Chun, Hai Lung, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army cooperating with the Japanese Army, attacked the bandits in Yenki district, and overthrew their headquarters.
January, 1935.	Winter expedition into Lotsukou (Chientao).	1,000	1,200	Manchoukuo: Chin-an Army & 4th District Army cooperating with the Japanese Army. Comdr. Major-Gen. Juzaburo Fujii. The Enemy: North East Volunteer Troops. Leaders. Kung Hsien-jung, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army cooperating with the Japanese Army, attacked the bandits in Yenki district, and overthrew their headquarters. The Manchoukuo Army attacked the bandits under Kung Hsien-jung, who disordered the Eastern Frontier and were preparing for further raids in the north mountains of Lotsukou (Chientao), and overthrew their headquarters after one month's hard fighting.
February, 1935.	Winter expedition into Pinkiang District.	1,800	900	Manchoukuo: 2nd District Army. Comdr. Major-Gen. Li Wen-lung. The Enemy: Anti-Manchoukuo Bandits. Leaders. Teh Lin, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army attacked the bandits under Teh Lin, which devastated Wuchanghsien, and heavily oppressed them.
February-March, 1935.	Winter expedition into Pinkiang District.	1,600	1,100	Manchoukuo: 2nd District Army. Comdr. Major-Gen. Wang Tsu-chen. The Enemy: Anti-Manchoukuo Bandits. Leaders. Chao Shang-chih, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army attacked the Anti-Manchoukuo Bandits which were devastating the north district of the N.M.R., and overthrew their headquarters.
February-March, 1935.	6th Winter pacification of the Tungpien-Tao Region.	4,000	6,000	Manchoukuo: 1st District Army. Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Wang Tien-chung. The Enemy: Professional bandits including Communist Bandits. Leaders. Wang Feng-ke, Ma Tuan, Tien Hu, etc (Wang Tien-yang killed).	The Manchoukuo Army attacked the Communist Bandits in the mountainous districts and drove them to the frontier of Chosen.
February, 1935.	Pacification of Chengteh & Chaoyang Districts. (Jehol).	2,700	2,200	Manchoukuo: 5th District Army. Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Wang Yung-ching. The Enemy: Anti-Manchoukuo Bandits. Leaders. Lan Tien-lin, Wang Kuo-shui, etc.	The Manchoukuo Army operated an expedition against the Anti-Manchoukuo Bandits under Lan Tien-lin, which was active in Chengteh & Chaoyang districts.
March, 1935.	7th pacification of the Tungpien-Tao Region & expedition to the Kirin-Fengtien Frontier.	3,500	6,600	Manchoukuo: 1st District Army. Comdr. Lieut.-Gen. Liao Pi-chen & Lieut.-Gen. Wang Tien-chung. The Enemy: Professional bandits including Communist Bandits. Leaders. Wang Feng-ke, Ma Tuan, Tien Hu, etc.	To complete the result of 6th expedition and to overthrew the bandit headquarters, the Manchoukuo Army is operating a punitive expedition in several districts.

References: Tables 1, 2, 3—The Ministry of Defence of Manchoukuo.