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**JAPAN - MANCHOUKUO**  
**YEAR BOOK**  
**1937**





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INCORPORATED IN 1893

Cable Address:—"IWASAKIGEN TOKYO" CAPITAL:—Yen 120,000,000

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## READ CAREFULLY!

It Will Make The Year Book Worth More To You

### GENERAL DIVISION

The book is divided into two major sections, namely, Japan and Manchoukuo. Complementing these sections are four appendices, viz., Who's Who, Business Directory, Bibliography and Learned and Social Institutions, in addition to a General Index.

### HOW THE PARTS ASSIST EACH OTHER

The parts, mentioned above are so arranged and edited as to permit comprehensive understanding of each independent of the others. The trained reader will find immediately, however, that each section can be made to complement the others considerably in a number of cases. For instance, given a specific subject either on Japan or Manchoukuo to review, the reader may look up the item in the General Index. If there is any prominent person connected with the activity, his name may be found in the Who's Who. If the biography further mentions his affiliations with learned or social institutions, or companies, the standing of such may be found either in the Business Directory or in the appendix on Learned and Social Institutions. If there are books to be read on any line of affair of the two countries, the Bibliography will be found to contain the list of the latest authoritative works. This is only one of many ways in which the sections, related as a unit, may help the reader in locating all the important information on the two countries.

### STATISTICS

There are approximately 1,200 tables in this book. The sources of the tables will be found at the end of the respective chapters in which they appear.

### MAP

The map of Japan, Manchoukuo and adjoining territories, supplemented with this issue, contains some 4,000 place names. By referring to the "Map Index" in the 1936 issue any place name may be easily located by key numbers and letters corresponding to squared areas on the map.

### IDENTIFYING CHINESE CHARACTERS

In view of the existence of a large number of different Chinese characters of identical pronunciation, the Who's Who Index gives the corresponding Chinese characters of the names entered of Japanese and Manchurians.

### DIAGRAMS

In view of the increasingly important role which the larger business organizations of Japan are taking in Japanese finance, commerce and industry, diagrammatic charts of nine of the representative concerns, showing their spheres of influence, have been appended to the Business Directory section of this issue. A list of other diagrams is given in the Table of Contents.

### ADVERTISEMENTS

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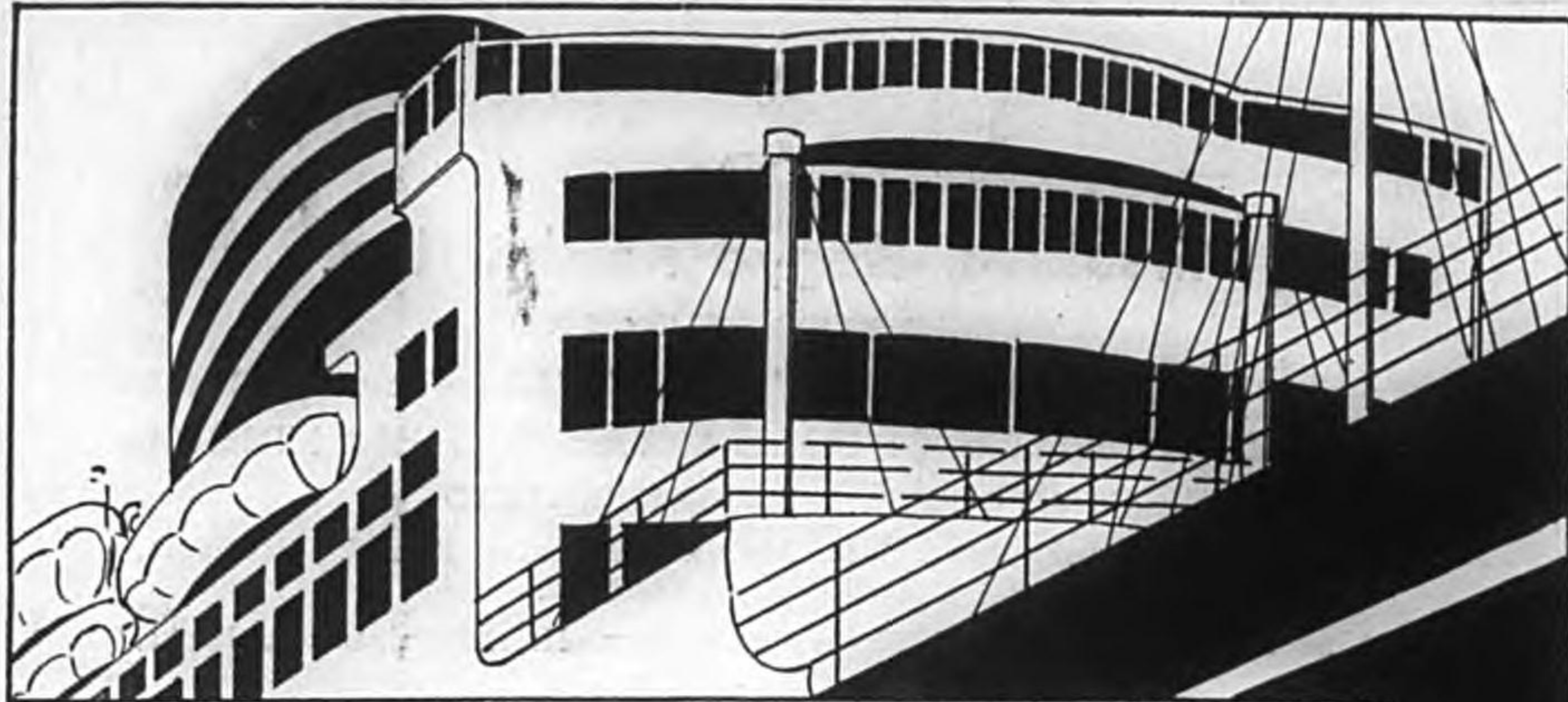
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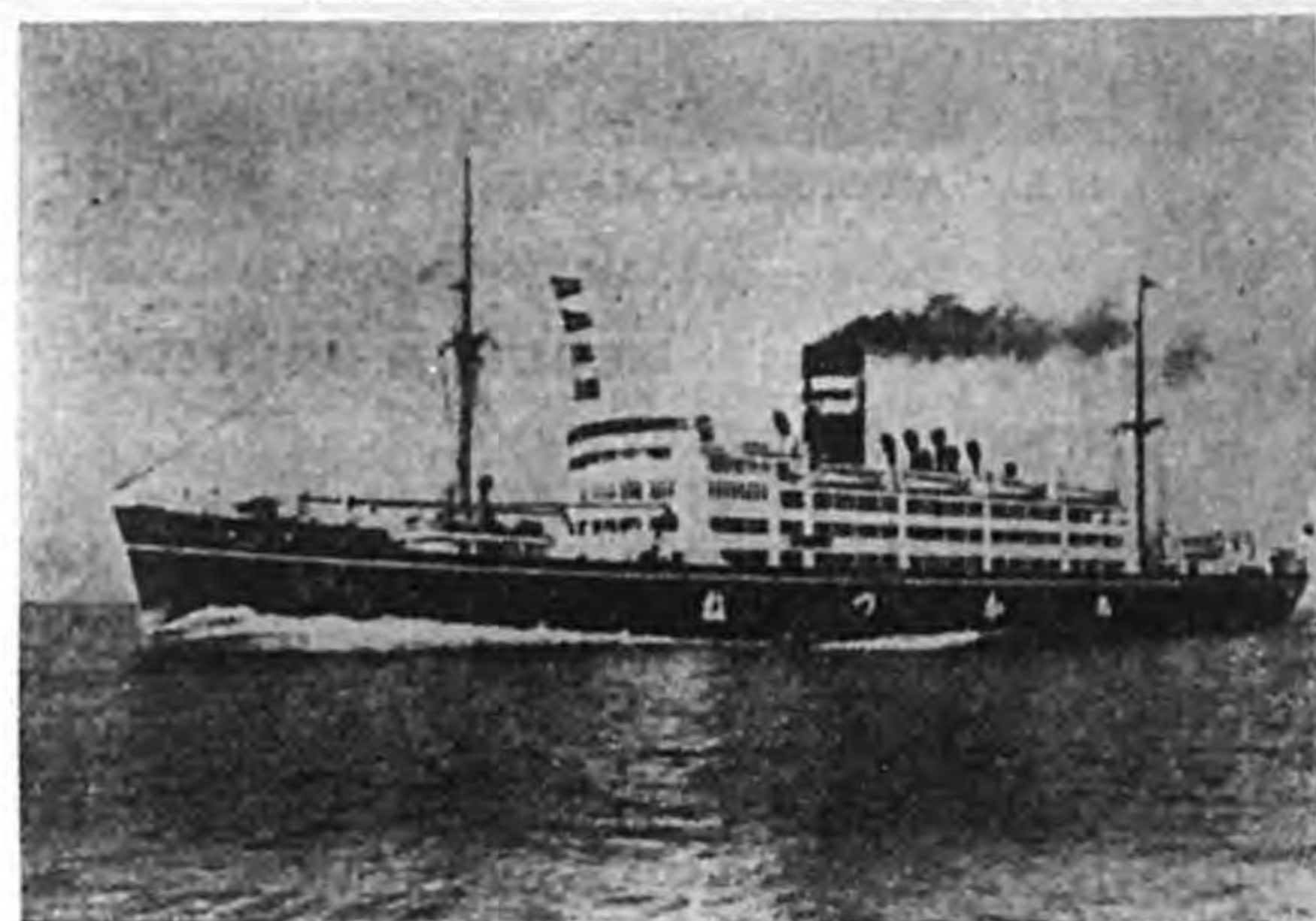
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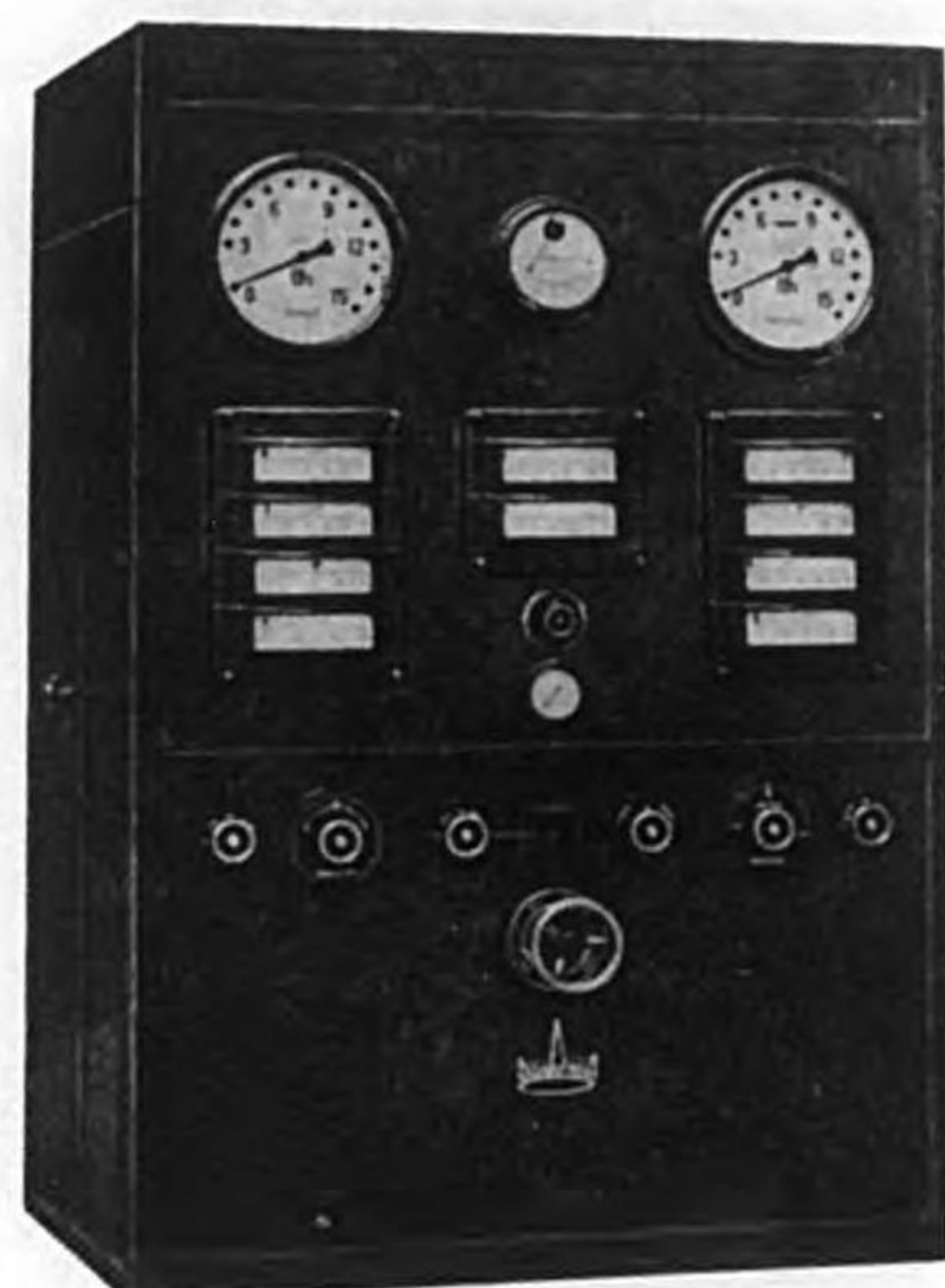
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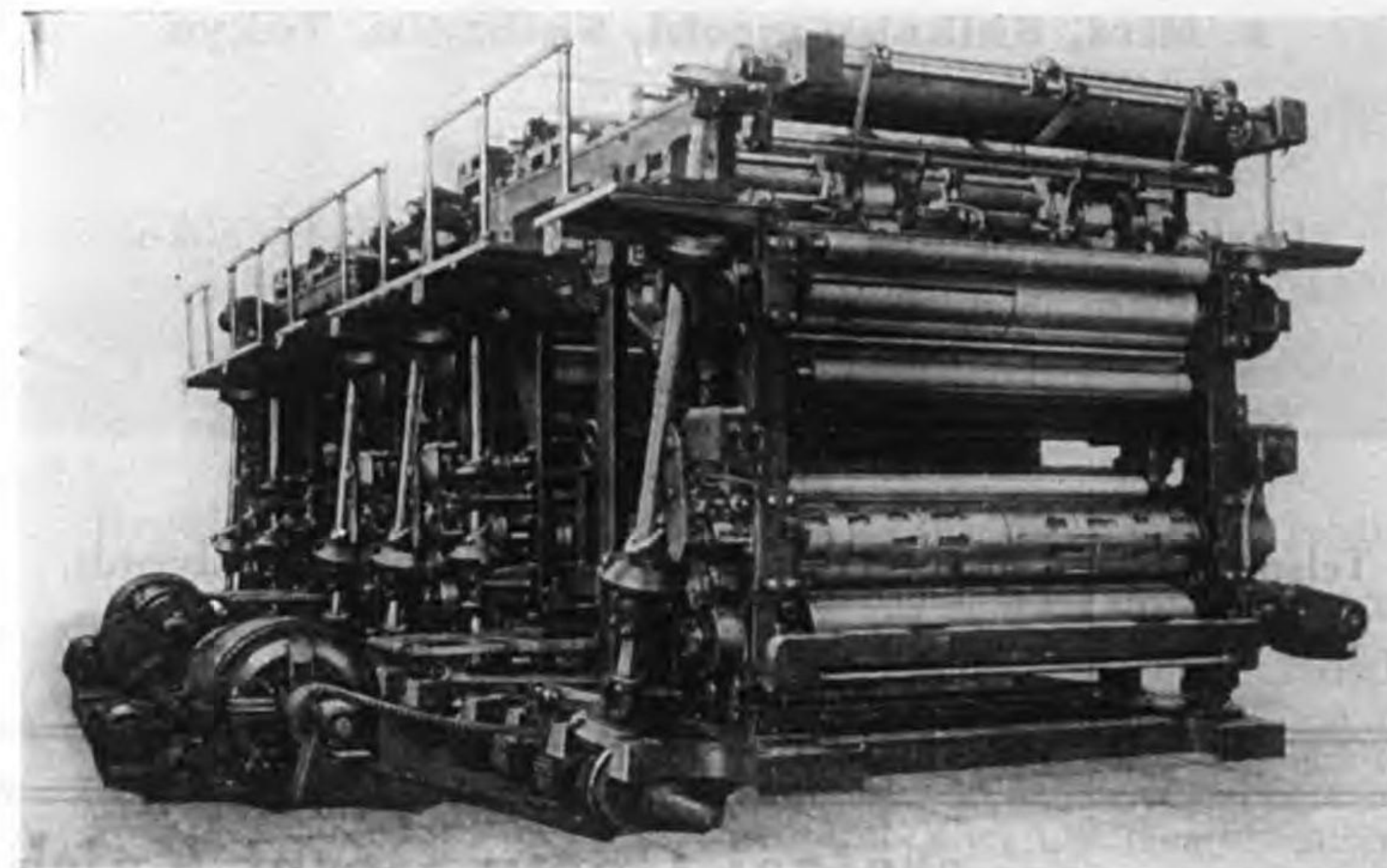
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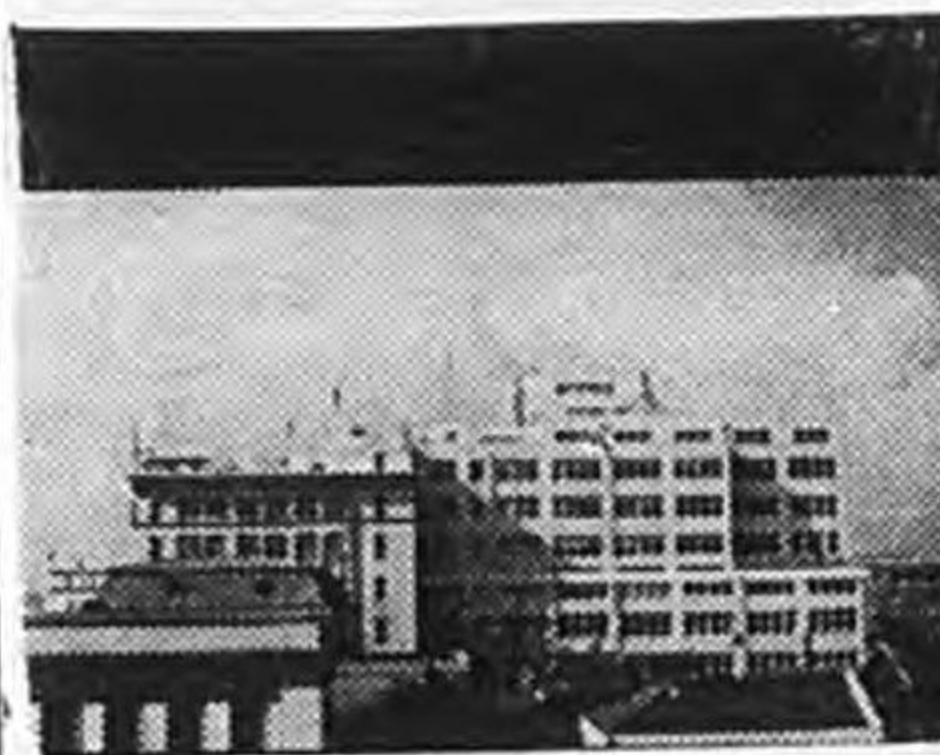
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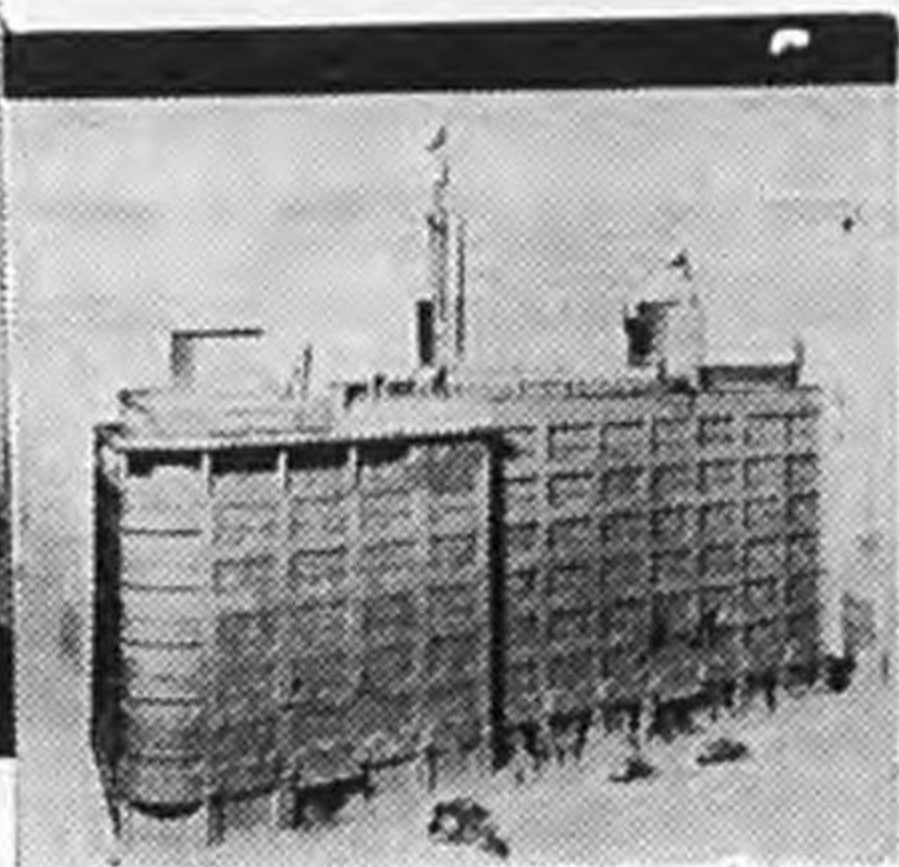
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## FOREWORD

IN presenting the fourth issue of THE JAPAN-MANCHOUKUO YEAR BOOK, the editors wish again to thank their many collaborators for the liberal assistance which they have rendered. The issue at hand follows in the main the editorial pattern of the previous numbers of this publication. Considerable additions have been made, however, to the Japan and Manchoukuo divisions in the way of presenting the new aspects of these two countries in other lines of activity. As heretofore, preference has been given to official data over those of other origin, and the tables which aggregate some 1,200 in all are numbered and their sources given at the end of the respective chapters in which they appear.

The appendices have been thoroughly overhauled and will be found to complement the main text more fully than in the previous issues.

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## Weights, Measures and Moneys (J A P A N)

With English and French Equivalents

### Distance and Length

<i>Ri</i> = 36 <i>cho</i> = 2160 <i>ken</i>	= 2.4403 miles	= 3.92727 kilometres
<i>Ri</i> = (marine)	= 1 knot	= 1.85318 kilometres
<i>Ken</i> = 6 <i>shaku</i> = 60 <i>sun</i>	= 5.965163 ft.	= 1.81818 metres
<i>Shahu</i> = 10 <i>sun</i> = 100 <i>bu</i>	= 0.994194 ft.	= 0.30303 metre
<i>Shaku</i> (cloth measure)	= 1.25 <i>shaku</i>	
<i>Tan</i> (cloth measure)	= a roll of about 25 <i>shaku</i>	

### Land Measure

Square <i>ri</i> = 1296 <i>sq. cho</i>	= 5.95516 <i>sq. miles</i>	= 15.42345 <i>kilometres carrés</i>
<i>Cho</i> = 10 <i>tan</i> = 3000 <i>tsubo</i>	= 2.45064 <i>acres</i>	= 99.17355 <i>ares</i>
<i>Tsubo</i> or <i>bu</i>	= 3.95369 <i>sq. yards</i>	= 3.30579 <i>centiares</i>
<i>Ko</i> (Formosa) = 2934 <i>tsubo</i>		

### Quantity, Capacity and Cubic Measures

<i>Koku</i> = 10 <i>to</i> = 100 <i>sho</i>	= {	= 1.80391 <i>hectolitres</i>
	4.96075 <i>bushels</i>	
	47.95389 <i>gallons</i>	
	(Liquid) U.S.A.	
	5.11902 <i>bushels</i>	
	(Dry) U.S.A.	
<i>Go</i> (10th of a <i>sho</i> )	= 10th of a ton	
<i>Koku</i> (capacity of vessels)	= about 1 cubic ft. × 10	
<i>Koku</i> (timber)	= 40 <i>kwan</i> (in weight)	
<i>Koku</i> (fish)	= about 1 cubic ft. × 12	
<i>Shakujime</i> (timber)	= about 3 × 6 × 6 ft.	
<i>Taba</i> (fagot, etc.)		

### Weights

<i>Kwan</i> ( <i>Kan</i> ) = 1000 <i>momme</i>	= {	= 3.75000 <i>kilogrammes</i>
	8.26733 <i>lbs. (Avoir)</i>	
	10.04711 <i>lbs. (Troy)</i>	
<i>Kin</i> = 160 <i>momme</i>	= {	= 0.60000 <i>kilogrammes</i>
	1.32277 <i>lbs. (Avoir)</i>	
	1.60754 <i>lbs. (Troy)</i>	
<i>Momme</i> = 10 <i>fun</i>	= {	= 3.75000 <i>grammes</i>
	0.13228 <i>oz. (Avoir)</i>	
	0.12057 <i>oz. (Troy)</i>	

### Money

<i>Yen</i> (¥) = 100 <i>sen</i> = 1000 <i>rin</i> = (at par)	= {	= 0.84459 <i>dollars (U.S.A.)*</i>
	2s. 0d. 58½ (England)	
	12.72265 <i>francs (France)</i>	
	2.0925 <i>marks (Germany)</i>	
	0.49846 <i>dollars (U.S.A.)</i>	

\* Revised rate: Dollar = 0.88067 gram of gold.

## Japanese Year Dates

1st Year of Meiji .....	1868	37th Year of Meiji .....	1904
2nd " " .....	1869	38th " " .....	1905
3rd " " .....	1870	39th " " .....	1906
4th " " .....	1871	40th " " .....	1907
5th " " .....	1872	41st " " .....	1908
6th " " .....	1873	42nd " " .....	1909
7th " " .....	1874	43rd " " .....	1910
8th " " .....	1875	44th " " .....	1911
9th " " .....	1876	45th " " .....	} 1912
10th " " .....	1877	1st Year of Taisho .....	
11th " " .....	1878	2nd " " .....	1913
12th " " .....	1879	3rd " " .....	1914
13th " " .....	1880	4th " " .....	1915
14th " " .....	1881	5th " " .....	1916
15th " " .....	1882	6th " " .....	1917
16th " " .....	1883	7th " " .....	1918
17th " " .....	1884	8th " " .....	1919
18th " " .....	1885	9th " " .....	1920
19th " " .....	1886	10th " " .....	1921
20th " " .....	1887	11th " " .....	1922
21st " " .....	1888	12th " " .....	1923
22nd " " .....	1889	13th " " .....	1924
23rd " " .....	1890	14th " " .....	1925
24th " " .....	1891	15th " " .....	} 1926
25th " " .....	1892	1st Year of Showa .....	
26th " " .....	1893	2nd " " .....	1927
27th " " .....	1894	3rd " " .....	1928
28th " " .....	1895	4th " " .....	1929
29th " " .....	1896	5th " " .....	1930
30th " " .....	1897	6th " " .....	1931
31st " " .....	1898	7th " " .....	1932
32nd " " .....	1899	8th " " .....	1933
33rd " " .....	1900	9th " " .....	1934
34th " " .....	1901	10th " " .....	1935
35th " " .....	1902	11th " " .....	1936
36th " " .....	1903	12th " " .....	1937

## Manchoukuo Year Dates

1st Year of Tatung .....	1932	1st Year of Kangteh .....	1934
2nd " " .....	1933	2nd " " .....	1935
3rd " " .....	1934	3rd " " .....	1936
		4th " " .....	1937



## CHAPTER I

### GEOGRAPHY

#### POSITION, TERRITORY, AREA, PHYSICAL FEATURES, CLIMATE, FAUNA AND FLORA

Japan is situated in the east of the Continent of Asia and in the west of the Northern Pacific lying between 20° 25' and 50° 55' N. latitude and 119° 18' and 156° 31' E. longitude. The territory comprised within this limit consists of six large islands, i.e. Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, Hokkaido, Taiwan (Formosa), Southern Karafuto (Saghalien below 50° lat.) and the Peninsula of Chosen (Korea), and about six hundred smaller islands. Of these islands Sado, Oki, Tsushima, Iki Awaji and the four archipelagoes of Boko (Pescadores), Chishima (Kuriles), Ogasawara (Bonin) and Ryukyu (Luchu) may deserve mention, all the rest be-

ing insignificant. Japan Proper consists of the four large islands of Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, and Hokkaido, and is exclusive of Taiwan and its adjoining islands, Karafuto and Chosen.

After the Japan-China War (1894-1895) Japan acquired Taiwan including the Pescadores, and after the Russo-Japanese War (1904-05) the Southern half of Saghalien, and also obtained a free hand in Korea, which she later annexed and renamed it Chosen. The realm now covers 675,385.27 sq. kilometres, distributed as follows:—  
Position..20°25'—50°55' N.L. 119°18'—156°31' E.L.  
Area.....675,385.27 sq. kilometres  
Of which, arable..... 60,304 055 sq. kms.  
mountainous.....227,123.016 sq. kms.

Table 1. Area of Japan

	Area		Coast line (kilometres)
	(Sq. kilometres)	Percentage	
Japan Proper (incl. outlying islands).....	382,545	56.64	30,605.46
Honshu ( " " " ).....	230,532	34.13	11,904.08
Shikoku ( " " " ).....	18,773	2.78	2,946.52
Kyushu ( " " " ).....	42,079	6.23	8,662.30
Hokkaido ( " " " ).....	88,775	13.14	5,484.50
Ryukyu ( " " " ).....	2,386	0.35	1,608.06
Taiwan (Formosa).....	35,993	5.32	1,888.19
Karafuto (Saghalien).....	36,090	5.35	1,534.42
Chosen (Korea).....	220,776	32.69	18,203.73
Total.....	675,385	100.00	52,231.79
Kwantung Leased Territory.....	3,462		
Pacific Mandated Islands.....	2,149		

As may be noted from the above table, Japan Proper occupies 56.64% of the area of the whole Empire, and is about 30 per cent. of the size of Manchoukuo. It ranks twenty-fifth in area on the list of the countries of the world, being preceded by Turkey, Paraguay, Sweden and Poland and followed by England, Italy, Finland and Norway.

According to the third quinquennial census taken on October 1, 1935, the distribution of the population of the Empire is, as follows:

Table 2. Population of Japan

Population.....(Average density per sq. km.—145)	
Japan Proper ( " " " " " —181)	
Japan Proper.....	69.25 millions
Taiwan.....	5.21 "
Karafuto.....	0.33 "
Chosen.....	22.90 "
Kwantung Leased Territory.....	1.66 "
Pacific Mandated Islands.....	0.10 "

Note.—All the outlying islands having a coast line of over 2 miles and also smaller islands that are inhabited are included in the total area. For comparison of the density of population of Japan with other countries see Chap. IV Population and Emigration.

#### PHYSICAL FEATURES

**Mountains.**—The land is mountainous and volcanic. The most conspicuous ranges are, in the west and south, two branches of the Kwen-Lun system of China of which, the Chugoku range, traverses Kyushu and finds its way into the middle part of Honshu, while the other coming from Shikoku also enters the middle of Honshu. In the north there is the Saghalien system which forms the ridges in Hokkaido and northern Honshu. These ranges encounter at the middle of Honshu, thereby producing upheavals popularly known among mountaineers as the Japan Alps, and other prominent peaks such as



Fuji, Norikuradake, etc.

Many volcanoes occur in these ranges. The Aso and Nasu volcanic chains form part respectively of the branches of the Kwen-lun and the Saghalien systems, while the Fuji volcanic range traverses the Seven Islands and Peninsula of Izu and joins the two main systems at the middle of Honshu, which in this part rise in peaks of over 10,000 ft. in height. The Fuji range divides Honshu into two main sections, Southern Japan and Northern Japan.

The Nasu volcanic range and Chugoku range part Honshu into what are called the Omote Nihon (Outer Japan), or Pacific board and the Ura Nihon (Inner Japan), or Japan Sea board, these two presenting striking difference in climate and other physical conditions as well as civilization. The Kirishima volcanic range occurs in the Luchu and Osumi Islands and enters Kyushu while the Kuriles have also a volcanic chain which stretches to Hokkaido. Chosen and Taiwan have their own mountain ranges and volcanic chains. In the latter there are 48 peaks of above 10,000 ft.

There are in Japanese territory over 231 mountain peaks each measuring above 8,000 ft., of which the first 39, with the single exception of Mount Fuji, are in Taiwan. The following are the principal peaks in Japan Proper, Taiwan and Chosen:—

**Rivers.**—Due to the insular position and complicated topography, rivers are comparatively short and of rapid current. They are not navigable for large sea-going vessels, but owing to

Table 4. Principal Rivers

Flowing into	Name	Length		Drainage basin		Navigable length*	
		miles	kms.	sq. miles	sq. kms.	miles	kms.
Pacific Ocean	Agano (Honshu)	105	169	3,212	8,340	217	585
	Go-no	124	200	1,471	3,810	124	200
	Ishikari (Hokkaido)	227	365	5,401	14,250	—	—
	Mogami (Honshu)	134	216	2,858	7,400	215	459
	Jinzu	78	126	1,073	2,780	27	55
	Noshiro or Yoneshiro (Honshu)	85	137	1,584	4,100	124	228
	Omono (Honshu)	93	149	1,614	4,180	142	334
	Rakuto (Chosen)	327	525	9,212	23,860	215	344
	Shinano (Honshu)	229	369	4,734	12,260	344	703
	Teshio (Hokkaido)	193	306	2,247	5,820	—	—
Japan Sea	Tumen (Chosen)	325	521	4,061	10,513	54	85
	Abukuma (Honshu)	122	196	2,114	5,480	81	149
	Arakawa	110	177	1,209	3,130	154	475
	Kiso	144	232	2,513	9,100	278	448
	Kitakami	152	243	4,139	10,720	225	605
	Naka	78	126	1,262	3,270	68	118
	Shingu	100	161	942	2,440	183	295
	Fuji	100	161	1,749	4,530	55	90
	Tenryu	134	216	1,888	4,890	176	357
	Tokachi (Hokkaido)	122	196	3,389	8,780	—	—
Inland Sea	Tone (Honshu)	200	322	6,086	15,760	415	852
	Yoshino (Shikoku)	146	236	1,429	3,700	146	236
	Yodo (Honshu)	49	79	3,246	8,410	220	660
Okhotsk Sea	Tokoro (Hokkaido)	90	145	1,027	2,660	—	—

Table 3. Principal Peaks Japan Proper

Name	Locality	Height	
		(metres)	(feet)
Mt. Fuji	Suruga-Kai	3,776	12,461
Shirane-Kitadake	Kai	3,192	10,534
Hodakadake	Shinano-Hida	3,190	10,527
Yarigatake	do	3,180	10,494
Akuzawa-Higashi-dake	Suruga	3,146	10,382
Aka-ishidake	Shinano-Suruga	3,120	10,296
Oku-Nishi-Kawachidake	Suruga	3,084	10,177
Ontake	Shinano-Hida	3,063	10,108
Shimidake	Shinano-Suruga	3,047	10,055
Senjogatake	Shinano-Kai	3,033	10,009
Nodoridake	Kai-Suruga	3,026	9,936
Norikuradake	Shinano-Hida	3,016	9,986
Tateyama	Etchyu	3,015	9,950
Hijiridake	Shinano-Suruga	3,011	9,936
Tsurugidake	Etchyu	3,003	9,910
<b>Taiwan</b>			
Niitaka (Mt. Morrison)		3,950	13,035
Tsugitaka (Mt. Sylvia)		3,884	12,743
Shukoran-san (Maborasu-san)		3,833	12,649
Uramon-san		3,806	12,560
Tarakussha		3,758	12,401
Nankodai-san		3,740	12,270
Trop		3,712	12,250
Chuo Senzan		3,703	12,149
Harihe		3,702	12,146
Kwan-san		3,667	12,101
Daisuikutsu-san		3,645	12,029
<b>Chosen</b>			
Kanboho		2,541	8,385

frequent rainfalls they sufficiently serve the purpose of irrigation and hydraulic power.

Principal rivers are given below with their length, drainage area, etc.

Flowing into	Name	Length		Drainage basin		Navigable length*	
		miles	kms.	sq. miles	sq. kms.	miles	kms.
East China Sea	{ Chikugo (Kyushu)	88	141	1,102	2,850	117	189
	{ Dakusui (Taiwan)	95	165	—	—	—	—
Yellow Sea	{ Daido (Chosen)	273	439	6,437	16,673	161	260
	{ Kan	320	514	10,147	26,279	205	330
	{ Oryokko (Yalu)	491	790	12,255	31,739	434	698

\* Including tributaries.

**Lakes and Ponds.**—The are many of these inland water basins, adding much to the scenic beauty of the country, though most of them are small in size. They are generally of volcanic or seismic origin, or have been formed by gradation. Among lakes of over 1.5 sq. miles in circumference and lying at high altitude may be mentioned Lake Chuzenji (1,271 m. above sea level), Lake Yamanaka (982 m.), Lake Motosu (902 m.), Lake Kawaguchi (830 m.), Lake Hibara (819 m.) and Lake Suwa (715 m.). As regards depth, Lake Tazawa (425 m.), Lake Towada (378 m.) and Lake Shikotsu (363 m.) head the list.

The area and circumference of principal lakes are as follows:—

Table 5. Principal Lakes

Lakes	Locality	Area (sq. kms.)	Circumference (kms.)
Biwa	Shiga	674.80	235.20
Hachiro-gata	Akita	223.29	80.63
Kasumigaura	Ibaraki	189.17	150.42
Taraika	Karafuto	180.06	80.63
Tomnai	Karafuto	168.18	90.90
Saroma	Hokkaido	150.53	77.00
Inawashiro	Fukushima	104.83	56.08
Nakanoumi	Shimane	101.60	95.83
Shinji	"	83.13	50.50
Kutcharo	Hokkaido	79.89	56.52
Shikotsu	"	76.18	40.98
Hamana	Shizuoka	72.04	126.22
Doya	Hokkaido	69.60	42.85
Towada	Akita-Aomori	59.58	46.20

Chuzenji in Nikko (23.35 sq. kms.), Ashi-no-ko in Hakone (20.2 sq. kms.), Suwa-ko in Shinano (18.18 kms.) and Towada in Mutsu (59.58 sq. kms.) are noted mountain lakes.

**Plains.**—As might be expected from the hilly nature of her topography Japan cannot boast of large plains, and indeed land inclined 10° and below does not exceed a quarter of the whole area. But small alluvial plains are not scarce, the valleys of larger rivers being especially fertile. Of these the Kwanto plain, watered by two large rivers, Tone and Arakawa, is most important and contains Tokyo, Yokohama and many other towns and cities, supporting altogether over 10 millions of souls. The Nobi plain consists of the valleys of the Kiso and other rivers and feeds over 2½ million people, clustered in Nagoya and other towns and cities. Other plains in Honshu are the Kinai plain with Kyoto, Osaka, Kobe, etc. in it, containing 4½ million people, and traversed by the Yodo and other rivers; the Echigo plain traversed by the Shinano and Agano rivers; the Sendai plain watered by the Kitakami and the Abukuma. Hokkaido has Ishikari and six other large plains. The Tsukushi plain in Kyushu contains coal fields, where 60 per cent. of the coal produced in Japan is mined. In Chosen the valleys of the Kan-go (River Han) are reputed to be among the most developed. Principal plains in Japan Proper are as follows:—

Table 6. Principal Plains

Name	Watered by	Noted towns	Area (sq. kms.)	Approximate No. of inhabitants
Kwanto	Tone, Ara, Tama, Naka & Sagami	Tokyo, Yokohama, etc.	13,000	11 millions
Nobi	Kiso system (Ibi and Nagara)	Nagoya, Gifu, etc.	18,000	3 "
Kinai	Yodo	Kyoto, Osaka & Kobe	1,250	5 "
Echigo	Shinano and Agano	Niigata	1,800	1½ "
Sendai	Kitakami and Abukuma	Sendai	1,500	1 "
Ishikari	Ishikari	Sapporo	2,100	1/5 "
Tsukushi	Chikugo	Kurume	1,200	2 "

**Adjacent Seas.**—The East China Sea is shallow except for the portion near Taiwan and the Luchu, but the Sea of Japan is deeper, the maximum being 1,880 fathoms. Great depressions are found in the Pacific waters not far from the coast. One of them, the Tuscarora deep, discovered by the American steamer

Tuscarora in 1874, which extends for about 400 miles along the Chishima Islands (Kuriles) has a maximum depth of 4,655 fathoms (8,514 metres), the Ryukyu deep being credited with 4,041 fathoms. The deepest sea-bottom in the sea about Japan which had hitherto been believed to be the Tuscarora Deep has been ascer-



tained to be a spot lying about midway between the Hachijo and Ogasawara (Bonin) islands, 30° 49' N.L. and 142° 18' E.L., where a maximum depth of 9,435 metres was sounded by the warship *Manshu* in October, 1926.

**Ocean Currents.**—Warm and cold currents encounter in Japanese seas, which has a favourable effect upon the fishing and marine product industries of the country. The great warm current in the North Pacific, known as Kuroshio (Black or Japan Current), runs along the southeastern shores of Taiwan and Japan Proper to a point of about 85° 6' N. L. where it bifurcates and takes a northeasterly course. The Tsushima Current which branches from the Kuroshio near the Luchu Is. passes through the Straits of Tsushima and washes the Japan Sea board of Honshu, finally reaching Saghalien. The cold currents in the Japan Sea are the Liman Current which, after touching the continental shores, streams along the northeastern coast of Chosen, and the Okhotsk Current in the Okhotsk Sea. The Oyashio or Chishima Current is also cold and washes the Pacific side of the Kuriles, Hokkaido, and northeastern Honshu. It meets one of the branches of the Black Current off the Ojika Peninsula, where there is a bank that furnishes a good fishing ground.

Though visited by cold streams the Japanese seas are ice-free, save in the extreme north of the Korean waters where ice-breakers are necessary in winter. Part of the Northern Pacific north of Cape Erimo (Hokkaido) is also visited by floating ice and ice-fields which are a menace to navigation from January to April.

**Tides.**—Tides register a very high range on the Yellow Sea and East China Sea coasts, reaching as much as 34.5 ft. at Jinsen (Chemulpo) in Chosen. In Japan Proper the highest range is 18 ft. at the port of Miike in Kyushu. The difference is 6-13 ft. in the Inland Sea, 6-9 ft. on the Pacific coast and 4-5 ft. on the Okhotsk. The Japan Sea is one of the waters with the smallest tidal range in the world, being scarcely more than 2 ft. except at the Tsushima Straits. At Naruto, one of the narrow straits by which the Inland Sea communicates with the Pacific, the tidal streams form eddies and whirlpools which present a unique sight.

**Bays and Harbours.**—The Pacific coast is far more diversified in outline than the Japan Sea coast. The coast line of the former measures in aggregate 10,310.3 miles against 2,818.6 miles of the latter. In Honshu alone, the outer coast measures 3,199.3 miles and the other only 1,588.6

miles. The eastern coast of northern Japan, i.e., from Cape Shiriya to Cape Inubo outside of Tokyo Bay, has only one continuous large inlet, the Bay of Sendai and the Bay of Matsu-shima embraced by the Ojika Peninsula, but for about 146 miles north of Sendai it is rich in smaller indentations and forms a Ria coast. The southern coast of Honshu extending from near Tokyo Bay to Cape Satta in Kyushu abounds in large indentations and furnishes several excellent anchorages. These inlets are Tokyo Bay, the Gulf of Sagami, the Bay of Atsumi, the Bay of Ise, the Straits of Kii and the Gulf of Tosa.

The Inland Sea may practically be regarded as one large inland basin, being connected with the outer sea by four very narrow straits, i.e., Shimonoseki, Hayatomo, Yura and Naruto. It is dotted with small islets and renowned for its charming scenery.

The China Sea coast of Kyushu is much indented, and over the sea are scattered the islands of Goto, Hirado, Amakusa and Koshiki. In the northwest the Nishisonogi, Nomo and Shimabara peninsulas divide the coast into the four bays of Omura, Nagasaki, Sasebo and Miike. The Bay of Kagoshima also may be mentioned, for it contains the volcanic island of Sakurajima on which there was an eruption in 1914.

The western part of the Japan Sea coast is much zigzagged and between Chosen and Kyushu there exists a narrow strait rather shallow in depth. This strait is further divided into three, i.e., Iki, East Tsushima and West Tsushima channels, by the two islands of Iki and Tsushima which lie in it. The West Tsushima channel is only 4,700 metres wide.

The monotonous nature of the Japan Sea coast of Honshu is somewhat diversified by the presence, here and there, of lagoons formed by the action of wind and wave. Nakanoumi Lagoon is one of such depressions. The only noteworthy indentation along the whole coast is that forming the Gulf of Wakasa on which are situated the secondary naval port of Maizuru, and the harbours of Miyatsu, Tsuruga, etc. One interesting geographical feature is that owing to the presence of the gulf the most constricted neck of Honshu exists there.

Between the Gulf of Wakasa and Tsugaru Promontory the curves formed by Noto and Oga Peninsulas are worthy of mention, whatever other inlets there may be being insignificant and at best forming river ports of no great value. The Oga Peninsula encloses the Hachirogata, a lagoon with beautiful scenery. The Gulf of Mutsu, in which lie Aomori and

Ominato, a secondary naval port, opens to the Tsugaru Straits but the mouth is narrowed by the Shimokita Peninsula. The Tsugaru Straits separates Hokkaido from Honshu with a width of only 20,000 metres and a maximum depth of 111 fathoms. It is well known as Blackeston's line.

The coast of Hokkaido and of Taiwan is not much better off for anchorage. The former is characterised by the presence of sand dunes formed by strong wind and sediments brought down by rivers. The Volcanic Bay and Oshima Peninsula, Nemuro Bay and Ishikari Bay only deserve mention. The coast of Taiwan presents a sharp contrast in the eastern and western shores, the former ending abruptly in deep water and the latter terminating in shelving bottom with shoals. The three large islands of the Pescadores group enclose among themselves an important anchorage. The Japan Sea coast of Chosen is very monotonous, while the Yellow Sea board is rich in indentations of which West Chosen and Gunsan Bays are the largest, containing Ryugampo (Yongampo), Jinsen (Chemulpo), Gunsan (Kunsan), Moppo and other harbours. This part also abounds in islets. The south coast of the Peninsula is not marked by large zigzags but has excellent anchorages, such as Masan and Fusan.

Table 7. Harbours Open to Foreign Steamers

Yokohama (Honshu)	Misumi	"
Kobe	Kagoshima	"
Niigata	Izugahara	"
Ebisu	Nawa (Luchu)	"
Osaka	Hamada (Honshu)	"
Nagasaki	Sakai	"
Hakodate (Hokkaido)	Miyatsu	"
Shimizu (Honshu)	Tsuruga	"
Taketoyo	Nanao	"
Nagoya	Fushiki	"
Yokkaichi	Funakawa	"
Uno	Aomori	"
Onomichi Itozaki	Kamaishi	"
Tokuyama	Shiogama	"
Imabari (Shikoku)	Otaru (Hokkaido)	"
Shimonoseki (Honshu)	Nemuro	"
Hagi	Kushiro	"
Moji (Kyushu)	Muroran	"
Wakamatsu	Odomari (Karafuto)	"
Hakata	Maoka	"
Karatsu	Jinsen (Korea)	"
Suminoe	Fusan	"
Kuchinotsu	Shingishu	"
Miike	Genzan	"

Chinnanpo	Tansui	"
Gunsan	Takao	"
Moppo	Anpin	"
Seishin	Goro	"
Yuki	Rokko	"
Joshin	Toseki	"
Ryuganpo	Mako	"
Keelung (Formosa)		

## CLIMATE

**Atmospheric Pressure and Wind.**—The climate of Japan is chiefly governed by the prevalence of monsoons, that is, the prevailing winds that periodically change their directions about every half year. During the warm seasons what is called the summer monsoon prevails, its direction being generally south to southeasterly while the winter monsoon that prevails during the cold seasons is north to northeasterly in direction. From the latter part of September to March a large area of high barometric pressure covers the whole of Eastern Siberia, its centre being the districts surrounding Lake Baikal. At the same time an area of low pressure appears over the northern Pacific, extending to the south of the Aleutian Islands. This results in the prevalence of anticyclonic wind over the whole of the Far East, its direction being west to northwest in Hokkaido, northwest in Japan Proper, north in the Luchu Islands, and northeasterly in Taiwan. One of the characteristics of the winter monsoon is its marked constancy in strength. It continues to blow for many days running, being broken only by an occasional visitation of the atmospheric disturbances called "cyclonic storm." From the latter part of April to the end of August what is known as the grand Pacific high pressure occupies the central part of the north Pacific Ocean, its western margin reaching as far as the eastern coast of Japan. Then in the Tibetan plateau there develops a great low area with a secondary low area also developing over the Mongolian desert. Thus a system of cyclonic circulations of air is established all over the Far Eastern coast, and the air current from the Pacific flows in into the Continent past Japan and her neighbouring seas. This summer monsoon, however, is generally variable in strength and its duration is short.

Below are given the mean monthly barometric reading at a few stations as reduced to the sea-level and given in mm. and a table showing the mean direction of prevailing winds at principal localities:—



Table 8. Atmospheric Pressure (in mm.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku .....	66.1	65.1	63.4	60.7	57.8	55.3	54.3	53.9	57.0	61.5	64.2	65.7	60.4
Fukuoka .....	66.8	65.7	64.4	61.9	59.2	56.3	56.4	56.2	59.1	63.3	65.8	66.7	61.8
Kagoshima .....	66.2	65.0	63.8	61.6	59.1	56.6	56.9	56.3	58.4	62.2	65.1	66.1	61.4
Hiroshima .....	66.2	65.3	64.7	62.0	59.4	56.6	56.8	56.6	59.3	63.2	65.6	66.1	61.8
Osaka .....	65.2	64.5	63.8	61.9	59.4	56.7	57.0	56.9	59.3	62.8	65.0	65.1	61.5
Nagoya .....	64.4	63.6	63.2	61.9	59.4	57.0	57.2	57.3	59.5	62.6	64.5	64.5	61.3
Kanazawa .....	64.6	64.2	63.8	61.9	59.3	56.7	56.9	56.9	59.5	63.0	64.7	64.4	61.3
Tokyo .....	62.5	62.1	62.3	61.6	59.3	57.1	57.4	57.6	59.9	62.7	63.6	62.6	60.7
Niigata .....	63.6	63.3	63.4	62.0	59.5	56.9	57.1	57.2	59.8	63.1	64.3	63.5	61.1
Ishinomaki .....	62.2	61.9	62.3	61.6	59.3	57.3	57.4	57.8	60.2	62.8	63.5	62.3	60.7
Hakodate .....	61.2	61.2	61.4	60.8	58.8	56.9	57.1	57.6	60.0	62.4	62.5	61.0	60.1
Nemuro .....	59.0	59.7	60.0	60.2	58.8	57.9	57.7	58.5	60.6	61.8	60.7	58.6	59.5
Chichijima (Bonin) .....	63.4	62.5	62.8	61.9	60.0	59.2	58.9	56.9	59.0	60.1	62.2	63.0	60.8

Table 9. Directions of Prevailing Wind (1922-1932)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku.....	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	SE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
Fukuoka.....	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NE	SE	NE	NE	SW	SW	NW
Kagoshima.....	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NE	SW	NE	NE	NW	NW	NW	NW
Hiroshima.....	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	SW	SW	NE	NE	NW	NW	NW
Osaka.....	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	SW	SW	NE	NE	NW	NW	NW
Nagoya.....	NW	NW	NW	NW	SW	SW	SW	SE	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW
Kanazawa.....	SW	SW	SW	SW	NW	NE	SW	NE	NE	SE	SE	SW	SW
Tokyo.....	NW	NW	NW	NE	SE	SE	SE	SE	NE	NE	NW	NW	NE
Niigata.....	NW	NW	NW	SW	SW	NW	SW	SE	SE	SE	SW	SW	NW
Ishinomaki.....	NW	NW	NW	SW	SE	SE	SE	SE	NE	NW	NW	NW	NW
Hakodate.....	NW	NW	NW	SW	SW	SE	SE	SE	SE	NW	NW	NW	NW
Nemuro.....	NW	NW	NW	SW	SW	SE	SE	SE	SE	SW	NW	NW	SW
Chichijima (Bonin).....	NW	SW	SW	SE	SE	SW	SE	SE	SE	SE	NE	NW	SE

**Cyclones and Typhoons.**—In speaking of winds in Japan and her neighbourhood, it is necessary to mention the violent rotatory storms called cyclones and typhoons. The former are also known by the name of Continental cyclones, and belong to the same category as the European rotatory storms. A cyclone is caused by the intruding polar front of general circulation in the higher latitude. These continental cyclones are most frequent in winter and are very rare in summer. The typhoon is of tropical origin

Table 10. Frequency of Cyclones and Typhoons (1893-1918)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Cyclones .....	101	114	157	165	159	123	60	37	50	87	97	114
Typhoons .....	30	17	18	14	33	34	90	93	109	96	52	43

**Air Temperature.**—In winter the cold is intense in Japan Proper for its latitude, owing to the cold air currents brought over from the Asiatic Continent by the winter monsoon, while being much milder than in the districts of the same latitude in Manchuria, Siberia, etc. The climate of Chosen (Korea) is more continental and colder

as hurricanes observed in the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic and the cyclones visiting the Bay of Bengal and Arabian Sea. It is most frequent from July to October, the severest occurring usually in August and September. In winter this kind of atmospheric disturbance is rarely met with. Below is given the frequency of both kinds of rotatory storms, the statistics being quoted from Father Froc's well known memoir "L'atmosphère en Extreme Orient":—

than that of Japan Proper, the territory forming part of the Continent. In Japan Proper the interior of Hokkaido is also marked by continental climate, the temperature once recorded in Asahigawa being as low as  $-14^{\circ}$  C. In the hot season the air temperature on land being already high due to insolation, the effect

of the summer monsoon which prevails there is chiefly shown in the close or sultry air owing to the moisture borne from the sea. Summer in Taiwan (Formosa) is most unbearable, because of the high temperature which lasts from the daytime far into the night, though the maximum is comparatively low. In Honshu and other islands of Japan Proper, however, the heat lessens in the morning and evening. In Hokkaido it is as hot as in Honshu in the daytime when tropical clothes are needful, but it grows so cool before sunrise and after sunset, that people are liable to catch cold. On the

coast of the Setonaikai, or the Inland Sea districts, land and sea breezes are well developed, and consequently morning and evening calms marking the pause of these breezes occur very regularly. In the hours 7 to 9 p.m. during the hot season, the air in these districts is as still as dead, not a puff quivering the blades of grass, and one feels as if shut up in a hot house.

The appended tables show the monthly mean air temperature and the daily mean maximum and minimum temperature:—

Table 11. Monthly Mean Temperature of Air (in  $^{\circ}$ C.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku .....	15.2	14.8	16.9	20.7	24.1	26.6	28.2	27.9	26.2	22.9	19.7	16.8	21.7
Fukuoka .....	5.0	5.1	8.1	13.1	17.1	21.4	25.7	26.4	22.2	16.2	11.4	7.0	14.9
Kagoshima .....	7.0	7.4	10.7	15.5	18.9	22.3	26.2	26.8	24.2	18.9	13.7	9.0	16.7
Hiroshima .....	3.9	4.3	7.4	12.9	17.3	21.4	25.6	26.9	22.9	16.7	11.0	6.1	14.7
Osaka .....	4.2	4.4	7.4	13.2	17.6	21.9	26.1	27.3	23.4	17.1	11.5	6.7	15.1
Nagoya .....	3.0	3.7	6.9	13.0	17.4	21.5	25.7	26.6	22.8	16.4	10.6	5.4	14.4
Kanazawa .....	2.5	2.3	5.2	11.0	15.6	20.1	24.2	25.6	21.5	15.4	10.1	5.2	13.2
Tokyo .....	3.0	3.7	6.9	12.6	16.7	20.5	24.3	25.7	22.0	16.0	10.6	5.4	14.0
Niigata .....	1.5	1.4	4.4	10.2	14.9	19.5	23.8	25.7	21.4	15.3	9.6	4.3	12.7
Ishinomaki .....	-0.4	0.2	3.0	8.8	13.2	17.8	21.2	23.3	19.8	13.7	7.9	2.4	10.9
Hakodate .....	-2.9	-2.4	0.7	6.3	10.4	14.4	19.0	21.6	17.9	11.8	5.7	-0.1	8.5
Nemuro .....	-5.0	-5.6	-2.5	2.8	6.5	9.9	14.3	17.2	15.3	10.6	4.6	-1.3	5.6
Chichijima (Bonin) .....	17.6	17.4	18.3	20.5	22.7	25.5	27.2	27.2	26.9	25.5	22.7	19.5	22.6

Table 12. Mean Daily Maximum Temperature of Air

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku .....	19.1	18.4	20.9	24.9	28.5	31.5	33.2	32.9	31.0	27.1	23.7	20.7	26.0
Fukuoka .....	9.4	9.6	13.1	18.5	22.7	26.2	30.1	31.2	27.4	22.3	17.0	11.7	19.9
Kagoshima .....	11.9	12.3	15.7	20.3	23.6	26.2	30.2	31.1	28.6	24.0	19.0	14.2	21.4
Hiroshima .....	9.0	9.4	12.7	18.2	22.5	25.8	29.9	31.7	27.8	22.6	16.9	11.5	19.8
Osaka .....	8.6	8.9	12.3	18.3	22.7	26.3	30.5	32.2	28.1	22.3	16.7	11.4	19.9
Nagoya .....	8.1	9.1	12.6	18.7	23.0	26.0	30.5	31.7	27.7	22.0	16.4	10.6	19.7
Kanazawa .....	6.0	6.1	9.8	16.2	20.8	24.5	28.5	30.5	26.4	20.4	14.8	9.1	17.8
Tokyo .....	8.3	8.8	11.9	17.4	21.3	24.5	28.2	29.9	26.0	20.5	15.7	10.9	18.6
Niigata .....	4.3	4.7	8.5	14.0	19.6	23.6	27.7	30.0	25.7	19.5	13.5	7.6	16.6
Ishinomaki .....	3.4	4.1	7.4	13.2	17.4	20.8	24.5	26.6	23.4	18.1	12.4	6.4	14.8
Hakodate .....	0.4	1.2	4.4	10.7	14.9	18.3	22.6	25.4	22.2	16.7	9.7	3.2	12.5
Nemuro .....	-2.0	-2.3	0.8	6.7	10.7	13.8	18.1	20.9	18.7	14.1	7.8	1.7	9.1
Chichijima (Bonin) .....	20.6	20.4	21.5	23.7	25.8	28.7	31.0	30.6	30.3	28.8	25.8	22.4	25.8

Table 13. Mean Daily Minimum Temperature of Air

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku .....	12.3	11.9	13.9	17.3	20.6	22.9	24.3	24.2	22.7	19.7	16.7	13.9	18.4
Fukuoka .....	0.9	0.8	3.1	7.4	11.5	17.1	22.2	22.5	18.3	10.7	6.3	2.6	10.3
Kagoshima .....	2.6	2.9	5.9	10.8	14.4	18.9	22.7	23.3	20.6	14.6	9.0	4.3	12.5
Hiroshima .....	-0.2	0.0	2.4	7.6	12.0	17.4	22.0	22.9	18.8	11.8	6.1	1.7	10.2
Osaka .....	0.4	0.4	2.9	8.3	12.8	18.0	22.8	23.5	19.6	12.7	7.0	2.5	10.9
Nagoya .....	-1.1	-0.8	1.9	7.6	12.1	17.2	21.8	22.6	18.9	11.8	5.6	0.9	9.9
Kanazawa .....	-0.5	-0.9	1.3	6.1	10.8	15.9	20.5	21.5	17.7	11.4	6.1	1.9	9.3
Tokyo .....	-1.4	-0.7	2.2	8.0	12.2	16.9	21.0	22.3	18.7	12.3	6.1	0.8	9.9
Niigata .....	-1.2	-1.4	0.9	6.1	10.9	15.9	20.6	22.1	17.9	11.7	6.1	1.3	9.2
Ishinomaki .....	-3.8	-3.4	-0.7	4.7	9.3	14.1	18.5	20.4	16.5	9.7	3.6	-1.1	7.3
Hakodate .....	-7.2	-7.0	-3.4	1.6	5.8	10.6	15.7	17.9	13.2	6.2	1.1	-4.1	4.2
Nemuro .....	-8.7	-9.7	-6.3	-0.5	2.9	6.6	11.0	14.2	12.1	6.9	0.8	-4.9	2.0
Chichijima (Bonin) .....	14.5	14.1	15.1	17.7	20.1	22.8	24.2	24.7	24.2	22.9	20.0	16.5	19.7



**Precipitation.**—During the cold season the northwesterly monsoon that comes from the Continent blows across the Japan Sea, where it takes up considerable quantities of moisture. This inflowing air current strikes the coast and is forced to ascend the slopes of the central mountain ranges running almost parallel to the coast. Due to the adiabatic cooling of this ascending moist air a considerable quantity of precipitation, especially in the form of snow, falls as long as the wind continues blowing. In consequence, during winter deep snow covers the ground in the districts facing the Japan Sea, i.e. from northern Kyushu to Hokkaido, especially the region extending from Kanazawa to Otaru. In the prefecture of Niigata, especially in the upper valley of the River Shinano, 10 to 20 feet of snow is the rule. In 1893 it measured 25 feet in Aoyagi village, Nakakubiki-gun, in that prefecture. The snowfall is also heavy in Hokkaido. Once a depth of 13 feet was recorded in Ebishima village, Ishikari province. In those snowy districts the drifts reach the eaves, so that the inhabitants make tunnels through them, or more generally live in the upper storey rooms, the street traffic being carried on the beaten track over the snow. As a drift frequently piles up to several feet in a single night, it baffles the operation of the Russel plough and railway trains are often held up for days. On the Pacific board, which is separated from the Japan Sea coast by the central mountain ranges, the northwesterly monsoon blowing as a descending current, the weather is mostly fair with the sky so clear and serene that not a speck of cloud dots it. Thus the winter weather along the Pacific and that along the Japan Sea board with high

Table 14. Amount of Precipitation (in mm.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku .....	87	133	181	168	226	287	230	298	241	122	67	72	2,112
Fukuoka .....	68	79	110	134	120	234	253	132	194	97	77	81	1,578
Kagoshima ...	82	99	157	217	211	394	288	189	223	125	94	85	2,163
Hiroshima ....	51	63	107	165	147	239	219	105	189	108	68	54	1,513
Osaka .....	46	57	97	136	126	188	154	107	180	127	79	50	1,347
Nagoya .....	54	67	116	155	159	210	189	164	245	152	88	57	1,655
Kanazawa ....	273	189	170	164	137	169	210	162	239	210	274	343	2,539
Tokyo .....	52	72	110	132	154	160	132	151	236	199	101	57	1,556
Niigata .....	188	126	110	104	88	117	166	120	182	164	196	223	1,783
Ishinomaki ...	40	50	73	94	112	114	123	118	161	124	67	43	1,118
Hakodate ....	64	60	67	70	83	90	132	134	172	118	108	78	1,176
Nemuro .....	38	28	57	76	93	91	98	109	143	102	87	58	978
Chichijima (Bonin) ....	95	85	111	126	201	130	94	159	142	149	150	133	1,576

ridges in between, are characterized by almost contrary phenomena. Only in the northeastern districts where the central ranges are not so high the loaded current from the Japan Sea is borne over to the Pacific coast, so that the region extending from Aomori to Sendai and Koriyama is mostly covered with snow all through the winter, though the district south of these latter cities is free from the precipitation.

**"Bai-u" or "Plum-rain."**—During the warm season the situation is quite different. Besides the general rainfall caused by the occasional visitation of cyclones and typhoons, a long spell of wet weather prevails from the second decade of June to the first decade of July. The rainy season is commonly known as "Bai-u" or "Plum-rain", as it occurs when the plums are getting ripe. This "Plum-rain" season begins earlier in the lower latitude and progresses to the higher latitude. Thus the Luchu Islands have the rainy season in May, while in North Chosen and Manchuria it occurs in July. The characteristic of the "Bai-u" lies not so much in the heaviness of rainfall as in the long spell of drizzling. Heavy precipitation in a short space of time mostly occurs with the visitation of typhoons in August and September, when torrential downpour of rain often causes the rivers to swell and overflow their banks. It is in these months that inundations and landslides frequently paralyze the railway service. In short, heavy precipitation takes place twice, in winter and summer, on the Japan Sea coast, and once, i.e. in summer, on the Pacific coast.

The following tables give the average monthly rainfall in mm. and the number of wet days:—

Table 15. Number of Days with Precipitation

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku .....	17	17	17	15	16	15	14	15	14	15	15	16	186
Fukuoka .....	16	15	15	14	12	15	14	11	14	11	12	16	166
Kagoshima ...	14	13	16	15	14	18	16	14	15	11	11	13	169
Hiroshima ....	11	10	13	13	11	13	13	10	14	9	9	10	136
Osaka .....	9	9	13	13	12	14	12	10	14	11	10	9	136
Nagoya .....	10	9	12	13	12	14	14	12	16	12	10	10	143
Kanazawa ....	27	23	21	15	14	15	15	12	17	18	21	25	223
Tokyo .....	7	8	13	14	14	15	14	12	16	14	10	7	145
Niigata .....	28	23	22	15	13	13	14	12	17	19	22	27	224
Ishinomaki ...	10	11	12	12	12	13	15	14	16	14	12	11	152
Hakodate ....	21	18	18	12	13	13	14	13	16	15	19	21	194
Nemuro .....	12	10	12	12	13	14	15	15	15	13	13	13	158
Chichijima (Bonin) ....	17	15	15	15	17	12	13	17	17	18	17	17	191

**Frost.**—The invasion of cold wind from the Asiatic continent often causes killing frost, which frequently inflicts heavy damage on young mulberry leaves, and hence to spring sericulture. The following is the record of late frost in various sericultural centres:—

Table 16. Frost

Districts	Average time	As occurred last
Nagoya .....	Apr. 14	May 13, 1902
Gifu .....	" 12	" 19, 1893
Matsumoto ....	May 13	" 29, 1921
Nagano .....	" 6	" 30, 1891
Maebashi .....	Apr. 19	" 13, 1902
Kumagai .....	" 16	" 16, 1917
Fukushima ....	May 5	" 25, 1895, 1912

**Humidity.**—Due to her geographical position the climate of Japan is very moist, and this fact is responsible for the southerly wind in summer that travels with the Black Current and the northerly wind in winter which blows with the Tsushima Current. For reasons already stated, Japan is one of the rainiest regions in the world, the average record of rainfall ranging from 700 m.m. in Karafuto and Northwestern Chosen, and 3,312 m.m. in Hachijo Island off the Izu Peninsula. In Southern and Northern Taiwan, the Luchu Is., and on the southeastern and Japan Sea coasts of Japan proper, it is generally above 2,000 m.m. In the middle part of the Inland Sea coast, the inland basins in Nagano and other prefectures, the gauge registers below 1,200 m.m. The Pacific coast of Northern Japan has generally little rain.

The following tables show the records of average humidity and average precipitation taken at principal observatories:—

Table 17. Average Humidity (Percent)

(taking saturation as 100)

Observatory	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Year	Min.
Taihoku .....	84	83	78	81	82	24
Kumamoto ..	77	76	82	78	78	18
Kanazawa ..	79	73	81	79	78	19
Osaka .....	71	72	77	76	74	16
Nagoya .....	75	72	79	78	76	21
Tokyo .....	63	73	83	79	74	7
Matsumoto ..	78	70	80	82	77	13
Niigata .....	81	75	82	78	79	20
Hakodate ...	77	72	85	74	77	19
Sapporo .....	80	71	84	80	79	8
Fusan .....	51	67	83	64	66	5
Dairen .....	64	57	83	64	66	9

Table 18. Average Precipitation (m.m.)

Observatory	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Yearly total	Max. per day
Taihoku ...	87	168	230	122	2,112	359
Kumamoto .	60	164	294	102	1,768	298
Kanazawa .	273	184	210	210	2,539	156
Osaka .....	46	136	154	127	1,347	175
Nagoya ....	54	155	189	152	1,655	240
Tokyo .....	52	132	132	199	1,556	194
Matsumoto .	42	89	131	111	1,110	156
Niigata ....	188	104	166	164	1,783	133
Hakodate ..	64	70	132	118	1,176	147
Sapporo ...	85	56	86	110	1,042	124
Fusan .....	48	144	306	69	1,433	251
Dairen ....	11	24	169	26	610	190

As a natural consequence of the heavy precipitation of rain or snow, the number of sunny days is comparatively small. Rain or snow claims 150 days on an average, the remaining 215 days being fair. Thus Japan may approximately be said to have, in a year, 4 sunny days for every 3 days of rain or snow. The Pescadores (94.5 days) and Kamo (245.3 days) are the two extremes. In Chosen and Western Taiwan wet days do not exceed 120 while in Japan Proper they seldom fall below the figures. The Japan Sea board of Honshu and the Luchu, Bonin and



having about 150 species, a majority of which are almost or quite identical with those of the adjacent land and islands.

Reptiles and amphibians are extremely scanty, and only 6 species are known, of which *Bufo sachaliensis* and *Hynobius cristatus* are considered as endemic.

Of butterflies about 74 species and sub-species are found in the island, most of them being representative of the forms limited, in distribution, to the north of the Soya Strait, such as *Melitoea matura intermedia*, *Argynnis amathusia miyake*, *Lycaena karaftonis*, etc. The land snail, *Karafutohelix fascina*, is common.

**Hokkaido.**—In mammals, the island appears to be less rich, having only about 25 species, of which more than a half are related to those of Saghalien and the Continent, either as identical or allied species. Amongst them, the species common to the districts just mentioned are Pallas' ground squirrel (*Eutamias asiaticus*), Siberian ermine (*Mustella erminea kanei*), sable (*Martes sibirica*) and others, which are not found in Honshu.

Turning to birds we find an enormous number of species which are quite identical with, or closely allied to, those found in Saghalien and on the Continent. The species considered as peculiar are Yezo-ptarmigan (*Sittiparus varius*, *Dryobates leucotos subcirris*, *Lynx torquilla hokkaidi*, etc.).

With reptiles the case is different, because the number of the species which may be considered as those with southern affinities appears to exceed that of Eurasian types. Amphibians are represented by *Bufo vulgaris hokkaidoensis*, *Rana temporaria* and *Hynobius retardatus*, etc.

Passing on to the insect fauna, we find a large number of species which also inhabit Saghalien and Amurland. Of butterflies we have several species of Eurasian character. Frequently to be met with are such land snails as *Acusta gainesi*, *Eulota blakei*, *E. septentrionalis*.

**Chosen (Korea).**—In the Korean Peninsula the fauna belongs decidedly to the Palaearctic region but with a small number of Oriental types.

Of mammals it possesses more than 50 species, of which about a half are identical with those found in China, Siberia and other adjacent districts. The species and sub-species which are considered as peculiar are numerous, comprising the Korean hare (*Lepus coreanus*), Korean wolf (*Canis lupus coreanus*), Korean red fox (*Vulpes peculiosus*), Korean badger (*Meles melanogenys*), tiger (*Felis tigris coreansis*), etc.

Of birds we are now acquainted with more than 300 species and sub-species, of which the majority are almost or quite identical with those of the Continent. Recorded from the peninsula are about 16 species of reptiles, most of which are not discovered in Japan Proper. Coming to amphibians we find many species which are known to occur on the adjacent mainland. Characteristic species are *Cacopoides tornieri*, *Rana temporaria koreana*, *Hynobius leechii*, etc. Dwelling in the peninsula is found a large number of butterflies, most of which also inhabit the immediately surrounding countries. Intermingled with them are seen such Oriental types as *Papilio protenor demetrius*, *Hestina assimilis*, etc.

Freshwater bivalves are represented by *Cristaria parvula*, *Anodonta woodiana*, etc., and the land snails by *Strobulops hirasei*, *Eulota orientalis* and others.

**Japan Proper.**—The majority of animals in this region are related to those of the two Palaearctic sub-regions, though a small number are of an Oriental character.

Of mammals there are more than 60 species which are invariably confined to the south of the Tsugaru Strait. Recently specified as "protected" is the racoon dog (*Nyctereutes viverrinus*) which, with other species of this genus, is the most typical representative of the animals characteristic of the East Asian sub-region. The birds ascertained to inhabit the islands reach an enormous number, a part of them being represented by forms widely distributed in China and Korea. The number of species and sub-species which appear to be peculiar are 6 in Kyushu and 17 in Honshu. One of the most notable species is the Japanese ptarmigan (*Lagopus mutus japonicus*) with habitat in the Japan Alps at the snow line. Recently specified as "natural monuments" or "protected" are some birds, which comprise, besides the Japanese ptarmigan, the cranes (*Megalornis monachus*, *Pseudogeranus vipio*, *Sarcogeranus leucogeranus*, *Anthropoides virgo*, etc.), the Japanese stork (*Ciconia ciconia boyciana*), black-tailed gull (*Larus crassirostris*), swans (*Cygnus cygnus*), long-tailed fowl, the Chinese magpie (*Pica pica sesiacae*) and the Japanese shearwater (*Puffinus leucomelas*).

Reptiles represent about 13 species, most of them being related to those of Chosen and chiefly inhabiting the southern region. The endemic species are *Achalinus spinalis*, *Dinodon orientale*, *Amyda japonica*, etc. We are acquainted with about 13 species of frogs and toads which, with the exception of an Oriental type, seem to be

**Fauna**

So far as is known at present, the approximate number of species of some principal animal groups is as follows:—

Mammals, 270; Birds, 800; Reptiles, 110; Amphibians, 80; Fishes, 2,500; Insects, 10,500; Mollusca, 4,000.

**Land Fauna**

The land fauna of Japan may be divided into two principal groups, one Palaearctic, and the other Oriental. Of these, the Palaearctic elements are chiefly found in the northern territories, while the Oriental ones range over the islands of Taiwan (Formosa) and Ryukyu (Luchu). The Japanese archipelago may, therefore, be divided into the following faunal areas:—

1. Palaearctic region: (a) Eurasian sub-region, consisting of the Kurile group and Saghalien; (b) East Asian sub-region, including Chosen (Korea) and Japan Proper, the latter consisting of Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu.
2. Oriental region, comprising the islands of Taiwan (Formosa) and Ryukyu (Luchu).

**The Kurile Group.**—Of about 22 species of animals known in this group, two appear to be endemic and are spread over the two northern sub-groups, namely, the Kurile field vole (*Microtus uchidaei*) and the Kurile mouse (*Mus kurilensis*). The birds observed in the islands are much less in number than those of Hokkaido and apparently less peculiar. This is also true of reptiles and amphibians. There is a radical difference between the sub-region of islands not very far removed from each other. Beyond doubt, the northern sub-group zoo-geographically belongs to Kamchatka, and the southern to Hokkaido. Of land snails, *Zonitoides chishimanus* and *Karafutohelix urupensis* are the endemic species, the former being the smallest species of the land snails.

**Karafuto (Saghalien).**—Of about 30 species of mammals known in the island, 13 are identical with those of Amurland and these remain in the island without making their way to Hokkaido. The long-tailed mouse (*Sicista caudata*) is supposed to be the sole species in existence found nowhere else. The Schrenck's fox (*Vulpes anadylensis schrencki*) furnishes a very valuable quality of fur, and this has led to the establishment of breeding farms with imported foxes.

Some additional light may be thrown upon this subject by the avifauna which is less rich,

Kurile Islands have more than 200 wet days. In the first-named region gloomy weather prevails in winter months (Nov. to Feb.) and over 23 days of the month are rainy or snowy.

Japan has two wettest seasons, one from the middle of June to the beginning of July, and the other from the beginning of September to October. The former called "bai-u" or "tsu-yu" as mentioned before is especially marked on the Pacific coast of Southern Japan, due to the appearance of low pressure areas in the Yangtze valley of China which travels north-eastward. It occasions a long spell of drizzling rain. The latter is caused by the low atmospheric pressure that originates from the South Seas and is characterised by heavy precipitation.

Table 19. Average No. of Wet Days

Observatory	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Yearly total
Taihoku . . . . .	17	15	14	15	186
Kumamoto . . . . .	12	14	16	10	153
Osaka . . . . .	9	13	12	11	136
Nagoya . . . . .	10	13	14	12	143
Tokyo . . . . .	7	14	14	14	145
Matsumoto . . . . .	11	12	16	12	145
Kanazawa . . . . .	27	15	15	18	223
Niigata . . . . .	28	15	14	19	224
Hakodate . . . . .	21	12	14	15	194
Sapporo . . . . .	20	13	13	17	195
Fusan . . . . .	6	10	14	7	105
Dairen . . . . .	4	5	11	6	77

**The Aerological Observatory at Tateno.**—The aerological observatory established in 1929 at Tateno in Miyazaki prefecture (Kyushu) at the cost of approximately ¥25,000, is the only one of the kind in Japan. The observatory exchanges communications as to daily meteorological phenomenon with the Central Meteorological Observatory (Tokyo) and the meteorological stations at Kumagai (Saitama pref.), Nagano, Osaka, Kobe, Hiroshima, Fukuoka, Jinsen (Chemulpo), Heijo (Phongyang), Nawa (Luchu), Saipan (South Sea Islands), and other places.

**FAUNA AND FLORA**

Japan is very rich in fauna and flora, for three reasons, i.e. (1) the land is very much elongated from north to south, (2) the coasts are highly indented, and (3) there are many high mountains. Species found in the northern parts of Japan, i.e. Karafuto (Saghalien), Chishima (Kuriles), and Hokkaido, and Chosen (Korea) have much in common with those of Manchuria, Siberia and Europe, while the southern parts, i.e. Taiwan (Formosa), Ryukyu (Luchu Islands) and Ogasawara (Bonin Islands) compare with South China, Oceania and India.



of a Palaearctic character. The urodeles, the majority of which are considered as peculiar, are represented by *Hynobius nebulosus*, *H. stejnegeri*, *Onychodaetylus japonicus*, etc. Most noteworthy is the giant salamander (*Megalobatrachus japonicus*) which inhabits the cool mountain streams of provinces in Honshu and Kyushu. Intermingled here are found a large number of insects which are of three different characters, Eurasian, East Asian and Oriental. The so-called alpine species inhabit the high mountain districts of central Honshu, these being represented by *Aporia hippia japonica*, *Erebia Ligea takanonis*, *Oeneis jutta japonica*, etc. The mollusca are very abundant and varied. The freshwater bivalves and land snails of the endemic species very frequently met with are *Hyliopsis schlegeleri*, *Cristaria spatiosa*, *Margaritana margaritifera*, etc., and *Eulota senckenbergiana*, *E. quacsita*, *Megalophaedusa martensi*, etc.

**Taiwan (Formosa).**—The mammals so far discovered are more than 60 in number, while the species which appear to be peculiar to the island number 45, the majority of them being considered only varieties of the species found in the Oriental and Palaearctic regions. The species not found anywhere outside of the island are Formosa flying fox (*Pteropus formosus*), Formosa macaque (*Paradozurus larvatus*), etc. The squamata are represented by a single ant-eater (*Mains pentadactyla*).

Of birds we find more than 330 species and sub-species, of which 33 are common to the island, China and the Philippines, and about 87 belong to peculiar forms. One of the most notable species is the Mikado pheasant (*Neocalophasis mikado*) which lives in the central and eastern mountainous parts, 6,000-9,000 feet above the sea level. More than 65 species of reptiles and amphibians are known to inhabit the island, and very frequently to be met with is *Trimacrusurus gramineus*, a poisonous snake, which is of an almost uniform green colour and widely distributed in tropical districts.

The insect fauna is exceedingly rich and varied. We are acquainted with about 319 forms of butterflies, most of which are known from the tropical countries.

Of freshwater bivalves and land snails we find such species as *Corbicula maxima*, *C. fulmenea* and *Dolichculota formosensis*, *Formosana taiwanica*, *Tortaxis matsudai*, etc.

**The Ryukyu (Luchu) Group.**—The animal forms of this group are of two different characters, Oriental and Palearctic, the former types considerably exceeding the latter in number,

About 36 species of mammals have been recorded, the most notable being Ishigaki great leaf-nosed bat (*Hipposideros turpis*) in the Ishigakishima sub-group and Amami hare (*Pentalagus furnessi*) in the Amami-Oshima.

Of birds, the species which appear to be peculiar number 11 in the Sakishima, 6 in the Okinawa and 8 in the Amami-Oshima sub-group. The most notable species are Pryer's wood-pecker (*Sapheopipo moguchii*), Lidth's jay (*Lalocitta lidthi*), the latter furnishing beautiful feathers for ladies' hats and now specified as "protected." The reptilian fauna is very rich, having 30 species, of which one-third is the same as those found in the Oriental region, and the rest are those not found elsewhere. About 15 species of amphibians are known, characteristic forms being *Bombina holsti*, *Rhacophorus owstoni*, *Babina subpersa*, etc. The land snails are rich, peculiar ones being *Cylophorus hirasei*, *Japonia barbata*, *Ganesella largillierti adelinae*, and many species of *Luchuphaedusa*.

**The Ogasawara (Bonin) Group.**—This oceanic island group, together with the Sulphur group, shows tropical features in its fauna. The most remarkable of mammals is Bonin flying fox (*Pteropus pselaphon*) which flourishes here. One of the most notable features of the fauna of this island group is the fair abundance of birds. The endemic species in the group are *Horornis cantans diphone*, Bonin-island Bulbul (*Microscelis amaurotis squamiceps*), etc., and those in the Sulphur group, Sulphur-island white eye (*Uosterops palpebrosus alani*), Sulphur-island crane (*Poliolimnaea cinereus brevipes*), etc. *Cryptobrepharus boutonii* is the only one representative of reptiles found in the Bonins. The endemic genera of mollusca are of *Hirasea*, *Mandarina*, *Otesia*, *Fametesta*, etc.

#### Marine Fauna

Japanese waters command a very rich and varied marine fauna, there being found two types of animal life, the Indo-Pacific region and Northern region.

**1. Northern Zone.**—It extends from the shore of the Kurile group to the north of Kinkasan. Amongst the carnivorous mammals the sea-otter (*Enhydra lutris*) is confined to the north of Hokkaido, while the Stellar's sea-lion (*Eumetopias jubata*) and several seals (*Phaco vitulina*, etc.) frequent the more southern waters. The northern fur-seal (*Callorhynchus ursinus*) which is of economic importance particularly abounds in Kaihyo-to. We find three whalebone whales, such as the southern right whale (*Balaena gla-*

*cialis*), Arctic right whale (*Balaena mysticetus*) and Californian gray whale (*Rhachianectus galucus*). Around the Kuriles, Hokkaido and Saghalien are found in immense quantity a great variety of fishes such as cods, salmon and herrings, which are of the same greatest economic importance as in Norway, Scotland and other countries. Much less developed here than in the tropics are a number of echinoderms. Amongst sea-cucumbers, *Sticopus japonicus* and *Cucumaria japonica* are of great economic value in this country. In the sea ranging from the Behring Sea to the Japan Sea occurs *Paralithodes camtschatica* which attains a very large size and is of great economic importance. A large number of mollusca are also known from this district, the most valuable species being *Ostrea gigas*, *Maetra sachalinensis*, *Pecten yessoensis*, *Ommastrephes sloani pacificus*, etc.

**2. Middle Zone.**—Most of the types characteristically Japanese belong to this zone. Some whalebone whales may be recorded which are of great economic importance. As principal species of fishes, the abundance of which distinguishes this zone from the others, may be counted *Cynias manazo*, *Hyporhamphus safori*, *Apogon semilineatus*, *Halichoeres poecilopterus*, etc. Echinoderms are plentiful, they comprising a number of interesting species.

Of crustaceans, the most notable is the giant crab *Macrocheira kaempferi*, which attains more than 3 meters in the extent of legs. Beside we find *Tachypleus tridentatus* in the inland sea of Seto and Ariake Sea. In the depth of the Tosa, the Kii and the Sagami Seas occur three species of *Pleurotomaria* which are of great interest on account of their representing a relic of the geological period. One of the notable cephalopods is an oegopsid, *Watasenia scintillans*, which emits luminosity. It appears abundantly in Toyama Bay, about May every year. Also in the deeper parts of the Pacific side, there are found *Hyalonema*, *Euplectella*, *Rhabdocalyptus* and other silicious sponges.

**3. Southern Zone.**—Exclusive of the hair-seal (*Zalophus lobatus*), occasionally appearing in this zone, there can be seen a few species of whalebone whales and toothed whales. Of fishes we find a number of forms which are all of great economic importance, and some forms are found to extend northward up to the middle zone. We also find a large number of species of mollusca, e.g. *Terabra*, *Conus*, *Cyprea*, *Strombus*, *Tridaena Hippopus*, *Pteria* and others.

**Noted Specialists.**—C. Ishikawa, D. Sci., (d. 1935) A. Oka, D. Sci. (for Hirudinae), N. Yatsu,

D. Sci., S. Hatai, D. Sci., C. Sasaki, D. Sci., (Entomologist), M. Matsumura, D. S., (Entomologist), T. Komai, T. Kawamura, D. Sci., H. Oshima, D. Sci., (for Echinoderms), S. Uchida (Ornithologist), H. Kishida (for mammals).

**Principal Societies and Publishing Organs.**—Zoological Magazine (in Japanese); Annotations Zoologicae Japonensis (in foreign language) issued by Zoological Society of Japan (Tokyo); Insecta Matsumurana (Sapporo); The Magazine of Applied Zoology (in Japanese) (Tokyo); Annotations Ornithologicae Orientalis (Tokyo); Bulletin of the Bio-geographical Society of Japan issued by Bio-geographical Society of Japan (Tokyo); Japanese Journal of Zoology (Tokyo); Tori or "Birds" (in Japanese) (Tokyo); The Venus (in Japanese) by Malucological Society of Japan (Kyoto); Folia Anatomica Japonica (Tokyo); Zephyrus (in Japanese) issued by Chōrui Dōkōkwaï (Fukuoka); Konchū or "Insects" (in Japanese) issued by Tokyo Entomological Society (Tokyo).

#### Flora

Owing to the peculiar topographical condition, the flora of the Japanese Empire consists of several distinct groups, and at present nearly 10,000 flowering plants and ferns are known, with possibility of new additions through further study. In point of fact no small number of new genera have already been established by Japanese botanists, and of these may be mentioned *Taiwania*, *Hoyata* (Conifer), *Chosenia*, *Nakai* (*Salicaceae*), *Hanabusaya*, *Nakai* (*Campnoplacae*), *Mitrastemon*, *Makino* (*Rafflesiaceae*), *Hakonechloa*, *Makino* (*Gramineae*), *Matsumurella*, *Makino* (*Labiatae*), etc., etc. The name of Dr. T. Makino and Dr. T. Nakai stand out prominent as discoverers, the latter as specialist in Korean flora having enriched it with 190 genera and some 440 species and varieties, while the former, who chiefly devoted himself to the main island, is responsible for some new genera and several hundreds of new species.

In 1929 a remarkable genera *Japanolilion* was established by Dr. T. Nakai, represented only by *J. Osense* found at Ose in Nikko. It is a small preinal weed. Another striking discovery is that of two new species belonging to family *Podostemonaceae* in Kyushu by S. Imamura. None of this family had been found in Japan up to this discovery in 1927. Many new lichens both new to Japan and to science are enriching the lichen flora through Dr. Asahina's discoveries. Japan is rich in bamboos with over



60 species and a number of new species still coming to the light, most of them belonging to new genera which are indigenous to Japan. Merit in this direction is due to Dr. T. Makino.

So far as known the flora of Japan consists of about 17,087 species classified as follows:—

Table 20. Flora Species

Flowering plants .....	About 9,000	species
Ferns .....	700	"
Moss and Hepatic .....	2,000	"
Mushrooms .....	3,500	"
Lichens .....	700	"
Sea-weeds (marine algae) ..	691	"
Fresh-water algae .....	323	"
Slime molds (Mycetozoa) ..	173	"

Speaking of some common familiar plants there grow in Japan some 130 species and varieties of violets, according to Dr. T. Nakai. About 30 species of primroses are known to grow in the alpine districts. *Primula Sieboldii* is growing wild even near Tokyo and is "protected." *P. japonica* was introduced into England as early as 1863 and was called "Queen of Primrose" by Robert Fortune.

Trees and shrubs number over 600 species. To mention those that are noted for ornament, or use, or both, there are Japanese mountain cherries growing wild everywhere, of which *Prunus serrata* var. *spontanea* is most common. In high altitude are found *P. nipponica*, *P. Maximoviczii*, *P. incisa*, etc., the last mentioned growing abundantly at the foot of Mt. Fuji and flowering in May. Of conifers we have *Cryptomeria japonica* and *Chamaecyparis obtusa*, two of the most important timber and ornamental trees; then among the Pinus may be mentioned *P. Thunbergii* and *P. densiflora*. The quercus family is represented by nine important species, while of Rhododendron (*Azalea*) Japan boasts about 50 species with garden varieties numbering several hundreds. *R. Komiyamae* is a new addition recently found near Mt. Fuji. An interesting species belonging to this family is *Teusiophyllum Tanakae*, *Maximovicz* that grows on mountain rocks at some limited locali-

ties in Middle Japan; it is a dwarfish tree with scaly green leaves and white tubeshaped flowers. As regards Willows our salicologists say that the final enumeration as of existing species should be reserved for the future, but so far some sixty species have been identified. Bamboos are counted by over 50 species in Japan Proper, exclusive of numerous garden varieties.

Timber trees extant number over 100, but those that are valuable for wood do not exceed thirty species or so (Vide Chapter on Forestry).

Ornamental plants, wild or cultivated, count about one hundred, according to the list prepared by the Garden Committee of the Meiji Shrine erected in Tokyo in 1920. The list includes 34 evergreen trees, 41 deciduous trees, 7 evergreen and 9 deciduous shrubs, and 10 herbs.

Special plants were first placed under protection of law in 1920, and 137 are now on the list.

**Noted Specialists.**—In Systematic botany there is a long list of distinguished men, as Dr. J. Matsumura, Dr. T. Makino, Dr. Yabe (noted for his South Manchuria and North China flora), Dr. B. Hayata (for Formosan flora), Dr. T. Nakai (for Korean and Japanese flora), Dr. Y. Kudo (for Hokkaido flora), Dr. K. Miyabe (for Hokkaido and South Saghalien flora), Dr. M. Honda (for grasses), Dr. K. Okamura (specializing in marine algae), Dr. S. Okamura, Y. Horikawa (in mosses and liverwort), Dr. S. Kawamura (fungi), Drs. R. Nakazawa and K. Saito (yeasts), Mr. K. Minakata (slime molds), Dr. Y. Asahina (lichens). (Dr. J. Matsumura died in 1928 and Dr. B. Hayata in 1934).

Pathology is represented by Drs. K. Miyabe, K. Shirai, and M. Hori; Phylogeny by Dr. S. Ikeno; Cytology and Anatomy by Dr. K. Fujii, Dr. Y. Kuwata, etc.; Physiology by Drs. K. Shibata, H. Kooriba, H. Hattori and S. Kusano.

**Publishing Organs.**—Publishing organs consist of the Imperial University Bulletin, the Tokyo Botanical Magazine, the Japanese Journal of Botany by Dr. Fujii, and the Journal of Japanese Botany, the last named edited by Dr. T. Makino.

References: Tables 1 & 2—Nippon Teikoku Tokei Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual), 1935. Tables 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 1, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19—Rika Nempyo (Official Statistical Annual of Physics), 1936. Table 20—Researches of the Botanical Garden of Tokyo.

## CHAPTER II

### OUTLINE OF HISTORY

**Mythical Period.**—The "age of gods" preceding the accession of the first Emperor Jimmu Tenno is, like the corresponding period in Greek history, made up of strange tales of the gods and demi-gods. In this age flourished the Sun-Goddess, or Amaterasu O-mikami, enshrined in the Great Shrine of Ise, her brother the impetuous Susanoo-no-Mikoto to whom the Great Shrine of Izumo is dedicated, and all the host of "milliard deities."

**Legendary Period.**—From the accession of the Emperor Jimmu Tenno (660 B.C.) to about the reign of Yuryaku Tenno (456-479 A.D.), the Imperial House was chiefly employed, according to the time-honoured legends and traditions, in subjugating the northeastern region still held by the earlier inhabitants, namely the Ainu, and Kyushu which was probably in close touch with the ancient kingdoms in the Korean Peninsula. In the dim light of this prehistoric period move such heroic figures as Yamatotakeru-no-Mikoto who was sent to subjugate the regions in the north and the south, while the name of the Empress Jingō (201-269 A.D.) stands conspicuous as the conqueror of the hostile Korean kingdoms. Her grand counsellor, Takenouchi-no-Sukune, is a Japanese Methuselah, being recorded to have attained the age of 300.

**Introduction of Buddhism.**—We begin to tread on surer ground from the reign of Kimmei Tenno (539-571 A.D.) when, with the introduction of Buddhism and Chinese classics through Korea, Japan gradually advanced towards civilization through contact with the more enlightened Korea, and through her with China. The arrival of this exotic religion occasioned a fierce internal discord between the rival clans of the Moriya and the Soga, and the latter, which was in favour of adopting it, came out triumphant. The Soga family assumed the real power of the country, assassinated an Emperor who was unfriendly to them, and through their encouragement and that of Prince Shotoku, Buddhism spread both in the Court and among the masses. This caused a marked rise of Japanese art, principally of a religious character, especially in the reign of Empress Suiko (592-628 A.D.), the first female monarch in Japan. The Horyuji temple in Yamato, built more than 1300 years ago is one

of the temples erected at that time. In 607 A.D. Japan first sent an embassy to China, then under the Tung dynasty. The arrogance of the Soga family invited their downfall in the reign of Tenji Tenno (661-671), who, before accession to the Throne, had headed the faction that destroyed the family. The Court then recovered its supreme authority. Meanwhile Yezo (present Hokkaido) was subdued and the victorious arm was even extended to northern Manchuria. On the other hand, Japan lost the suzerainty over Korea. The reign of Kotoku Tenno (645-654), the predecessor of Tenji, is remarkable for having thoroughly remodelled the administrative system on that of China, and introduced the Chinese custom "year name." Gemmyo Tenno (707-715), the 5th Empress, removed the seat of the Court, which had been shifting its seat from one place to another, to Nara, where for about seventy years art and culture burst into splendour seldom equalled in some respects, as may be judged from the treasures, over 300 articles in all, kept in the storehouse of the Shoso-in Temple at Nara, and comprising the articles that were used by Shomu Tenno (724-749) and presented to the temple after his death in 756. The first Japanese book extant "Kojiki", and first Japanese anthology, "Man-nyo-Shu," were the production of the Nara Period (710-793). Buddhism retained its greater influence over the Court to such an extent that an infatuated Empress Koken Tenno (749-758) even contemplated elevating her favourite monk Dōkyō to the Throne, though from this fate Japan was saved by the fearless opposition of Wake-no-Kiyomaro.

**Court of Kyoto.**—Established as the Imperial Capital in 794 A.D. Kyoto was the centre of power and culture for about 400 years till 1192 when Minamoto-Yoritomo established at Kamakura the Shogunate government, and reduced the position of the Imperial city to one of nominal importance. Meanwhile the actual power at the Imperial Court had passed to the ministerial family of Fujiwara which was founded by Kama-tari, Tenji Tenno's righthand man in the plot against the Soga family. Art and literature made a striking development. The Court gave itself up to the refined amusement, leaving the



sterner duty of maintaining peace to warrior classes, of which the Taira or Heike, and the Minamoto or Genji family came to the front. The period witnessed the invention of the "kana" scripts, an innovation of immense educational importance as it helped the spread of learning among the people, and made possible the appearance of such classics as "Genji Monogatari" by Murasaki-Shikibu, "Makura-no-Soshi" by Sei-Shonagon, "Eiga-Monogatari" by Akazome-Emon, and others, all maids of honour. Kino-Tsurayuki who compiled another anthology "Kokin-Shu" furnished a model of the mixed style of Chinese characters and "kana" in his classic diary "Tosa-Nikki." The custom of sending students to China for study had already been discontinued.

The effeminacy of the ruling class at the Court was followed by the rise of the military family of the Heike which overthrew their rival the Genji and assumed the administrative authority as successors to the Fujiwaras. It proved a very short ascendancy of only about 20 years, for living amidst the enervating atmosphere of Kyoto the original warlike spirit was soon sapped, and the Heike fell an easy prey to the fierce attack of the rough and rude followers of the Genji who had been watching their opportunity in the provinces. The battles fought between the rival armies near Kobe, Yashima and Dannoura, furnish romantic chapters in the history of Japan.

**Kamakura Period (1185-1333).**—Yoritomo brought the whole of Japan under complete subjugation, not sparing even his own brother Yoshitsune who had destroyed the Heike clan. Around Kamakura grew up culture of a severer type agreeable to the simpler taste of the warrior classes. The power soon passed to the Hojo family from which came the wife of Yoritomo, and for about a century this humbler family wielded the supreme authority as Shikken, or Regents, to the boy Shoguns selected from among children of courtiers at Kyoto, and ruled the country in peace and prosperity. The era is memorable for the arrival first in 1274 and next in 1281 of the Mongol armada, which was, however, annihilated with the help of the "divine wind" or typhoon in modern parlance.

The Imperial Court that had long been chafing under the humiliating treatment of military rulers repeatedly attempted to recover its legitimate authority, and an abortive rising in 1221 resulted in the wholesale exile of the three retired Emperors. A similar attempt by Godaigo Tenno (1318-1339) fared no better at first, but by this

time the maladministration of the Hojo had very much alienated public support. Kusunoki-Masashige first raised the anti-Hojo banner near Kyoto and he was followed by Nitta-Yoshisada, and lastly Ashikaga-Takauji. Kamakura was sacked and taken by Nitta, and the Hojo regency ceased to exist. Emperor Godaigo, who had been exiled to Oki, reascended the Throne and the restoration of the Imperial power was consummated, but only for a short while. The courtiers and favourites claimed the lion's share in the distribution of the vast domains hitherto held by the Hojos, and there was only a little left to be given to those generals and their followers who at the cost of their lives and blood pulled down the Hojos. Takauji read the signs of the times, raised the banner of rebellion at Kamakura and set up one of the Imperial princes as his own Emperor. For half a century Japan had two Imperial Courts, the Southern Court, which was supported by the followers of the unfortunate Godaigo Tenno, and the Northern Court backed by the Ashikagas. Kusunoki, Nitta, Kitabatake, and others who remained faithful to the Southern Court were killed in one battle after another till the rival courts were fused in 1392 in the reign of Emperor Gokameyama.

**Ashikaga Shogunate (1338-1573).**—The rule of the Ashikaga shogunate established at Kyoto was never a strong one and the powerful barons in the provinces were practically left a free hand. As regards matters of taste and refinement, however, this period made a very valuable contribution to the history of civilization in Japan. Thus it was in the days of the 8th Shogun Ashikaga Yoshimasa (1435-90) that the art of tea ceremonial, the lyric drama called "No" and other arts were originated in this country. The period is also memorable for having revived trade with China, then under the Ming dynasty, and witnessed the visit of many Japanese artists to and learned priests from the opposite shores. Japanese freebooters also ventured out in their frail craft and spread terror along the coast of Korea and China. The arrival of the first Portuguese ship in 1543, of the Spaniards not long after, and of Francis Xavier, a Jesuit missionary in 1549 are noteworthy incidents in the history of the Empire.

For more than a century, from about the middle of the 15th century, a state of anarchy prevailed, the shogunate having completely lost its prestige. By force of arms and by crafty schemes all the ambitious barons were bent on annexing the domains of weaker neighbours. One of them, Oda-Nobunaga, of Owari, succeeded in subjugating all the neighbourhood, and the

way to Kyoto thus cleared, he was able to advance to the Imperial Capital, which must have been left in a state of utter desolation in consequence of repeated battles fought in and about it. His victorious troops conquered in the east and the west. In this expedition of territorial expansion Hideyoshi, one of his generals, who had entered his service as a mere menial retainer, distinguished himself over all the veteran generals of Nobunaga. When Nobunaga was killed by one of his generals Mitsuhide in 1582, Hideyoshi came back in a hurry, revenged his lord upon the traitor in a pitched battle fought near Kyoto, and by promptly forestalling all the other generals of the unfortunate Nobunaga, made himself the master of the grand edifice nearly completed by his chief.

Nobunaga had even adopted the policy of encouraging Christianity, chiefly in order to check the rampant tendency of the Buddhist priests against whom he had led a crusade. Tokugawa Iyeyasu, the lord of Mikawa, Totomi and Suruga, was an ally of Nobunaga, but with the assumption of power by Hideyoshi to the exclusion of Nobunaga's two sons, Iyeyasu adopted an attitude of neutrality, and then one of hostility when one of the two sons, for having aided with an enemy of Hideyoshi, fled to Iyeyasu. The latter took up the cause of the refugee, fought with the overwhelming host of Hideyoshi, and routed his advance army. Hideyoshi judged it wiser to win over Iyeyasu by peaceful means instead of by war, and the two houses were reconciled.

Hideyoshi brought the whole country under his sway, built a castle in Osaka, and then another at Momoyama, Fushimi, besides a magnificent mansion in Kyoto. His love of splendour and display was reflected in the art of this period, and painting, architecture and so forth developed a bold style.

Hideyoshi next turned his attention to the ambitious project of subduing China, and in 1592 the invading army landed in Korea. For seven years, with the interruption of three intervening years, the invaders routed the Koreans and their allies the Chinese army. The expedition, however, was rendered abortive by the death of Hideyoshi in 1598. The period of 236 years from the establishment of the Ashikaga Shogunate in Kyoto in 1338 to 1573 is called the Muromachi period and the subsequent period from 1574 to 1598 the Azuchi-Momoyama period.

**Tokugawa Shogunate (1600-1867).**—Iyeyasu was now the most powerful man, for Hideyoshi's son Hideyori at Osaka was still a minor. The jealousy of a number of the followers of Hide-

yoru brought about in 1600 the great battle of Sekigahara between them and Iyeyasu in which the two houses of Mori and Shimazu that sided with the former fared hard. Iyeyasu's victory further strengthened the position of the Tokugawa family, which then provoked war upon Osaka (Hideyori and his followers) and the latter fell in 1615.

Japan enjoyed on the whole peace and prosperity during the regime of the Tokugawa Shogunate that lasted over two centuries and a half. Christianity that had been tabooed by Hideyoshi was at first tolerated, and intercourse with foreign countries was encouraged. Thus in 1610 the Spaniards who were wrecked off the coast of Japan were sent to Mexico by a Japanese ship, while in 1613 Date-Masamune, the lord of Sendai, dispatched Hasekura-Rokuemon to Rome to inspect the state of affairs there. This liberal policy was soon superseded by one of prohibition owing to the rivalry between the Dutch and the Portuguese traders. The outbreak of the Christian rebellion at Amakusa (Kyushu) in 1637 was followed by a severer policy against Christianity and foreign commerce, exception being made only in favour of the Dutch and the Chinese. Japan remained secluded till Perry's mission came to demand the opening of the country to commerce.

Learning was encouraged by the Shogunate, chiefly to check the war-like propensities of the daimyos. Indirectly it fostered historical and literary research by our scholars and it is interesting to note these researches brought home to their mind the abnormal state into which the executive power of the country had fallen and especially to the encroachment of the military classes on the sovereignty of the Court. Meanwhile the extravagance of the successive Shoguns highly impaired their credit, while the arrival of foreign missions one after another in the early 19th century, demanding the conclusion of treaties of commerce, further tended to reveal their internal decay. Chiefly to gain time, the Shogunate applied to the Court at Kyoto for permission to open the country and thus involuntarily placed itself under the direction of the legitimate rulers. The Court then ordered the expulsion of the foreign missions. It was a highly irresponsible decision, but the Court had been long estranged from active politics and was moreover inclined to obstruct and annoy the Shogunate out of spite. It was in such peculiar circumstances that the sentiment of loyalty to the legitimate rulers became strangely associated with the anti-foreign policy, and gave rise to the "Sonno-joi" (loyalty to the Court and expulsion of foreigners) agitation, the slogan that



swept over the whole country at that time. But the foreign missions would no longer wait so that the senior counsellor of the Shogunate of the day, Ii-Kamon-no-Kami, signed tentative treaties in 1858, and for the resolute step he took he was assassinated by a band of the "sonno-joi" upholders. The bigoted and dangerous cause was considered sacred by the general public, and even such powerful daimyos as those of Choshu and Satsuma, who had a spite against the Tokugawa from one cause or another, tried to carry out the "Joi" order to the letter, and under slight provocation or none at all killed or injured foreigners or fired upon foreign warships. The Government was in utter dismay, for the foreign representatives made on every such occasion a strong demand for reparation. These repeated troubles were too great for the impotent Shogunate to settle, and at last Shogun Keiki, the last of the illustrious line, surrendered the vicarious power of ruling the country, for he was enlightened enough to perceive the trend of the times, and thus the Imperial Court recovered its full prerogative which had been kept in abeyance for about ten centuries. This memorable event was not consummated without some bloodshed, through an armed struggle, fortunately of short duration, between a section of the misguided partisans of the Tokugawa and the Imperial adherents.

Meanwhile those young patriots who had so zealously taken up the bigoted and dangerous cause were disillusioned due to the knowledge, though scanty, which they obtained either by staying abroad a short while, as Ito, Inouye and some others of the Choshu clan did, or by some indirect means. Their attitude was completely changed, for it now was "Learn of foreigners where they are strong and remedy our defects." By the time the Shogunate had fallen (1867) the "joi" agitation had practically disappeared. In fact most of the agitators were soon converted into radical reformers. This period which lasted about 270 years is called the Tokugawa or Edo period.

#### MODERN JAPAN

The 45 years of the Meiji period (1868-1912) will forever remain in the history of Japan as the most illustrious epoch in the development of the nation, besides supplying to the history of human progress a memorable chapter, teaching how a nation, even when placed under serious disadvantage, may, by dint of untiring diligence and patriotic endeavours and perseverance, suc-

ceed in pushing ahead the prosperity of the nation and in expanding its prestige and credit. Fifty years ago Japan was a terra incognita or at best a mere geographical name, but to-day she is a respected member of the great comity of nations.

The Meiji government was very fortunate in that it was guided from the outset by such able court nobles as Iwakura and Sanjo and by the younger samurai of progressive ideas and burning patriotism sent by the awakened feudal clans of Satsuma, Choshu, Tosa and Saga that were chiefly instrumental in overthrowing the Tokugawa shogunate. Among such young samurai were Yamagata, Okubo, Kido, Saigo, Itagaki, Soejima and Goto. It was fortunate, too, that they had sprung from comparatively humble ranks in their respective classes, for they had no particular compunction in doing away with old traditions and ancient manners. The first thing which they advised the boy Emperor, who was only 16 when he ascended the Throne, to do was to swear an oath of five articles and to proclaim it to the nation. It runs thus, "All governmental affairs shall be decided by public discussions; both rulers and ruled shall unite for the advancement of the national interests; all base customs of former times shall be abolished; knowledge shall be sought for far and wide; every one in the community shall be assisted to persevere in carrying out his will for all good purposes." The following year (1869) the Imperial Court was removed to Tokyo.

The task which these young Councillors of State had to undertake was really, herculean. First they had to reduce the internal administration to some kind of unity and order, and to this end they persuaded their feudal lords to follow the example of the Shogunate and to surrender their fiefs to the Court. The chieftains did not hesitate to comply and early in 1869 they, under joint signatures, memorialized the Court for permission to surrender their ancient trusts. All the other fiefs, for there were no less than 262 such principalities large and small throughout the land, exclusive of the Shogunate's domains, vied with each other in submitting similar memorials, so that in less than six months the whole territory was brought under the Imperial Government. No sooner was the centralization effected than grave troubles, both domestic and foreign, and these reacting upon one another, demanded the attention of the Government. The domestic troubles involved the country in a series of civil wars, as described later.

**Foreign Trouble.**—When the Imperial Government was restored, the news was duly conveyed to Korea with the purpose of causing the latter to send a congratulatory envoy as had been invariably done whenever a new Shogun was installed, but which courtesy had been neglected by Korea in the latter days of the Tokugawa Shogunate. While this question of Korean discourtesy was still pending the Iwakura mission started for the West in October 1871 with the object of having the one-sided Treaties of Commerce revised the following year, as expressly stated in the documents. When the mission returned in September 1873, honoured at most places but sincerely advised at a few others to effect first of all a thorough internal reform before approaching the Powers to revise the treaties, Iwakura, Okubo, Kido, Ito and others that formed the mission found their colleagues fully determined to send a punitive expedition to Korea, if the returning Ministers approved. The latter stoutly opposed the decision and the first serious split in the new Government was the result, Saigo, Soejima, Itagaki and other Ministers resigning office. The other foreign complications in which the new Government was involved were the expedition to Formosa in 1874 for chastising the natives who had murdered the shipwrecked fishermen of Luchu, for China had tried to disown responsibility on the ground that the island was outside her control; the protracted negotiation with Russia about the delimitation of boundary in Saghalien, resulting in the relinquishment of Japan's claim to the island in exchange for the absolute control of the Kuriles (Chishima Islands) in 1875; definite recognition by China, through President Grant's intercession, of Japan's right over Luchu which had been feudatory to the House of Shimazu (former feudal Lord of Satsuma) for centuries but which had secretly maintained a relation of vassalage to China.

**Civil Wars.**—The ministerial split of 1873 soon brought two civil wars as a sequel to the Korean question. The first broke out in 1874 at Saga under the ex-Minister of Justice Eto, but was fortunately suppressed in a few weeks, but the other that was started in February 1877 in Kagoshima by the faithful adherents of Saigo proved a rebellion of the gravest character, for it took some seven months before the Imperial Government could subdue the rebels who, led by men that held high offices in the Imperial army, offered desperate resistance. The rebellion was the most formidable crisis which the Meiji Government had to encounter at home, for since the memorable ministerial dissension the

whole country had been seething with discontent and Saigo, who was a simple-mannered soldier of strong personal magnetism, had numerous friends in many parts of the country ready to rise and take up his cause at the first opportunity. The rebellion served as an occasion for demonstrating most emphatically that the much despised sons of farmers, if properly disciplined, could make as good soldiers as the young samurai who formed the bulk of Saigo's army. There occurred minor uprisings shortly before Saigo's rebellion, at Kumamoto, Akitsuki and Hagi, but they were merely explosions of those who were roused to see the time-honoured manners and customs ruthlessly superseded by the foreign and "barbarous" ways. The suppression of the rebellion resulted in establishing on a firm basis the prestige of the Meiji Government and bringing the country into unity, but the cost paid for it was very dear, not only on account of the vast disbursements, over ¥40 millions, but in the loss of hundreds of men of uncommon ability and usefulness. The great Okubo was assassinated by a number of Saigo's adherents in the year following the subjugation of the Satsuma rebellion.

#### Administrative Reform and Political Agitation.

—The whole energy of the Government was now bent upon pushing industries and projects for promoting general prosperity, while at the same time steps were taken for reorganizing the administrative system after the Western pattern. It is interesting to note that the popular activity at this period was chiefly political and was aimed at the speedy establishment of representative government, and equally interesting is the fact that the movement was started by ex-civilian Ministers, such as Itagaki, Soejima and Goto, and it looked as if the Korean expeditionists had changed their tactics with the object of harassing their former colleagues in power. The agitation lasted with growing intensity till 1881 when an Imperial Edict promising the creation of a National Assembly ten years later was issued.

The opening of the Diet in 1890 occasioned between the Government and the Lower House prolonged contests that were bitter and fierce. The members returned were all serious politicians of strong conviction and staunch views who had staked all they had in promoting the cause of constitutional movement. They were most of them veterans in speech and debate, and completely out-argued cabinet ministers and their lieutenants on the platform, and outvoted them, too, for it was significant as a sign of the times that ministerial candidates were held



in utter contempt by the general public and had little chance of getting into the House. When the attempts made by the bureaucrats to form their own party in the House failed, they next adopted the conciliatory policy of admitting one or another leader of a predominant party into the Cabinet, but, of course, this paltering measure could not long keep the opposition in silence.

At last in 1898 the retiring Premier Ito (late Prince Hirobumi Ito) took a heroic step; he recommended Okuma and Itagaki, leaders of the amalgamated Opposition, as his successors. The result was the formation of the Okuma-Itagaki Ministry in which all the portfolios, with the exception of the army and navy, were held by leading party men. It was the first, though incomplete, party cabinet in Japan. Unfortunately the Cabinet was short-lived, for obsessed with a sense of security from the attack of the Opposition numerically quite contemptible, the followers of Okuma and those of Itagaki quarrelled over the division of the spoils of their combined victory. At last the Itagaki contingent struck their tents and withdrew, and thus the first party government collapsed miserably. From that time till the fall of the last bureaucratic ministry headed by Terauchi, Japanese politics was literally a game played by the bureaucrats, the *Saiyukai* and the *Kenseikai* (later reorganized and renamed as *Minseitō*) with the *Genrō* standing by as arbiters. (For details vide Chapter on Politics).

#### Revision of Treaties

It took about half a century before Japan succeeded in getting revised the one-sided treaties concluded by the Tokugawa Government in 1858, containing the humiliating clause of extra-territoriality and restriction of customs duty to the very low level of 5 per cent. This grave problem demanded of both Government and people most strenuous efforts, and it must be said that the natural though ambitious aspiration exerted a salutary influence in hastening the internal improvement, especially as regards judiciary, though thirty years of untiring investigations and deliberation had to pass before Japan could complete the condition of all the important laws on a Western model with the assistance of a number of foreign experts.

Between 1882 and 1892, when the treaty was revised first of all with Great Britain, the Foreign Office changed its Minister no less than five times, not only because of the strong oppo-

sition offered by the Treaty Powers to Japan's proposals but because, in its later stage when the substance of the draft had leaked out, public opinion began to object violently to the clause concerning the mixed tribunals with foreign judges as assessors, though this clause was gradually attenuated in the Okuma draft in its application and was intended at last to cover only the Supreme Court. Still the public agitation was by no means appeased; on the contrary, led by a section of those demagogues who had long training as agitators in upholding the constitution movement, the cry against the "mixed court" clause grew in intensity in the House and outside of it. These stalwarts declared that Japan could not submit to the humiliating treatment Egypt and some other semi-independent countries had; they were well contented to do without such shameful revision. At the same time they argued that Japan must guard her interest reserved by the existing treaties, especially about restrictions of freedom of residence and travel in the interior. They even passed a resolution to that effect in the House, the Diet having been inaugurated in the meanwhile, and it invited its dissolution. It was to the lasting credit of the late Count Mutsu that a revised treaty was signed at London in 1894, and the example set by Britain was soon followed by the United States and other countries, and Japan thus obtained a treaty for the first time on a basis of equality. However, it was not till 1911 that complete tariff autonomy was secured.

#### National Expansion

While Japan was bent upon the stupendous task of reorganizing her institutions on a Western model and introducing the important innovations of modern civilization, her two nearest neighbours, Korea and China, were still stubbornly wedded to their effete routine, refusing to open the countries to foreign intercourse and generally despising foreign ways. They were too haughty and self-important to perceive how greedily the aggressive Powers of the West were watching them, ready to pounce upon them at the first favourable opportunity. China was the worse sinner of the two as regards this attitude of apathy and defencelessness, for Korea, though an independent kingdom, contented herself with being a slavish imitator of her great neighbour, allowing the latter to assume the position of a suzerain. Japan concluded a treaty of commerce with Korea in 1876, for she wanted the latter to be sufficiently strong to protect herself against

foreign aggression. In Korea Japan stood for progress and China for reactionary interest; Korea herself was divided by two native rival factions which kept the country in interminable disturbances. These ceaseless troubles at last involved their two patrons in open war in 1894.

**Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895).**—Japan made short work of the enemy's resistance on land and sea, drove the Chinese troops from one position to another in Manchuria, and soon the way was open for her army to march on Peking. Another detachment, in co-operation with the fleet, reduced Weihaiwei in Shantung and moreover annihilated the once proud Northern fleet. China sued for peace, and the result was the Treaty of Shimonoseki concluded in April 1895, by which China agreed (1) to the complete independence of Korea; (2) to cede the Liaotung Peninsula and littoral and (3) Formosa and the Pescadores; (4) to pay an indemnity of 200 million taels, and also to open to commerce four inland ports and the Yangtze for navigation. The 2nd clause Japan was obliged to renounce owing to the pressure brought to bear upon her by Russia, Germany and France in the interest of the "peace of the Far East," and had to console herself with the 30 million taels paid extra by China. When Japan had conclusively shown that the once dreaded "sleeping lion" of China was really sickly, if not moribund, the Powers lost no time in offering their services to the humiliated China as honest brokers. True to their secret purpose, under one pretext after another, Germany established herself at Kiaochau, Russia in Manchuria, France got some lease and railway concession in the south, and even Britain, to preserve the balance of power, felt obliged to demand the lease of Weihaiwei, while Japan obtained from China the pledge of non-alienation of the Province of Fukien that lies opposite Formosa to any other Power.

**The Boxer Trouble (1899).**—All these successive intrusions made by the Powers on her rights and domain roused in 1899 the bitter anti-foreign agitations in China known as the Boxer Trouble. Japan in a hurry despatched the 5th Division, which formed the bulk of the allied army organized for rescuing the diplomatic and foreign communities besieged in Peking by the insurgents who killed the counsellor of the Japanese Legation and the German Minister. The trouble cost China 450 million taels in indemnity payable in instalment.

**Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905).**—Meanwhile Russia had been steadily gaining influence in Korea, for her subservient court, now that China

had lost prestige, began to lean upon the northern Power, leaving the special relation of Japan to the Peninsula utterly disregarded. With her basis of operation firmly established in Manchuria, Russia thought that she could defy Japan's protest and when Japan made a conciliatory offer, Russia replied with a highhanded counter offer, so that in spite of all the conventions and memoranda exchanged for defining the relative positions of the two in Korea, the relations between them became more and more strained, especially after Russia's occupation of Manchuria subsequent to the Boxer Trouble. And so in 1904, just ten years after the Sino-Japanese War, Japan was forced to draw her sword once more to defend her very existence and preserve the peace of the Far East.

The whole nation, except perhaps a handful of pacifists, went into this war as one man, with the grim resolution to conquer or to die, for all believed implicitly that on the issue of the war depended the very existence of the nation. On the other hand, to the *muzhiks* the war had no meaning; they could not understand why they should have to give their lives in fighting Japan. General Kropotkin, the unfortunate Commander-in-Chief in the disastrous battle of Mukden, must have thoroughly measured the fighting strength of the Japanese army when he visited our country a few years before the outbreak of the war, but evidently he did not take into full account this vital factor in the psychology of the two warring nations. Better equipped than their foe, strongly entrenched, the Russian army was dislodged from one position after another, lost Port Arthur, though after a heroic defence lasting for about six months, was routed in the great battle of Mukden, and when the Baltic fleet, after having effected with credit the weary voyage, was literally wiped off the face of the Japan Sea by Admiral Togo in May 1905, Russia decided to give up the hopeless war. The result was the Portsmouth Treaty signed by the representatives of the two hostile countries on the 5th September, 1905 through the mediation of President Roosevelt. Russia refused to pay any indemnity, but agreed to recognize Japan's supremacy in Korea, to hand over to Japan the lease of the Liaotung Peninsula and the South Manchuria Railway with the mining and other rights pertaining to it and to cede to her the southern half of Saghalien.

**Anglo-Japanese Alliance.**—It was in 1902, or a little before the Russo-Japanese war, when the attention of the European Powers was directed to the Far East, that Japan and Great Britain entered into an Agreement for Alliance, the two



parties mutually recognizing as well as safeguarding their own interests in China, and Britain admitting Japan's special position in Korea. In 1905 the Agreement was enlarged in scope and was replaced by a new stipulation designed to cover the maintenance of general peace in Eastern Asia and India; was further modified in 1911 and made effective till July, 1921. The dual compact on the whole worked with marked success, and while it greatly strengthened the position of Japan in the Far East, it enabled Britain to concentrate her fleet at home.

**Annexation of Korea.**—By virtue of the Portsmouth Treaty Japan proceeded to place Korea under her protection and this was followed in 1910 by the Treaty of Annexation, the year after the assassination of Prince Ito, the first Viceroy of Korea, at Harbin by a Korean fanatic.

#### Japan in International Politics

The two wars internationally raised the status of Japan; she was no longer obliged to appeal to the magnanimity of the Powers in guarding her interests and rights. The Powers were now willing to make advances and to seek her hand. They even began to watch her movements with jealous and suspicious eyes. Be that as it may, Japan's position was now sufficiently established to warrant the Powers with special interests in the Far East in entering into agreement with her for guaranteeing the general peace in this region, for maintaining the respective situations and territorial rights of the contracting parties, safeguarding the integrity of China and upholding the principle of equal opportunity and open door in that country. It is true such a covenant with Britain was concluded first in 1902, to be afterward expanded into an offensive and defensive alliance with certain restrictions, but those with France, Russia and America were arranged after the Russo-Japanese War. At the same time the United States and the British dominions of Canada and Australia began to place obstacles in the way of free immigration of Japanese labourers and to try to subject those already residing there to unfair treatment. This has given rise to a grave problem of racial discrimination, a question that has begun to arrest the serious attention of thinkers the world over in the interest of the general peace of the whole human race and of humanity.

**Demise of Emperor Meiji.**—On July 31, 1912, Meiji Tenno died before attaining his 60th

anniversary, but it may be said that his memorable reign was brought to a fitting close. His memory will forever be held in profound veneration by the people as one of the most illustrious sovereigns that have ever ruled over the country. With the immediate accession of his son Prince Yoshihito (Emperor Taisho) to the Throne began the new era of Taisho. The 45 years (1868-1912) are called the Meiji period.

#### The World War and Japan

When the World War broke out in 1914, it was a foregone conclusion that Japan should cast in her lot with the Allies, and so in August 1914 she declared war on Germany, and a few days later treaty relations with Austria-Hungary also ceased. In November the German fortress at Tsingtao was captured by the Japanese army in co-operation with the British contingent. This was followed by the occupation of the German possessions in the South Seas, the effective expulsion of German commerce raiding cruisers and the despatch of a Japanese fleet to the Mediterranean to assist the Allies in their naval activities.

When the hostilities came to an end in November, 1918, with the conclusion of the Armistice, the Peace Conference was held from January to June 1919, at which Japan was represented by five delegates including Marquis Saionji, Baron Makino and Viscount Chinda. By the terms of the Peace Treaty concluded on June 28th Japan acquired rights and privileges concerning Shantung, which she pledged herself to restore to China with all its rights, only keeping to herself the economic privileges that had once been granted to Germany. By virtue of the Peace Treaty and the League of Nations Covenant Japan was given a mandate over the German South Sea territories north of the equator, including the Marshall and Caroline Islands and the Island of Yap. Later, a controversy regarding Yap arose between Japan and the U.S.A. due to the latter's protest against the decisions in December, 1919 of the Supreme Council with regard to the assignment of mandatory territories, but the question was at length settled in September, 1921 before the opening of the Washington Conference, Japan recognizing the right of the U.S.A. and other countries to land the submarine cables on the Island. Another question that commanded keen interest at the Peace Conference was that of the abolition of racial discrimination as submitted by the Japanese delegates to the League of

Nations Committee, though Japan had to withdraw and reserve it for future discussion.

**Siberian Expedition (1918-22).**—The military expedition of Japan to Siberia was originally undertaken in common accord and in co-operation with the United States in August, 1918. It was primarily intended to render assistance to the Czecho-Slovak troops who, in their homeward journey across Siberia from European Russia, found themselves in grave and pressing danger at the hands of hostile forces under German command. Great Britain, France, Italy and China also joined the expedition and sent their troops to Vladivostok. The Allied forces fought their way from Vladivostok far into the region of the Amur and the Trans-Baikal Provinces to protect the railway lines which afforded the sole means of transportation of the Czecho-Slovak troops from the interior of Siberia to the part of Vladivostok.

With the termination of the World War England and France began to withdraw their troops from Siberia and the withdrawal of Italian and Chinese troops was also completed in 1920. In January, 1920, the United States decided to end her military undertaking in Siberia, and ordered the withdrawal of her forces. For some time thereafter, Japanese troops continued alone to perform the duty of guarding the Trans-Siberian Railways in fulfilment of Inter-Allied arrangements and of affording facilities to the returning Czecho-Slovaks. After the departure of the latter in September, 1920, Japan completed the evacuation of the Trans-Baikal and the Amur Provinces, but the protection of resident Japanese subjects in Eastern Siberia and the menace threatening the Korean frontier made it necessary for the Japanese troops to remain in North Manchuria and the southern portion of the Maritime Province up to October 25, 1922, when the last column of Japanese troops left Vladivostok and the evacuation was completed.

The affair has proved a costly one to Japan. Since August 18, 1918, when her troops first landed at Vladivostok, Japan had despatched in turn 11 divisions; the number of these troops amounted in November, 1918, to about 70,000 (including non-combatants) but this was soon reduced to 26,000 by the end of that year, to be further withdrawn thereafter. The total casualties numbered about 1,475 officers and men killed and over 10,000 wounded, besides 610 who fell victims to illness. The expenditure of the military operations that spread over five years drained the national coffers of about ¥700 millions.

**Occupation of Saghalien (1920-25).**—The occupation of the Russian Province of Saghalien by the Japanese army was in reprisal for the incident of 1920 at Nikolaievsk, where more than 700 Japanese were cruelly tortured and massacred, and was, therefore, wholly different, both in nature and in origin, from the stationing of troops in the Maritime Province. The occupation was effected early in July, 1920, and lasted for nearly five years.

On the establishment of the Soviet Government of Russia conferences were held between the representatives of the two Governments with a view to finding basic principles for solving the pending problems between Japan and Russia and restoring the former diplomatic relations. The first conference was held at Dairen in 1921, the second at Changchun in 1922, and the third in Tokyo in the summer of 1923. But each time the negotiations proved futile owing to the difficulty of reaching a satisfactory settlement of the Saghalien question. The fourth and final conference between the Japanese Minister in Peking (Yoshizawa) and the Ambassador (Karakhan) of the Soviet Government of Russia in Peking, that was opened in the summer of 1924, was satisfactorily concluded on January 20, 1925, and the treaty signed by the two plenipotentiaries received sanction by the Prince Regent on February 25. By the exchange of formal ratification of the treaty between the two plenipotentiaries in Peking the next day the restoration of diplomatic relations between the two countries was at last accomplished. The Japanese Army was promptly withdrawn from the occupied territory and the protracted trouble disturbing peace in this quarter of the globe was definitely settled.

**Washington Conference (1921-22).**—Japan's interest in this International Conference was far more vital than in the Peace Conference at Versailles, as it was held for the express purpose of limiting naval armament and discussing the Pacific problems with special reference to China. Japan was represented by Admiral Baron Kato, then Minister of the Navy in the Hara Cabinet, Prince Tokugawa, then President of the House of Peers, Baron Shidehara, Japanese Ambassador at Washington, and Mr. Hanihara, Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The Conference clarified the relations between Japan and other countries represented at the Conference table and, in particular, went far to remove the suspicions and misunderstandings entertained abroad regarding Japan's attitude towards China. (For further details vide Chapters dealing with the Navy and Diplomacy).



### The Dawn of New Era

His Majesty Yoshihito, the 123rd Emperor, passed away on December 25th, 1926, at the Imperial Villa at Hayama, and on the same day Crown Prince Hirohito ascended the Throne as the 124th sovereign of the Empire. According to the traditional custom of the Imperial House the late Majesty was given the posthumous title of Taisho Tenno, while the new era named Showa was adopted for the reign.

It was probably in conformity with the trend of the times that the two events of such supreme national importance (departure of an Emperor and accession of his successor) were officially proclaimed according to actual fact; the time-honoured custom could never have allowed their occurrence outside the Imperial Palace.

The enthronement of the new Emperor (His Majesty Hirohito) was officially celebrated at the ancient capital Kyoto in November, 1928, after lapse of one year's mourning over the demise of the departed Emperor according to the traditional custom, the national function being performed with the time-honoured State ceremonies which lasted for six days (Nov. 10 to 15). For the first time in the history of the Empire the Empress was also present at this grand function, the Throne for Her Majesty being erected by the side of that for the Emperor at the Shishinden Hall. This is a matter of great significance and is noteworthy as an event marking the formal recognition of the status of an Empress and her privilege to attend the grand State ceremonies with her Imperial consort. Formerly, the status of an Empress was not properly recognized but placed on a lower level under the social conditions that obtained in those days in this country.

Prior to this, namely, in March-September 1921, the Crown Prince made a journey to Europe to make observations and exchange courtesies with the sovereigns and rulers of European countries. It was an event unprecedented in the history of Japan, and was moreover an unqualified success in every respect. Then in November of the same year the Crown Prince was appointed Regent to undertake the conduct of State affairs in place of his Imperial father who was suffering from chronic illness and was incapacitated from attending to public duties. In the spring of 1924 the Crown Prince married Princess Naga-ko, first daughter of H.I.H. Prince Kuni. The Crown Prince's foreign tour was followed by that of his younger brother Prince Chichibu, 2nd Imperial son, who proceeded to England for study leaving Japan in May, 1925. He entered Oxford in October, 1926, which he

had to leave on learning that his father was critically ill and returned home in January 1927. Then, in the spring of 1930 Prince Takamatsu, younger brother of Prince Chichibu, accompanied by his consort Princess Kiku-ko, made an extensive tour of Europe visiting the British Court on Imperial mission and also the Courts of other European countries, returning home in the spring of 1931 by way of America.

### The Manchurian Incident

The continuous abuse which China has perpetrated upon Japan in violation of Japan's treaty rights and by means of fanatic outbursts against Japan, especially since the latter part of 1930, has compelled Japan to take drastic measures in Manchuria for the express purpose of safeguarding her treaty rights and special interests in the region as well as protecting the lives and properties of Japanese residents there, including a large number of Koreans. Finally, the destruction by Chinese troops, who were regular troops of the Mukden army, of the South Manchuria Railway track in the vicinity of Mukden in September, 1931, compelled the Japanese army stationed in Manchuria to take proper steps against the challenge of the Chinese to put an end to the constant menace to peace and order in Manchuria and for the protection of Japan's vested rights and interests in the region. This was the direct cause of the regrettable clash between the Japanese army and the Chinese troops in Manchuria which, together with the Shanghai incident which was a sequel to the Manchurian affair, has eventually occasioned an international trouble and a great deal of discussions in the diplomatic circles of the world particularly of those countries who are members of the League of Nations.

Because a majority of the member-states of the League refused to recognize Japan's rightful actions taken in her self-defence Japan was forced to decide on her withdrawal from the League of Nations of which she had been one of the most faithful member-states and co-operators from the beginning, and as such she had done her utmost in espousing the cause of its mission during the past thirteen years. This determination Japan carried out in March, 1933. It may be added that on the independence of Manchuria and the founding of the new state Manchoukuo and the establishment of an independent legitimate Government in Manchuria Japan recognized the new State and concluded a protocol with the Manchoukuo Government shouldering upon herself the task of attending

to the defence of the newly arisen state jointly with that country. (For details see Chapter on Diplomacy).

### Manchoukuo Emperor's Visit to Japan

A new chapter in the history of Japan was opened in the spring of 1935 when she was visited by the Manchoukuo Emperor as it was the first time for her to be honoured with the formal visit of a foreign sovereign.

His Majesty the Emperor Kangte left Hsinking on April 2, accompanied by his suite of 150 members aboard the Japanese warship Hiei and arrived at Yokohama on the 6th at 8.30 a.m. Shortly before 11 o'clock the Manchoukuo Emperor left Yokohama by the Imperial train together with H.I.H. Prince Chichibu, who had been sent by the Japanese Emperor and Empress to the warship to meet the Imperial guest. At Tokyo Station, where the visiting sovereign arrived at 11.10 o'clock, he was met by the Japanese Emperor and Princes of the Blood and Cabinet Ministers and many other dignitaries.

In the afternoon the Emperor Kangte visited the Japanese Emperor at the Chiyoda Palace.

Later in the same afternoon H.I.M. the Emperor visited the Manchoukuo Emperor at the Akasaka Detached Palace to return courtesies. During his sojourn in the Capital the visiting sovereign was accorded all manner of hearty welcome by the Japanese Emperor and his government and all citizens. Among many Imperial functions given in honour of the Manchoukuo Emperor was a grand military review held on the 9th at the Yoyogi Parade Ground, which was participated in by about 10,000 officers and men. His Majesty the Emperor of Japan was also present on the occasion.

On the 15th the Manchoukuo Emperor left the Capital for Kyoto. After a few weeks' stay in the Kwansai district, where his Majesty was as warmly welcomed as he had been in Tokyo, he started on the return journey on the Hiei.

During his sojourn in the Capital the Manchoukuo Emperor visited the Tokyo Garrison Hospital to personally comfort about 150 patients wounded in Manchuria. His Majesty also granted a pecuniary gift to all patients in the various garrison hospitals, inclusive of those mentioned above, over 700 in number, who had been sent back from Manchuria.



# CHAPTER III

## GEOLOGY

### A. GEOLOGY OF JAPAN

Geologists suggest that the islands constituting Japan Proper are the summits of a great mountain system that originally formed part of the Altai and other ranges in China and that was detached later by the depression of the intervening land. The presence of great marine depressions along the external or eastern side of a fanciful festoon that stretches parallel to the Pacific coast of the Asiatic Continent seems to confirm this hypothesis. This chain of islands from Hokkaido to Taiwan (Formosa) curves towards the northwest, the concave or the Japan Sea side being called by scientists "Inner zone" or arc, and the convex or Pacific side "Outer zone" or arc. The two zones present points of marked contrast geographically and otherwise. Another interesting geological feature of Japan is that the Main Island or Honshu is divided into "North Japan" and "South Japan"

by the so-called Fuji volcanic zone that runs across its middle from the Japan Sea to the Pacific Ocean, the zone containing the great cone of Fuji and other volcanoes.

#### Geological Composition

The geological composition of Japan as investigated by the Government Geological Survey is as follows:—

Table 1. Geological Composition of Japan

	Area (Sq. kms.)	%
Paleozoic .....	75,426	16.39
Mesozoic .....	46,498	10.11
Tertiary .....	93,276	20.27
Quaternary .....	90,101	19.59
Igneous (older) .....	73,673	16.02
Igneous (younger) .....	81,048	17.62
Total .....	460,022	100.00

The sedimentary formation and contemporaneous igneous rocks of Japan are tabulated below:

Table 2. Sedimentary Formation and Contemporaneous Igneous Rocks

	Sedimentary Formations Recent Pleistocene Loam Terrace Deposits	Igneous Rocks Liparite, Andesite, Basalt
Quaternary	Pliocene; Musashino Formation, Tertiary of Tanabe, Kakegawa, etc., Plant fossil Bed of Mogi, Upper Tertiary of Hokkaido.	
Cainozoic (Tertiary)	Miocene; Plant fossil Bed of Itsukaichi, Orbitoides-Limestone of Nakaozaka, Shiramizu (Coal-bearing Series) of the Joban District Middle Tertiary of Hokkaido.	Liparite, Andesite, Basalt.
	Oligocene and Eocene; Lower Tertiary (Coal-bearing Series) of Hokkaido, Coal-bearing Series of Northern Kyushu, Nummulites Beds of Bonin & Luchu.	
	Senonian-Gault; Futaba Series, Izumi-Sandstone, Trigonia-Sandstone and Ammonites Beds of Hokkaido.	Granite, Porphyrite,
Mesozoic	Neocomian; Lower Bed of Miyake Series, Ryoseki Series and Torinosu Limestone.	Gabbro, Serpentine, etc.
	Malm; Upper Shizukawa Series, Tatori Series.	
	Jurassic Dogger; Middle Shizukawa Series. Liassic; Lower Shizukawa Series.	Porphyrite.

Triassic	Rhaetic; Plant Bed of Yamanoi.	Porphyrite.	
	Noric; Pseudomonotis Beds.		
Palaeozoic	Ladinic; Daonella Beds of Rikuzen and Tosa.	Granite, Diorite, Gabbro, Diabase, etc.	
	Anisic-Skytic; Geratites Beds.		
	Permian and Carboniferous		Middle and Upper divisions of the Chichibu System.
Palaeozoic	Pre-Carboniferous	Mikabu Series (Lower division of the Chichibu System), Sambagawa Series.	Granite, Amphibolite, Serpentine.

#### The Chichibu System

As the oldest fossil-bearing strata in Japan and one existing within a few hours by railway from Tokyo, the Chichibu system was first studied by the German geologist Dr. Nauman who was in the service of the Japanese Government about 1877. It is a cradle as also the most popular field of geological researches in Japan. This hilly mass is further noted for containing various strata characteristic of the geological formation of the land.

#### Economic Geology of Japan

Carboniferous and similar Paleozoic strata formed in Japan are, unlike those in the West, not generally coal-bearing as they originated under the sea, though with a few exceptions. Coal-seams of economic importance exist in Japan in Tertiary formations, that is, in Kyushu, Hokkaido and the Joban (Hitachi-Iwaki) districts. Oil-fields chiefly occur in the younger Tertiary of the Inner zone, mostly in Echigo, Akita and Hokkaido. Mr. Kanehara writes that the coal-bearing series of northern Kyushu is an important representative of the Japanese Palaeogene, the fossils found being mainly of Eocene forms. Thus the Takashima coal-field has yielded *Sabal nipponica*, *Kryst*, also *Osmunda*, *Lastrea*, *Salvinia*, etc., the Miike coal-measure *Aturia*, *Pholadomya*, *Crassatella*, *Carditat*, etc. One noteworthy thing is that in the coal-fields of Sasebo and Imari, economically less important than the two others mentioned, an *Anthracoherid* tooth and *Brachyodus* were discovered, these judged to be of Lower Oligocene origin. The plant and shell fossils as found in the coal-measures of Hokkaido and Karafuto are nearly identical with those of northern Kyushu. The Neogene in the Joban district consists of the Shiramizu (Miocene), the Yunagaya (Miocene) and the Shirado (Pliocene) series, the lowest part of Shiramizu

being now extensively worked for its bitumen. In the meridional and western parts of northern Honshu, the Neogene extends from Shinano and Echigo on the southwest to the northern end of Aomori through Akita. The older Neogene of this region often contains coal-seams in the lower part while the younger is often petroliferous, constituting the oil-fields of Echigo, Akita and Aomori. Then the lower Neogene found in Shizuoka prefecture is Miocene and petroliferous. In Taiwan there exists the coal-bearing Neogene in the north, while in the south it is petroliferous. In Hokkaido the Tertiary consists of the Lower, the Middle, the Upper and the Uppermost. The Lower is the coal-bearing Palaeogene and the other three range between Miocene and Pliocene or Pleistocene. The Middle Tertiary has the Poronai series in its lower part and the Kawabata series in the Upper, the Momiji-yama series lying between being of a transitional formation. The Upper Tertiary is often oil-bearing, its rocks resembling those of similar formation in northern Honshu.

**Minerals.**—The number of species is 208 exclusive of those of organic origin. Minerals or crystals characteristic of Japan are—radial concentric aggregations of rhombohedra of arsenic; magnificent crystals of stibnite; large and beautiful crystals of galena, zinc-blende, enargite, danburite and topaz; beautiful crystals of pyrrhotite, axinite and columbite; needle forms or triangular crystals of chalcopyrite; twinned crystals of quartz; unusually large crystals of augite, andalusite, glaucophane and piemontite; xenotime and zircon in parallel growth; zircon containing some rare earths; cordierite crystals occurring in lavas, etc.

**Mineral Deposits.**—These are chiefly found in the Tertiary terrain. Gold quartz and cupriferous pyrite-quartz veins are common in the Tertiary liparite or andesite and their tuffs. Cupriferous pyrite deposits imbedded in the



Palaeozoic schists and clayslates are of a great economic importance. Magnetite masses and hematite veins in granite, and galenablene masses or veins are found respectively in the Palaeozoic limestone, and Tertiary tuffs. The coal-seams and oil-fields are as mentioned before.

### B. VOLCANOES

Volcanoes number 165, of which 54 are active and consist of seven zones, those noteworthy beings:—

Fuji zone that cuts across the middle of Honshu from the Japan Sea to the Pacific Ocean and continuing to the Seven Islands of Izu, the Bonin Islands, the Sulphur Islands and to the Mariana and Caroline Group. The zone contains Myoko-zan, Togakushi-yama, Tadeshina-yama, Yatsu-ga-take, Fuji-san, Hakone, Amagi, etc.

The Nasu chain forms the backbone of North Japan and extends further north to Hokkaido, the chain comprising Osore-zan, Ganshu-zan, Nasu-san, Nantai-san (Nikko), Akagi, Haruna, Asama, etc. The other chains are the Chokai that runs parallel to the Nasu chain, the Chishima chain that extends from Hokkaido to Chishima (Kuriles) and further to Kamchatka, the Hakusan chain that contains Hakusan, Daisen, Sambe-yama, etc., and the Kirishima chain which traverses the western margin of the island of Kyushu. With Kirishima as a centre it extends to Unzen on the north and to the volcanic islands in the Ryukyu archipelago. For the past half a century Japanese volcanoes have invariably been of the Strombolian type as exemplified in the eruption of Bandai-san (1888), Azuma-san (1893), Adataro-yama (1900), and Torishima (1902). Asama, Yari-ga-take and Kirishima are known for their paroxymal, though not des-

tructive explosions. Also in the Kirishima chain is a complex volcano with its highest cone towering 1,592 m., which is perhaps the largest volcano in the world, its crater extending about 15 miles north and south, and 10 miles the other way.

### C. HOT SPRINGS

As a redeeming feature to compensate for the presence of so many volcanoes, a large number of mineral springs, both hot and cold, are found throughout the country. Japan, in fact, occupies a very high place in the world as to the number of mineral springs and especially those possessing high medical value.

Hot springs of note number about one thousand, mostly in northern and southern parts of the country, and of these those that are popular from easier access or medical quality occupy at least one quarter, as shown in the accompanying table. In composition simple and salt springs predominate, followed by sulphur springs.

Table 3. Number and Kinds of Hot Springs

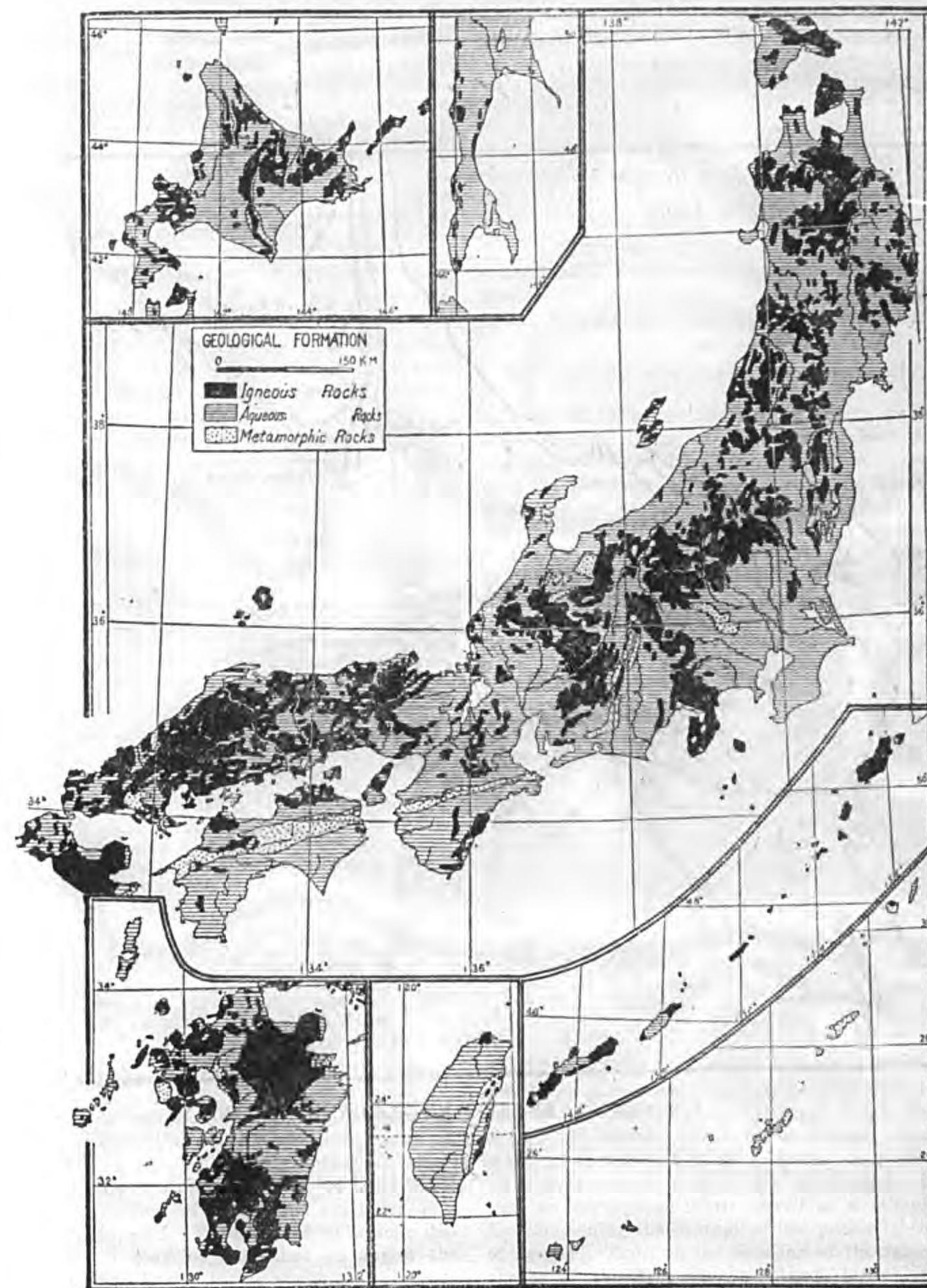
	Honshu (Mainland)	Hokkai- do	Kyushu	Total
Simple cold springs ..	134	1	20	155
Simple hot springs ...	152	3	70	225
Simple acid springs ..	17	3	3	21
"Earthy" acid springs	12	1	3	16
Alkaline acid springs..	94	20	35	149
Salt springs .....	155	5	19	179
Bitter springs .....	58	4	16	78
Iron springs .....	29	1	2	32
Sulphur springs .....	95	14	18	127
Acid hydrogen sulphide springs .....	10	—	1	11
Acid vitriol springs ..	5	1	—	6
Alum vitriol springs ..	7	—	1	8
Springs (not examined)	82	—	17	99
Total .....	850	51	205	1,106

Besides, there are 68 and 27 hot-springs in Chosen (Korea) and Taiwan (Formosa) respectively.

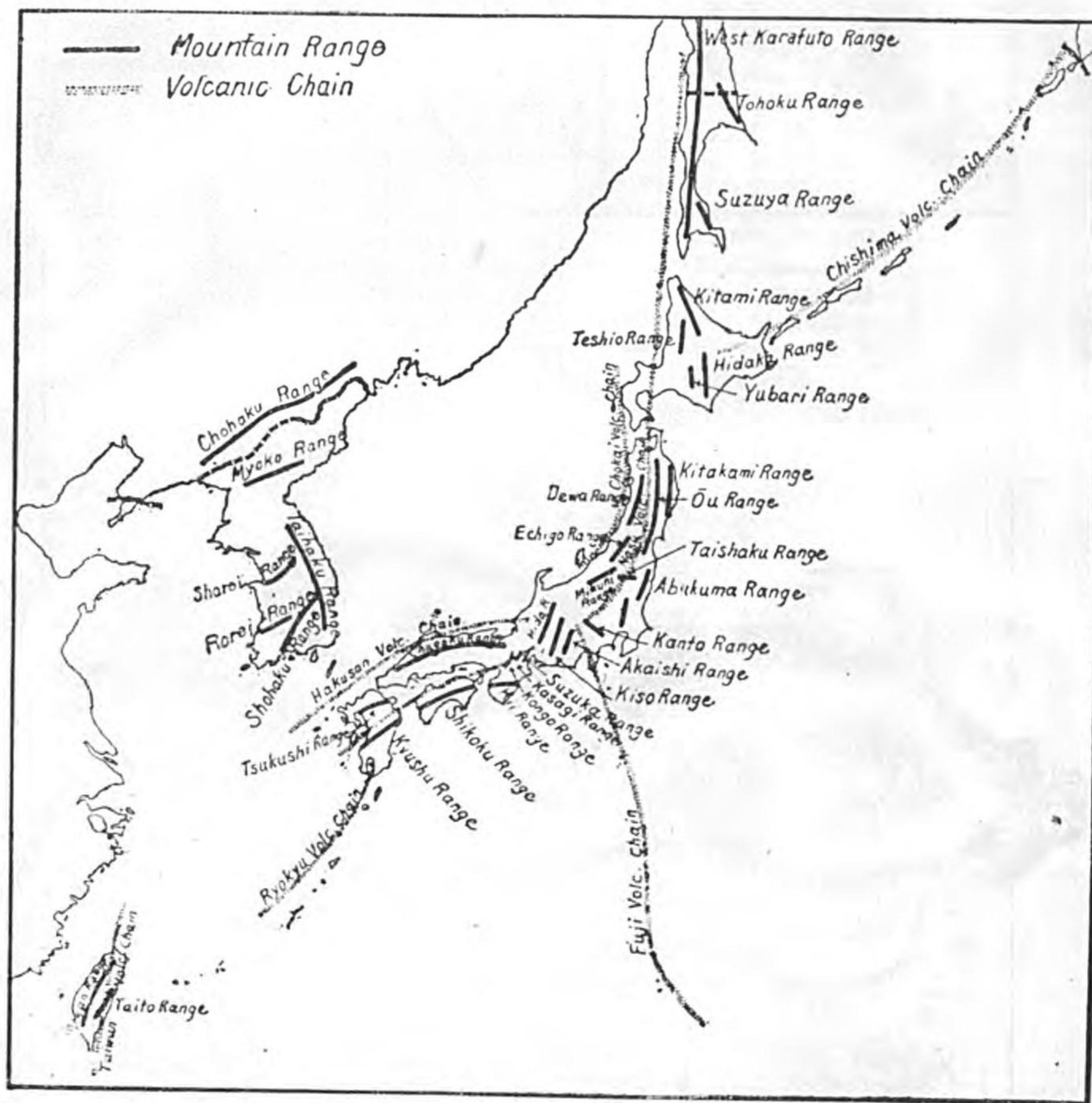
Table 4. List of Popular Hot Springs

Name	Nearest Rly. station	Character	Above sea level (ft.)	Ave. Temperature	
				C.	F.
Arima	Arima	Simple carbon-dioxated .....	1,287	17.0°	62.6°
As mushi	Asamushi	Sulphated bitter .....	—	70.3°	158.5°
Atami	Atami	Earth-muriated Common salt .....	74	—	198.5°
Beppu	Beppu	Simple thermals .....	50	53.0°	127.4°
Dogo	Dogo	Simple thermals .....	35	44.5°	112.1°
Hakone	Odawara				
Miyanoshita		Alkaline common salt .....	1,377	—	137.3°
Ashinoyu		Sulphur .....	2,760	—	113.0°
Higashiyama	(Aizu Wakamatsu	Saline bitter .....	(about) 850	47.5°	117.5°
Ikao	Shibukawa	Sulphated bitter .....	2,800	46.0°	114.8°
Ito	Atami	Simple thermals (Seaside) .....	—	46.9°	116.4°
Kinosaki	Kinosaki	Earth-muriated common salt .....	—	—	126.1°
Kusatsu	Kusatsu	Acid vitriol .....	4,500	62.0°	143.6°
Misasa	Furayoshi	Simple thermals .....	50	71.0°	159.8°
Nagaoka	Nagaoka	Simple thermals .....	100	48.5°	119.3°
Nasu	Kuroiso	Hydrogen sulphide .....	(about) 4,500	—	82.4°

### GEOLOGICAL FORMATION OF JAPAN







MOUNTAIN RANGES AND VOLCANIC CHAINS

Name	Nearest Rly. station	Character	Above sea level (ft.)	Ave. Temperature	
				C.	F.
Nikko	Nikko	Hydrogen sulphide .....	(about) 4,590	—	113.9°
Yumoto	Noboribetsu	Vitriol .....	660	97.0°	206.6°
Noboribetsu	Noboribetsu	Vitriol .....	660	97.0°	206.6°
Shibu	Toyono	Sulphated common salt .....	6,950	76.0°	168.8°
Shima	Shibukawa	Earth-muriated common salt .....	2,500	93.0°	199.4°
Shiobara	Nishinasuno	Alkaline .....	1,150	—	132.4°
Shuzenji	Shuzenji	Saline common salt .....	330	77.0°	170.6°
Unzen	Isahara	Acid hydrogen sulphate .....	2,400	51.5°	124.7°
Wagura	Nanao	Earth-muriated common salt (Seaside) .....	—	—	179.2°
Yamanaka	Daishoji	Sulphated sulphur .....	—	—	120.2°
Yamashiro	Daishoji	Saline sulphur .....	—	—	149.5°
Yugawara	Yugawara	Common salt .....	351	88.5°	191.3°

The distinctive feature of Kusatsu, Nasu, Noboribetsu and others is that they carry free mineral acids in their alumina and iron contents, and this peculiarity is especially marked in Kusatsu and Nasu. Many springs contain small proportions of boric acid and iodine, bromine, lithium, manganese and other compounds.

Reference to the map given elsewhere will show that the regions traversed by the volcanic chains mentioned before are especially rich in these natural baths. The Izu Peninsula in the Fuji zone, has, for instance, Atami, Ito, Shuzenji, Nagaoka, Yugawara, Izusan, Kona, and other minor spas.

The three important clusters of hot-springs are Hakone-Izu, Kusatsu, and Beppu. Classified

as to altitude, Kusatsu and its subsidiaries Shibu, Shima, etc. stand highest, while Atami, Asamushi, Wagura, etc. are found near the seashore.

**Radio-activity of Japanese Mineral Springs**

Many of those springs are of strong radio-activity, these being as below, giving both hot and cold springs. It will be seen that compared with the famous radio-active springs in Europe, Masutomi is, second only to Joachimsthal and Brambach, but surpasses Gastein, Landeck, Baden-Baden, etc. Misasa is only next to Ischia in Italy and almost rivals Gastein in this respect. All these Japanese mineral springs are found in granite regions.

**Table 5. List of Principal Radio-Active Springs**  
(Emanation per liter of water in Mache's unit)

Hot Springs					
Name	Prefecture	Mache's units	Character	Temperature C.	F.
Misasa .....	Tottori	142.14	Simple	71.0°	—
Sekigane .....	—	30.12	Sulphur	44.0°	—
Tochiomata .....	Niigata	25.86	Simple	39.0°	—
Kawatana .....	Yamaguchi	11.88	Saline	40.0°	—
Cold Springs					
Masutomi .....	Yamanashi	828	Saline	21.5°	—
Takayama .....	Gifu	281	Simple	10.0°	—
Ikeda .....	Shimane	188	Carbonated	17.0°	—
Hirukawa .....	Gifu	60	Simple	12.0°	—
Murasugi .....	Niigata	50	"	25.0°	—

**D. EARTHQUAKES**

Japan is a land of volcanoes and earthquakes. It owes its beautiful scenery, in many instances, to volcanic agency, while the graceful outline of the snow-capped Fujiyama with its logarithmic curves, an emblem of purity and sublimity, is a common art motif. With regard to seismic disturbances, it may be said that in Japan the telluric energy is still in the young and vigorous stage of development, and earthquakes have naturally made a profound impression upon our

countrymen from the earliest times, the first record of an earthquake in authentic history dating back to the reign of the Emperor Inkyo (416 A.D.). In former times an earthquake catastrophe was believed to be a divine warning of some great event, and it is a noteworthy fact that an earthquake often served as a stimulus for summoning the courage of our people in time of danger. Thus, on the occasion of the famous shocks of the first year of Ansei (1854), the year in which the treaty with Commodore Perry was concluded, the Daimyo of Tosa issued pro-



clamations enjoining his subjects to take these disasters as censures from Heaven and to rouse themselves to guide the Empire through the difficult epoch of internal troubles and foreign complications. The attempt to guard against the effect of seismic disturbances is, as may be expected, shown in the style of various ancient Japanese buildings. Thus, a properly built "sammon" (temple gate), "kanetsukido" (bell tower), and "gojunoto" (five-storeyed pagoda) can never be overturned by an earthquake, however violent. The last-named structures are in principle exactly conformable with the modern instrument called the duplex pendulum seismograph, since they consist of the outer portion or tower, which may be likened to an inverted pendulum, and of the central suspended column which forms a pendulum whose lower end is not in contact with the ground; these two systems which are respectively in unstable and stable equilibrium, combine into a building capable of lessening the disaster of seismic shocks. On the occasion of the great Ansei earthquake (1885) of Yedo, the "gojunoto" at the Kwannon Temple, Asakusa had its "kurin" (large vertical metal rod on the top) considerably bent, but the building itself sustained no damage. Again, the curved form of a large stone "ishigaki," or dry masonry retaining wall, is a feature peculiar to the Japanese castle building not to be found in the architecture of China, Chosen (Korea) and other countries. Its origin lay probably in the idea of making the stonewall earthquake-proof. The wall curve forms a parabola, and a noteworthy fact is that the column whose wall is parabolic has the property of being seismically uniform in strength, namely, of possessing stability against the earthquake which remains constant for the different sections. A stone retaining wall with a parabolic form is thus free from the defect of being weakest at the base, thereby lessening the risk of the production of the "marginal vibration," which may result in the formation of cracks along the upper edge and the sliding down of the side surface. As no cementing was used in the construction of the stone castle walls, the old Japanese civil engineers had evidently to give the "ishigaki" a form calculated to possess in itself a sufficient strength and stability.

#### Japanese Arc

Where great mountain ranges are arranged on chains of islands in the form of a circular arc, the convex, or outer portion, which corresponds to the tension side, is often shaken by great earthquake; while the concave, or inner portion,

corresponding to the compression side, is disturbed only by occasional local shocks. This is notably the case with the Japanese arc, whose convex side is turned toward the Pacific, parallel with and off whose coast there runs the principal earthquake and Himalaya-Mediterranean lines of disturbance. Since the great shocks of 1854 the southern and western parts of Japan have not been visited by great seismic disasters and "tsunami" (tidal-waves) that very often follow them, excepting those of 1924 and 1925.

Volcanoes whether active, dormant, or extinct are located only on the Japan Sea side, or the compression portion, of the Japanese islands and along the Fuji volcanic chain, which may be regarded as a sort of crack in the arc.

#### Small Earthquakes

The number of earthquakes occurring in different parts of Japan gives the average yearly frequency of some 1,500, or of about four shocks per day. In Tokyo a sensible shock occurs on the average once every three days.

#### Great Earthquake of Tokyo in 1923

As regards the magnitude of damage inflicted on life and property, the great earthquake of September 1, 1923, that overwhelmed the region bordering on the Bay of Sagami is indeed without a parallel in the world's history, the disastrous fire that burst out on the wake of the tremendous upheaval having reduced to ashes in a couple of days about one half of Tokyo, and practically the whole of Yokohama. Scientifically the 1923 earthquake belongs to what is called "world shaking earthquakes", and was recorded, for instance, at Granada, Spain, at 12h 12m 33s of September 1st, while at Sydney it began at 12h 9m 8s.

To the lasting regret for accuracy of seismological investigation it should be noted that the instruments at both the Seismological Institute of Tokyo Imperial University, and the Central Meteorological Observatory (Tokyo) broke down just at the critical moment, so that the only reliable observation carried out at Tokyo indicated that the preliminary tremor lasted about 12.1 s., and that in Tokyo it occurred at 11h 58m 46s of the central standard time, that is, the time of the 135 meridian; that taking various factors into consideration, the depth of the seismic centre must have been about 45km. and the position of the epicentre at the bottom of the northern part of Sagami Bay.

The seismographical record taken at the Central Meteorological Observatory consisted of the following elements:

Table 6. Seismographic Record

Initial time .....	11h 58m 46s 5
Duration of preliminary tremor .....	12s 1
Maximum amplitude .....	89mm
Intensity .....	disastrous
Epicentre.....	Northern part of Sagami Bay;
Longitude 130°2 E.....	Latitude 35°1 N.

As to the origin of this terrestrial disturbance the hypothesis offered is that, judging from the distribution of geological strata and the nature of topographical features of the affected area, it was not probably due to the powerful strain to which the earth-crust between the Izu Peninsula, the most elevated portion, and the Sea of Sagami, the most subsided portion, in this region, must have been subjected for a considerable period of time. The shock caused severe dislocation of the strata of the disturbed area, the shores of Sagami Bay and the west coast of the Boso Peninsula marking sudden upheaval, as much as 55 metres at some places, while on the other hand the bottom of Sagami Bay fell by 20 to 400 metres. Among other noteworthy phenomena was the visit of seismic sea-waves or "tsunami" which attained the height of 8 metres at some parts on the eastern shores of the Izu Peninsula, though on the coast of Tokyo Bay the height was generally below one metre. Landslides occurred here and there, notably along the eastern shores of the Izu Peninsula, one at Nebukawa, about midway between Atami and Odawara, being most disastrous, while the hilly district of Hakone was also severely damaged from this particular dislocation of earth-crust.

As is usual with most strong earthquakes the 1923 convulsion was followed by long trains of after-shocks, and it was believed by experts that some three years would elapse before the dislocated strata could settle to normal condition. Here is the record of after-shocks observed at the Central Meteorological Observatory.

Table 7. Number of After-shocks

(Sept. 1, 1923—Sept. 1, 1925)

Felt .....	about 1,600
Not felt .....	" 6,100

The seat of after-shocks is naturally shifting. So far two very strong passing vibrations of this description have occurred, one on September 2, 1923, off Katsu-ura on the southern coast of the Boso Peninsula and the other on January

15, 1924, in Sagami Bay. Its intensity is indicated by the following data:—

Table 8. Seismographic Record

Initial time .....	5h 50m 25s
Duration of preliminary tremor..	7s 6
Maximum amplitude .....	22mm
Whole duration .....	12m
Intensity .....	Strong
Epicentre..	Sagami Bay, L. 139°2 E..L. 35°2 N.

#### Earthquake in Tajima

After having been immune from a severe shock for about three centuries, the province of Tajima, or more exactly a limited area of about 6 sq. m. along the River Maruyama and containing two towns, Toyo-oka and Kinosaki (a popular spa), was visited by a destructive earthquake a little before noon on 23 May, 1925. Its intensity is judged to have been roughly 1/4 of that of the 1923 catastrophe and is indicated by the following record obtained at the Kobe Marine Observatory:—

Table 9. Seismographic Record

Initial time .....	11h 10m 02s
Duration of preliminary tremor..	13s 3
Maximum amplitude .....	2mm
Whole duration .....	18m 25
Intensity .....	moderate
Epicentre .....	about 20 km. north to Tsuiyama Bay, L. 134°50'5 E.—L. 35°38'7 N.

#### A severe Earthquake in Taiwan

A very destructive earthquake occurred in the central part of Taiwan at about 6.02 a.m. on the 21st of April, 1935. The provinces of Taichu and Shinchiku aggregating about 767 square ri suffered most seriously. The shock was especially severe at Hogen-gun in the former province. In one of the villages of the district 90 per cent. of a total of 300 houses were completely wrecked and many inhabitants lost their lives.

The Seismometre at the Taihoku Observatory recorded the following:

Table 10. Seismographic Record

1st shock	
Initial time .....	6h 2m 7s
Duration of preliminary tremor..	4s
Maximum amplitude .....	16m
Whole duration .....	30m
Intensity .....	Strong
Epicentre.....	about 30km. northeast to Taichu L. 120°49 E.—L. 24°21' N.
2nd shock	
Initial time .....	6h 27m 35s
Duration of preliminary tremor..	4s
Maximum amplitude .....	8m
Whole duration .....	20m
Intensity .....	Weak
Epicentre .....	same as 1st shock



Table 11. Seismic Record in Japan

More disastrous earthquakes recorded in the pre-Tokugawa period were:

684 A.D.	An area of 8—10 sq. kilometres in Tosa subsided and was covered by sea-water.
869 "	Earthquake with tidal waves visited Mutsu and about 1,000 people were killed.
1361 "	Earthquakes in districts round about Kyoto.
1498 "	Tokaido was visited by a severe earthquake, causing death of over 5,000 persons. Hamana lagoon (Maizaka station, Tokaido Railway, formerly inland lake) was formed.
1596 "	Bungo (Kyushu) was visited by a severe earthquake and 708 persons killed.
1596 "	Districts about Kyoto were shaken and 1,200 person killed.

The principal calamities that have occurred since are:—

	Houses destroyed	No. of deaths
1605, Feb. 2	Tokaido & Shikoku (Pacific Coast) (with tidal waves) .....	5,000
1611, Sept. 27	Aizu in Iwashiro .....	3,700
1611, Dec. 2	Hokkaido and Sanriku district (Pacific coast) (with tidal waves) ...	5,000
1633, Mar. 1	Odawara .....	150
1649, July 29	Yedo (Tokyo) .....	several hundreds
1662, June 16	Places about Kyoto ..	3,000 800
1666, Feb. 1	Takata in Echigo ....	1,500
1694, June 19	Noshiro in Ugo .....	2,760 394
1703, Dec. 31	Places about Yedo (Tokyo) .....	20,162 5,233
1707, Oct. 28	Pacific coast of Tokaido, Kyushu & Shikoku (with tidal waves)....	29,000 4,900
1711, Mar. 19	Mimasaka, Inaba and Hoki .....	500 400
1751, May 20	Takata in Echigo (tidal waves) .....	6,088 1,123
1766, Mar. 8	Hirosaki .....	7,192 1,335
1792, May 21	Hizen, Higo & vicinity (with tidal waves) ...	12,000 15,200
1804, July 10	Kisakata (with tidal waves) .....	5,500 333
1823, Dec. 18	Sanjo in Echigo.....	11,012 1,443
1830, Aug. 19	Kyoto and vicinity ..	280
1847, May 8	Shinano and Echigo..	34,000 12,000
1854, July 9	Yamato, Iga and Ise..	5,000 1,057
1854, Dec. 23	Tokaido, Tosanoo, Hokuroku, Sanin Sanyo	9,000 1,200
1854, Dec. 24	Tokaido and Shikoku (with tidal waves)....	60,000 3,000
1855, Nov. 11	Yedo (Tokyo) .....	14,316 7,000
1858, Apr. 9	Northern Hida .....	709 203
1872, Mar. 14	Hama in Iwami .. over 5,000	600

1891, Oct. 28	Mino and Owari ....	80,000 7,273
1894, Oct. 22	Shonai in Yamagata..	6,006 720
1896, June 15	Sanriku district (with tidal waves) .....	10,370 27,000
1896, Aug. 31	Semboku in Akita....	6,079 206
1904, Nov. 6	Toroku, Kagi (Taiwan)	1,723 145
1906, Mar. 17	Kagi (Taiwan) .....	6,769 1,258
1909, Aug. 14	Omi .....	976 41
1914, Mar. 15	Akita .....	640 90
1923, Sept. 1	Sagami Bay (epicentre), Tokyo, Yokohama and outlying districts	701,622 99,331
1924, Jan. 15	Sagami .....	1,273 14
1925, May 23	Northern part of Tajima .....	3,333 995
1927, Mar. 7	N.-W. part of Tango	16,025 3,017
1930, Nov. 26	Northern part of Izu	2,142 259
1931, Sept. 21	Western part of Saitama prefecture ..	204 16
1933, Mar. 3	Sanriku district (with tidal waves) .....	4,086 2,986
1935, Apr. 21	Shinchiku and Taichu districts (Taiwan) ....	17,835 3,322
1935, July 11	Shizuoka .....	363 9

#### Seismic Zones

Ten seismic zones along the weak lines on the earth's crust are recognized by seismologists, the more noteworthy being those running parallel to the Pacific coast. Earthquakes occurring in these zones are generally of destructive world-shaking character. Japan that lies along one of these zones has her own subsidiary belts or zones as shown in the accompanying map.

#### Lesson from the 1923 Earthquake

The exhaustive researches of our seismologists coupled with the extensive surveying carried out by the Military and Naval surveying departments have done much towards throwing light upon the mysterious subterranean working of the earth's crust incidental to seismic activity and towards placing this infant science on definite system. The researches and surveying combined have made it clear that at the seat of the epicentre of the 1923 quake, i.e. the bottom of the Bay of Sagami, a tremendous fault occurred, resulting in an enormous depression on one part and an equally extensive upheaval on the other, and that similar extraordinary topographical changes were witnessed in the Kwanto block itself. It has also been ascertained that for the two preceding years (1921-22) the land adjoining the seat of the disturbance was undergoing secular subsidence and slight elevation, all these indicating the accumulation of a gigantic subterranean stress for many years in this particular region. Dr. Imamura's careful researches on the

connection between seismic activity and secular changes of land are highly valuable as they throw important light on the obscure subject of prediction. The researches have enabled him to trace the relation between the destructive earthquake which visited the Kwanto district in 1703, and which was seismologically of similar character to that of 1923, and the topographical feature of the region. With the exception of after-shocks that disturbed it for two or three years, but none severe, seismic quiescence with practical absence of change in land-level prevailed in the Kwanto district for 150 years. The next 70 years was a period of local shocks, the activity culminating in the memorable occurrence of 1923 with a number of years of settling movements to follow.

#### Seismic Dormancy in the Region around Tokyo

Dr. Imamura's interesting investigation for the district is carried much longer, in fact over the past 2000 years, by aid of authentic chronicles and traditions and especially by observing the holes of the boring bivalve called *Lithophaga nasuta* left on the elevated cliffs on the Pacific beach of the Boso Peninsula. It can only be stated here that as a result of his study, he ventures an explanation that in that long period the Kwanto district must have had four cycles of destructive earthquakes with accompanying crustal movements, and that the district will probably be free for a century or more hereafter from severe seismic dislocations. He writes that the shocks felt in Tokyo during the four months following the great earthquake numbered 1,044 while the record for the four years 1924-27 were respectively 154, 68, and 65 as against the yearly mean frequency of 115 during the period from 1888 to 1921, this suggesting that the Kwanto region is now approaching the dormant state of seismic activity. It should be remembered that in 1905 Dr. Imamura boldly announced that his historical and statistical study of destructive earthquakes in Tokyo in particular and Japan in general had suggested to him a possibility of Tokyo being visited by a destructive quake in the near future, and that unless the fire-prevention system was properly improved Tokyo might be overtaken by a terrible disaster with a general conflagration killing 100,000 or more lives. This bold hypothesis caused something like a sensation not only among laymen but even among specialists all of whom joined in severely denouncing him as a mischievous monomaniac given to indulging in absurd and even

dangerous fancy. Dr. Imamura will long be remembered as a scientific martyr in association with the Kwanto earthquake of 1923. It is of special significance that on the occasion of the catastrophe Dr. Omori, his senior, who had discredited his warning, was attending a scientific congress in Australia, and that he died soon after reaching home from the illness which he had contracted.

#### Seismic Prediction and seismic Activity in the Kyoto-Osaka Region

Although the problem of earthquake prediction is still obscure, Japanese specialists think that its solution will not be difficult. Dr. Omori will long be remembered by seismologists at large for having predicted, as a result of the careful investigations of what he called the seismic zones of the Pacific coast of America and of Italy, the Valparaiso quake of 1906 and that of Messina-Reggio of 1908 and of Avezzano of 1915. Dr. Omori's investigation was chiefly devoted to places of occurrences, but it has been carried to greater scientific accuracy by two seismologists of the Research Institute, of Tokyo Imperial University, Dr. Imamura and Prof. Ishimoto. In other words, by studying the space distribution of past earthquakes on one hand and the geological formation and topographical features of a given district on the other they are trying to elaborate a formula that serves to indicate a possible seismic visitation to it.

An extensive area including the southern part of Shikoku and the peninsula of Kii has been selected by Dr. Imamura as a region demanding his vigilant watch, for it was fairly well ascertained that this area had recurring seismic activity during the last 600 years with a period of 100-150 years, the last culmination occurring in 1854. The fact that the submarine basin lying between Wakayama, Kii, and Awaji Island has shown seismic activity in recent years, and that the region is undergoing tilting motion similar to that which overtook the Kwanto block previous to the catastrophe of 1923 must at least be interpreted as an ominous phenomenon portending a possible calamitous visitation as that in 1923. The researches for the area, heretofore undertaken almost single-handed by Dr. Imamura and therefore necessarily imperfect, will be conducted systematically and with greater accuracy when all the observation stations mentioned elsewhere begin to function.

#### The Earthquake Research Machinery

The Imperial Earthquake Investigation Commission ceased to exist in 1925 after 30 years'



untiring labours to investigate this least-understood though the most dreadful malady inherent to Mother Earth. The Commission has indeed bequeathed the most important seismic literature ever known, it consisting of 100 proceedings in Japanese, 25 in European languages and 11 memoirs also in European, and these will stand as a lasting monument to perpetuate the memory of the Commission. To keep up the task undertaken by the Commission the Earthquake Research Institute was created the same year as affiliated to the Tokyo Imperial University, though on a smaller scale than the one abolished. The Institute will specially cover both sides of the Kii channel as its field of work, and its stations will be equipped with the Ishimoto clinograph and the Imamura tromometer. Though a simple instrument costing only 600 yen the clinograph is said to be highly useful, for it can be easily operated even by an amateur and yet gives a very accurate register of minute land vibrations. The research work of the Central Meteorological Observatory has also been very much enlarged, chiefly with the object of establishing a network of observation stations throughout the country. Lastly, there is Dr. Imamura's private effort in a similar direction with the support of some public-spirited capitalists, and three stations are to be established by Dr. Imamura in the Kwanto district.

In short the public have lately begun to show keen interest in seismological studies, and quite a number of young scientists well equipped with the knowledge necessary for this special investigation have joined the hitherto rather thin rank of experts. Evidently Japan will not suffer in future from lack of trained seismologists.

#### Loss of Life and Property

Dr. Imamura's data on seismic casualties in Japan are:—loss of one life per eleven houses collapsed when an earthquake is free from a consequential fire, this ratio to increase three or four times when a disastrous fire follows, as in the case of the Kwanto catastrophe of September 1, 1923. The houses collapsed in Tokyo on that occasion probably amounted to 10,000, so that according to the formula, the loss of life may not have exceeded 1,000, but the actual number returned was about 100,000. For this excessive fatality the horrible fire caused by a dreadful tornado was chiefly responsible. Dr. Imamura ventures to say that the horrible disaster of September 1923 should more properly be considered as conflagrational rather than seismic. In the great earthquake of San Fran-

cisco in 1906 the damage and casualties caused were also largely due to the fire that followed the quake.

Dr. Hirokichi Honda, Chief of the Seismological Section in the Central Meteorological Observatory (Tokyo), says the earth is divided into two great seismic belts, i.e. one starting in the southern Pacific in the neighbourhood of Australia runs up the coast of China passing through the Philippines and then traversing through Japan runs to the Aleutian Islands whence it goes down along the western coast of American Continent to Chile; the other starts in the Mediterranean and passing through Italy and Central Asia connects with its sister belt in the Philippines. In these two belts have occurred most of the great earthquakes in the past.

The number of earthquakes in Japan has shown a slight decrease in recent years, but this does not mean that seismic disturbances will not so frequently occur in the future. It is absolutely impossible to forecast the intervals between one large earthquake and another similar occurrence, according to Dr. Honda. There have been cases where a large seismic disturbance has occurred once every half a century, but this rule is not binding and numerous examples may be cited where large earthquakes occurred irregularly. In 1932 the number of earthquakes perceptible to human bodies that occurred in Japan was 1,245, this making an average of 3.4 earthquakes per day. The figure for the previous year (1931) was 1,740, which was, however, far less than that of 1930 when altogether 5,774 shocks were felt, making an average of 14.8 per day. In 1923 when the great earthquake occurred in Tokyo, Yokohama and outlying districts on September 1, the number of seismic shocks was 48 for the first eight months (January to August) counting only those felt by human bodies, but the shocks felt during the remainder of the year numbered as many as 1,326, making a total of 1,374 for that year.

For many years there has been international co-operation in the study of seismology. In Japan there are at present 120 local meteorological stations or observatories in different parts of the country where seismological instruments (seismographs) are installed and daily records are compiled for study and researches at the Central Meteorological Observatory. The records embodying the result of such study and researches are published and sent out to the leading seismological observatories abroad at regular intervals.

The number of comparatively strong earthquakes which have been within human sensibility and which occurred in the last few years was 47 in 1929, 56 in 1930, 74 in 1931 and 39 in 1932. Seven great shocks have occurred in the past ten years, the largest being the memorable great earthquake in the Kwanto district of September 1923, which was responsible for a large number of fatalities amounting to 99,330 in Tokyo, Yokohama and elsewhere. The severe earthquake of Sagami that occurred in January, 1924 took 14 lives; the earthquake in North Tango of March, 1927 took 3,017 lives; the earthquake in Izu of September, 1930 took 259 lives; 16 lives were lost in the severe shock that occurred in Saitama prefecture in September, 1931. Lastly, the disastrous seismic disturbance accompanied by tidal wave that occurred in March, 1933 victimized 2,986 souls in the Sanriku district.

Researches and surveying conducted during the past ten years have made it clear that at the epicentre of the 1923 earthquake i.e. in the Bay of Sagami, a tremendous fault occurred resulting in an enormous depression on one part and an equally extensive upheaval on the other, and that similar extraordinary topographical changes were witnessed in the Kwanto block itself. It has been ascertained that during the two years previous to the great Kwanto earthquake of 1923 the land adjoining the seat of disturbance was undergoing secular subsidence and slight elevation, all these indicating the accumulation of a gigantic subterranean stress for many years in that region. With the exception of after-shocks that disturbed the country after the destructive earthquake of 1703 a comparative seismic quiescence prevailed in the Kwanto district for nearly 150 years. The following 70 years was a period of local shocks, the activity culminating in the memorable occurrence of 1923.

The number of earthquakes which occurred in different parts of Japan Proper from the great earthquake of September 1, 1923, and up to the end of 1934 is shown in the following statistics based on the reports of the Central Meteorological Observatory:—

Table 12. Number of Earthquakes Since 1923 Disaster

	No. of earthquakes	Daily average
1923 (after Sept.1) .....	1,968	7.8
" (for the whole year) ..	2,786	16.1
1924 .....	1,200	3.3
1925 .....	1,886	5.2
1926 .....	1,272	3.5
1927 .....	2,069	7.4
1928 .....	1,450	4.0
1929 .....	1,443	4.0
1930 .....	5,774	15.8
1931 .....	1,740	4.8
1932 .....	1,245	3.4
1933 .....	1,511	4.1
1934 .....	1,308	3.6
1935 .....	1,584	4.3

As stated, the relatively large number for 1923 is due to the frequent occurrence of after-shocks that followed the great earthquake of September 1; again the large number of shocks in 1930 is accounted for by the frequent occurrence of many minor shocks in the offing of Shiofuki Point, the Izu Peninsula, between March and May of that year and the frequent occurrence of shocks before and after the severe earthquake at northern Izu on November 26 the same year.

The following table, also based on the investigation of the Central Meteorological Observatory, shows the number of earthquakes felt by human body that occurred in Tokyo and vicinity in the past twenty-three years (from 1912 to 1934):—

Table 13. Number of Earthquakes in Tokyo and Vicinity

1912.....	119	1924.....	203
1913.....	95	1925.....	66
1914.....	86	1926.....	62
1915.....	184	1927.....	56
1916.....	122	1928.....	65
1917.....	111	1929.....	47
1918.....	110	1930.....	56
1919.....	100	1931.....	74
1920.....	68	1932.....	39
1921.....	30	1933.....	30
1922.....	42	1934.....	31
1923.....	1,374	1935.....	52
(Up to Aug. 31— 48)			
(After Sept. 1—1,326)			



## CHAPTER IV POPULATION AND EMIGRATION

### INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Although there are no accurate date to verify the population of Japan prior to the Meiji Restoration, the population of Japan Proper in the middle of the Tokugawa period is put at 27-28,000,000, approximately. The number had increased to 30,000,000 immediately before the Restoration, or had increased two or three millions during some 140 years. During the sixty years and more that have passed since the restoration of the Imperial regime, the population has increased to roughly 69,000,000, or it has nearly trebled.

The total population of Japan Proper as enumerated at the fourth quinquennial census taken on October 1, 1935, stood at 69,251,265 as against 64,450,005 returned at the 1930 census, showing an increase of 4,801,260. The rate of increase in the lustra is 7.4%, or slightly more than the percentage of 7.9 for the previous five year-period, corresponding to the average annual increase of 960,252, or 14 in every 1,000 people as against 15 in every 1,000 people for the preceding quinquennial period. Contrasted with the number of population of 55,963,053 as enumerated at the first census taken in 1920, the recent

census shows an increase of 13,288,212, or 23.7% during the fifteen years.

As for the latest census statistics of Europe and America, the Soviet Union is represented by 147,010,000 (1926 census) and the United States by 122,770,000 (1930 census). Excepting these two countries, all the rest are behind Japan, Germany being represented by 65,210,000 (1933 census), Great Britain by 44,790,000 (1931 census), France by 41,830,000 (1931 census), and Italy by 41,170,000 (1931 census). In regard to the density of population, Japan, which is represented by 181 per square km. (2,792 per square *ri*), is preceded by only three countries, namely, Belgium with 265 (4,091 per square *ri* in 1930), Holland with 244 (3,758 per square *ri* in 1930) and Great Britain with 197 (3,037 per square *ri* in 1931). In the average rate of increase of population, however, Japan is second to none of the countries of Europe and America. It is due solely to a great increase in natural expansion, or births far outnumbering deaths, as will be referred to in detail later in the chapter.

The population of Japan compared with other countries is tabulated below:—

Table 1. Population of Japan Compared with Other Countries

	Year	Area (sq. km.)	Population	Male	Female	Density per sq. km.
Japan .....	1935	675,385	97,694,628	49,240,659	48,453,969	145
Japan Proper .....	"	382,545	69,251,265	34,731,860	34,519,405	181
Dependencies .....	"	292,840	28,443,363	14,508,799	13,934,564	97
China .....	1928	11,108,467	474,787,000			43
Germany .....	1933	468,787	65,218,461	31,685,562	33,532,899	139
*England .....	1931	227,475	44,795,357	21,458,533	23,336,824	197
France .....	1931	550,986	41,228,466	19,911,676	21,316,790	76
United States .....	1930	7,702,044	122,775,046	62,137,080	60,637,966	16
Italy .....	1931	310,177	41,176,671	20,132,844	21,043,827	133
India .....	1931	4,684,457	352,837,778	181,828,923	171,008,855	75
Soviet Union .....	1926	21,352,572	147,027,915	71,043,352	75,984,563	7
Belgium .....	1930	30,506	8,092,004	4,007,418	4,084,586	265
Holland .....	1930	32,566	7,935,565	3,942,676	3,992,889	244

\* Ireland not included.

**Population of the Whole Empire.**—The population of the whole Empire of Japan as enumerated at the 1935 census is 97,694,628. Contrasted with the 1930 census, it shows an increase of 7,298,585, or 8.1%. As for the increases shown by Japan Proper and her colonies during the five years, Japan Proper is represented by 4,801,260 (7.4%), Korea by 1,840,390 (8.7%),

Formosa by 620,182 (13.5%) and Karafuto by 36,753 (12.5%).

The leased territory of Kwantung Province accounts for 1,134,074, the South Manchuria Railway Zone for 522,689 and the mandated South Sea Islands for 102,238. Adding these figures to the population of the whole Empire given above, the total is 99,453,629.

**Density of Population.**—The average density of population of the Empire according to the 1935 census is 145. That of Japan Proper is 181, which makes Japan one of the most densely populated countries in the world coming next only to Holland, Belgium and England, as stated above. Contrasted with the two previous census, the number shows a gain of 12 and 25 respectively.

The density of population differs greatly according to prefectures. Tokyo Prefecture comes first with 2,970 per square km. (45,805 per square *ri*), followed by Osaka with 2,369 (36,544 per square *ri*). Kanagawa, Aichi, and Fukuoka Prefectures are each represented by 500 and upwards, Kagawa and Saitama and other prefectures by 400 and upwards. The Hokkaido comes last with 35 per square km. (533 per square *ri*).

Table 2. Density of Population

	Area (sq. km.)	Population	Population per sq. km.
Japan Proper .... (Honshu)	382,545.42	69,251,265	181
Shikoku .....	18,772.83	3,357,255	179
Kyushu .....	42,078.99	9,519,976	226
Hokkaido .....	88,775.04	3,068,283	35
Chosen .....	220,776.00	22,898,695	104
Taiwan .....	35,973.55	5,212,719	145
Karafuto .....	36,090.30	331,949	9
Total .....	675,385.27	97,694,628	145
Men .....	—	49,240,659	—
Women .....	—	48,453,969	—
(Kwantung Leased Territory) ..	3,748.66	1,656,763	441
(Pacific Mandate Islands) .....	2,149.00	102,238	48

**Sex Ratio.**—Of the total population of Japan Proper at the 1935 census given as 69,251,265, 34,731,860 are males and 34,519,405 females. The number of males exceed that of females by 212,455. They are in a ratio of 100.6 to 100, which compares with 101.0 to 100 for the previous census.

Of the total population of the whole Empire of 97,694,628, 49,240,659 are males and 48,453,968 females, the ratio being 101.6 to 100. Contrasted with 102.1 for the 1930 census, the proportion of males shows a slight decrease. The male proportion is 100.6 for Japan Proper, as stated above, 103.8 for Korea, 104.2 for Formosa and 127.8 for Karafuto.

Of the population of 1,134,074 of the leased territory of Kwantung Province, 655,466 are accounted for by males and 478,608 by females. Of the population of 522,689 of the S.M.R. zone, 339,722 are males and 182,967 females. As for the mandated islands of the South Seas, of the total population of 102,238, 57,122 are males and 45,116 females.

Table 3. Population By Sex

	Men	Women	Male population per 100 females
1920 .....	28,044,185	27,918,868	100.4
1925 .....	30,013,109	29,723,713	101.0
1930 .....	32,390,155	32,059,850	101.0
1935 .....	34,731,860	34,519,405	100.6

**Distribution of Population.**—To look into the distribution of population by prefectures, Tokyo ranks first with 6,369,639 and Osaka next 4,297,166. They are followed by the Hokkaido and three other prefectures each with 2,000,000 and upwards. Besides, eleven prefectures are populated by 1,500,000 and upwards, thirteen prefectures by 1,000,000 and upwards, eleven prefectures by 700,000 and upwards, five by 500,000 and upwards. Tottori Prefecture comes last with 490,458. Compared with the 1930 census, with the exception of the three prefectures of Saga, Nagano and Kochi, all prefectures show an increase in population. The greatest increase is 960,961 shown by Tokyo, followed by Osaka with 757,149, Aichi and four other prefectures each with 200,000 and upwards, Kyoto and two others each with 100,000 and upwards.

As for the sex ratio in the prefectures, the male proportion is larger than the female proportion in fourteen prefectures and smaller in thirty-three. Tokyo comes first with the male proportion with 109.2 for every 100 females, followed by Osaka with 109.1, the Hokkaido with 108.1 and Kanagawa with 107.0.

**Urban and Suburban Population.**—The total population of all the cities of the country, numbering 127, as returned at the 1935 census, is 22,665,920 and that of the suburbs 46,585,345. The former bears a proportion of 32.7% to the population of the whole country and the latter 67.3%. Compared with 24% for the urban population and 76% for the suburban population at the 1930 census, the percentage for the urban population shows a marked expansion. This is due in no small degree to the municipal extension of Tokyo. To divide the urban population by sex, males number 11,635,729 and females 11,030,191, the former and the latter being in a ratio of 105.5 to 100. As for the suburban population, males number 23,096,131 and females 23,489,214, the ratio being 98.3 to 100.

Table 4. Population By Urban and Suburban Districts

	1920	1925	Increase on figures
Urban Population	12,269,210	13,711,120	1,441,910
Suburban .....	43,693,843	46,025,702	2,331,859
	1925	1930	Increase on figures
Urban Population	13,711,120	15,444,300	1,733,180
Suburban .....	46,025,702	49,005,705	2,980,003



Of the 127 cities, those with a population of 100,000 and upwards number 34. Tokyo tops the list with 5,875,388, followed by Osaka with 2,989,866, Nagoya with 1,082,814, Kyoto with 1,080,592, Kobe with 912,140, Yokohama with 704,290. In comparison with the previous census, Osaka was surpassed by Tokyo and Kobe by Kyoto. These "Big Six" are followed by Hiroshima with 310,117. Those cities with a population of 200,000 and upwards are Fukuoka and six others, those with a population of 100,000 and upwards are Sapporo and nineteen others. The population of these cities each with a population of 100,000 and upwards is 17,517,717, which bears a proportion of 25.3 per cent. to the population of the whole country. This percentage compares with 12.1 at the 1920 census, or the first census, 14.6 at the 1925 census and 17.1 at the 1930 census. Of that amount of population, 9,099,846 are males and 8,417,871 females, the ratio of the former and the latter being 108.1 to 100.

As for the percentage of the population of the cities each with 100,000 and upwards in Europe and America, to the entire population, England is represented by 45.5 (1931), Germany by 30.4 (1933), the U.S.A. by 29.6 (1930), Italy by 17.4 (1932), France by 15.7 (1931). It will thus be seen that Japan is preceded by the U.S.A and followed by Italy.

Table 5. Population in Cities

	No. of Cities	Population	Ratio to 1,000 Population (total pop.)
Japan . . . . .	1920.. 16	6,753,598	121
(Japan Proper)	1925.. 21	8,741,237	146
	1930.. 28	11,030,724	173
England . . . . .	1921.. 50	16,021,703	389
U. S. A. . . . .	1920.. 68	27,429,326	259
Germany . . . . .	1925.. 47	18,332,239	294
France . . . . .	1926.. 17	6,310,811	155
Italy . . . . .	1921.. 18	5,352,041	138

**Births and Deaths for 1935.**—The number of births occurring in Japan Proper in 1934, as shown by the returns of the Statistics Bureau of the Cabinet, is 2,043,783. Contrasted with the previous year, the number shows a decrease of 77,470. The number of deaths for the year under review is 1,234,684, which is 40,697 larger than for the preceding year. The number of births is 809,099 more than that of deaths. It is 118,167 less than the difference of 927,266 for the previous year. This is due, as stated above, to the decrease in births and the increase in deaths.

Table 6. Birthrate per 1,000 people

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Japan (Japan proper) . . . . .	33.6	34.4	33.0	32.4	32.2
Great Britain . . . . .	17.1	17.2	16.7	16.8	16.3
Germany . . . . .	18.4	18.6	17.9	17.5	16.0
France . . . . .	18.1	18.2	17.7	18.1	17.4

Table 7. Deathrate for 1,000 people

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Japan (Japan proper) . . . . .	19.8	19.9	20.0	18.2	19.0
Great Britain . . . . .	12.5	11.9	13.6	11.7	12.5
Germany . . . . .	12.0	11.6	12.6	11.1	11.2
France . . . . .	16.5	16.5	15.7	15.7	16.3

**Natural Increase in Population.**—The natural increase in population caused by the increase in the difference between births and deaths differs somewhat according to year, but it has on the whole pursued an upward course. This natural increase in population was reckoned at over 700,000 yearly about a quarter of a century ago. In 1918 the number seriously decreased to less than 300,000 due chiefly to the prevalence of the Spanish influenza. The following year the number increased to 500,000. Since then it had gradually increased until 1926 it reached a height of 940,000. Later the number dropped to the level of 800,000. In 1930 the number recovered the 900,000 level at 914,000, or 14.2 in 1,000 people. In 1932 the number reached the 1,000,000 level at 1,007,000, or 15.19 in 1,000 people. It will thus be seen that the number had doubled or trebled during a brief space of ten odd years. From the following year, however, the number began to decline. The number for 1934 was the smallest on record since 1925 at 810,000. According to the returns of the Statistics Bureau of the Cabinet, the number of births taking place during the last three months of 1935 in Japan Proper was 542,252. Contrasted with the like period of the previous year, it shows an increase of 76,226. The number of deaths during the same period was 280,601. It is 3,016 less than 283,677 for the corresponding period of the preceding year. It will thus be seen that the number of births was 261,651 more than that of deaths. It is 79,302 larger than 182,349 for the like period of the foregoing year.

The number of births for the whole of 1935 was 2,190,681, which is the largest on record (250 per hour on an average). Compared with 2,043,807 for the previous year, it shows an expansion of 146,874. The proportion of the number of births to 1,000 is 31.63, which compares favourably with 29.97 for the foregoing year.

The number of deaths for the year is given as 1,162,058 (133 per hour on an average). It is 72,525 less than 1,234,583 in the preceding year.

The proportion of the number of deaths to 1,000 is 16.78, which is less than 18.10 for the preceding year. It is the lowest rate since 1899 in which the vital statistics were completed.

Thus, the number of births for the year under review exceeded that of deaths by 1,028,623, which was a natural increase in population. It even exceeded the past highest record of 1,007,398 shown by 1932 (117 per hour on an average). Contrasted with the natural increase of 809,224 shown by the previous year, it exhibits an increase of 219,399. The proportion of the number to 1,000 population is 14.8, which is larger than

11.87 for the foregoing year but smaller than 15.20 for 1932.

Table 8. Natural Increase in Population

Year	Births	Deaths	Increase
1929 . . . . .	2,077,026	1,261,228	815,978
1930 . . . . .	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234
1931 . . . . .	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893
1932 . . . . .	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398
1933 . . . . .	2,121,253	1,193,987	927,266
1934 . . . . .	2,043,783	1,234,684	809,099

**Married and Unmarried Population.**—The married and unmarried population in Japan Proper was first compiled in 1886, the quinquennial figures being given below:—

Table 9. Married and Unmarried Population

Dec.	Married			Unmarried		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1898 . . . . .	7,979,858	7,979,858	15,959,716	14,093,234	13,709,665	27,802,899
1903 . . . . .	8,229,152	8,229,152	16,458,304	15,372,488	14,902,084	30,274,572
1908 . . . . .	8,583,168	8,583,168	17,166,336	16,463,212	15,959,356	32,422,468
1913 . . . . .	9,144,727	9,144,727	18,289,454	17,819,859	17,253,369	35,073,228
1918 . . . . .	9,568,500	9,568,502	19,137,002	19,057,117	18,473,592	37,530,709
1925 . . . . .	11,860,690	11,881,960	23,742,650	16,739,639	14,454,786	31,194,425
1930 . . . . .	12,637,100	12,573,380	25,210,480	18,365,702	15,634,010	33,999,730

The figures for married males and females in 1918 do not agree because of the registration of bigamy by mistake and also of the denaturalization of a husband.

The figures for 1925 and 1930, in which the number of married males and females does not

agree, are the estimates deduced from the results of the quinquennial census taken in the respective years and are not final.

Ratios of the above figures for married and unmarried per 1,000 population are as follows:—

Table 10. Married and Unmarried per 1,000

Year	Married			Unmarried		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1898 . . . . .	182.3	182.3	364.6	322.1	313.3	635.4
1903 . . . . .	176.1	176.1	352.2	328.9	318.9	647.8
1908 . . . . .	173.1	173.1	346.2	332.0	321.8	653.8
1913 . . . . .	171.4	171.4	342.8	333.9	323.3	657.2
1918 . . . . .	168.9	168.9	337.8	336.2	326.0	662.2
1925 . . . . .	198.5	198.9	397.4	280.2	322.4	602.6
1930 . . . . .	196.0	195.1	391.1	284.9	324.0	608.9

The returns showing births and deaths were first prepared in 1883, and stillbirths in 1886. The following figures represent these numbers in the five years ending 1934 and the average for each five years as well as ratio per 1,000 population:—

Table 11. Births, Deaths, Marriage and Divorce

Year	Births		Stillbirths		Deaths		Marriage		Divorce	
	No.	Ratio	No.	Ratio	No.	Ratio	No.	Ratio	No.	Ratio
1929 . . . . .	2,077,026	33.0	116,971	1.86	1,261,228	20.0	497,410	7.90	51,222	0.81
1930 . . . . .	2,085,101	32.4	117,730	1.83	1,170,867	18.2	506,674	7.86	51,259	0.80
1931 . . . . .	2,102,784	32.2	116,509	1.78	1,240,891	20.0	496,574	7.60	50,609	0.77
1932 . . . . .	2,182,742	32.9	119,579	1.80	1,175,344	17.7	515,270	7.77	51,437	0.78
1933 . . . . .	2,121,253	31.6	114,138	1.70	1,193,987	17.8	486,058	7.23	49,282	0.73
1934 . . . . .	2,043,783	30.0	113,043	1.66	1,234,684	18.1	512,654	7.52	48,610	0.71
1909-13 . . . . .	1,729,925	33.7	153,920	2.99	1,052,735	20.5	434,786	8.45	59,023	1.15
1914-18 . . . . .	1,803,391	32.6	141,965	2.57	1,215,254	22.0	456,074	8.07	58,495	1.06
1919-23 . . . . .	1,961,547	34.4	136,277	2.39	1,322,411	23.2	514,833	9.03	53,998	0.95
1924-28 . . . . .	2,077,121	34.4	122,278	2.02	1,215,484	20.1	504,964	8.34	50,734	0.84
1929-32 . . . . .	2,116,707	33.0	118,196	1.84	1,217,005	19.2	502,697	7.83	50,729	0.75



Table 12. Age of Marriage

Age	1932		Ratio for 1932		1933		Ratio for 1933		1934		Ratio for 1934	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Under 15..	—	37	—	0.1	—	19	—	—	—	38	—	0.1
15—19 ....	7,734	92,064	15.0	178.7	6,635	80,592	13.7	165.8	6,186	78,091	12.1	162.3
20—24 ....	145,917	279,728	283.2	542.9	130,569	263,644	268.6	542.4	131,592	280,497	256.7	547.1
25—29 ....	214,886	83,836	417.0	162.7	205,402	83,152	422.6	171.1	223,695	92,582	436.3	180.6
30—34 ....	77,421	28,567	150.3	55.4	73,931	27,181	152.1	55.9	78,274	27,975	152.7	54.6
35—39 ....	29,299	13,044	56.9	25.3	29,129	13,320	59.9	27.4	30,075	13,867	58.7	20.0
40—49 ....	25,303	12,017	49.1	23.3	25,454	11,987	52.4	24.7	26,967	12,966	52.6	25.3
50—59 ....	10,720	4,886	20.8	9.5	10,740	4,999	22.1	10.3	11,441	5,373	22.3	10.5
Above 60..	5,990	1,091	7.7	2.1	4,195	1,164	8.6	2.4	4,424	1,265	8.6	2.5
Total....	515,270	515,270	1,000.0	1,000.0	486,058	486,058	1,000.0	1,000.0	512,654	512,654	1,000.0	1,000.0

Table 13. Birthrate

Year	Males	Females	Total	Males per 100 females	Legitimate	Illegitimate
1927 .....	1,048,946	1,011,791	2,060,737	103.7	93.0	7.0
1928 .....	1,090,702	1,045,150	2,135,852	104.4	93.3	6.7
1929 .....	1,058,666	1,018,360	2,077,026	104.0	93.4	6.6
*1930 .....	1,069,551	1,105,549	2,085,101	105.3	93.6	6.4
1931 .....	1,073,385	1,029,399	2,102,784	104.3	93.7	6.3
1932 .....	1,117,954	1,064,788	2,182,742	105.0	93.9	6.1
1933 .....	1,087,688	1,033,565	2,121,253	105.2	93.9	6.1
1934 .....	1,042,736	1,001,047	2,043,783	104.2	94.0	6.1

\* The total disagrees with its components because of its including unknown sexes.

Table 14. Rate of Stillbirth

Year	Males	Females	Unknown	Total	M. per 100 F.	Legitimate	Illegitimate
1927 .....	63,401	53,140	381	116,922	119.3	79.8	20.1
1928 .....	65,339	54,432	420	120,191	120.0	80.0	20.0
1929 .....	63,553	52,992	426	116,971	119.9	80.3	19.7
1930 .....	63,955	53,282	493	117,730	120.0	80.4	19.6
1931 .....	63,614	52,463	432	116,509	121.3	80.2	19.8
1932 .....	64,932	54,192	455	119,579	119.8	80.3	19.7
1933 .....	62,080	50,521	537	114,138	120.5	80.0	20.0
1934 .....	61,374	51,075	594	113,043	120.2	80.1	19.9

## The Average Age of Mortality

According to an Annual Report of the Sanitary Bureau of the Department of Home Affairs, the average age of mortality of Japanese in the five years ending 1933 is as follows:—

Table 15. Average Age of Mortality

	Male	Female
1929 .....	32.57	33.27
1930 .....	33.80	34.46

The average age of death for those males and females who live five days after birth is 45.84 for males and 47.43 for females, for those living one year 51.07 and 52.10, five years 51.85 and 53.00, ten years 47.93 and 49.18, twenty years 40.18 and 42.12, thirty year 33.43 and 35.98, forty years 25.74 and 29.01 and fifty years 18.49 and 21.67.

1931 .....	33.74	34.50
1932 .....	33.56	34.34
1933 .....	33.93	34.96

Table 16. Census Population of the Prefectures

(Enumerated at the Quinquennial Census taken Oct. 1, 1935)

Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Population	Prefecture	Area (sq. km.)	Population
Aichi .....	5,081	2,862,703	Kagawa .....	1,859	748,627
Akita .....	11,664	1,037,746	Kagoshima .....	9,104	1,591,422
Aomori .....	9,631	967,118	Kanagawa .....	2,353	1,839,998
Chiba .....	5,062	1,546,369	Kochi .....	7,104	714,985
Ehime .....	5,667	1,164,895	Kumamoto .....	7,438	1,387,037
Fukui .....	4,264	646,748	Kyoto .....	4,621	1,702,501
Fukuoka .....	4,940	2,753,641	Miyagi .....	7,271	1,234,795
Fukushima .....	13,782	1,581,549	Miyazaki .....	7,739	824,436
Gifu .....	10,495	1,225,806	Miye .....	5,765	1,174,592
Gumma .....	6,336	1,242,449	Nagano .....	13,626	1,713,856
Hiroshima .....	8,437	1,804,912	Nagasaki .....	4,076	1,296,872
Hokkaido .....	88,775	3,068,283	Nara .....	3,689	620,461
Hyogo .....	8,323	2,923,121	Niigata .....	12,578	1,995,776
Ibaraki .....	6,091	1,548,988	Oita .....	6,334	980,452
Ishikawa .....	4,192	768,415	Okayama .....	7,046	1,332,639
Iwate .....	15,235	1,046,133	Okinawa .....	2,386	592,474
Osaka .....	1,814	4,297,166	Tokyo .....	2,145	6,369,639
Saga .....	2,449	686,116	Tottori .....	3,489	490,458
Saitama .....	3,803	1,528,857	Toyama .....	4,257	798,889
Shiga .....	4,051	711,442	Wakayama .....	4,723	864,088
Shimane .....	6,625	747,116	Yamagata .....	9,326	1,116,801
Shizuoka .....	7,770	1,939,830	Yamaguchi .....	6,082	1,190,532
Tochigi .....	6,437	1,195,052	Yamanashi .....	4,466	646,732
Tokushima .....	4,143	728,748			

Table 17. Census Population of the Cities

(Enumerated at the Quinquennial Census taken Oct. 1, 1935)

Cities	No. of population	No. of households	Increase of pop. on 1930 census	Cities	No. of population	No. of households	Increase of pop. on 1930 census
Akashi .....	42,637	9,406	3,679	Kawasaki .....	154,748	30,656	50,397
Akita .....	71,646	10,961	9,576	Kiryu .....	76,145	13,478	23,239
Amagasaki .....	71,068	14,783	21,004	Kishiwada .....	39,097	8,565	3,995
Aomori .....	93,413	17,693	16,310	Kobe .....	912,140	198,018	124,524
Asahikawa .....	91,019	16,356	8,505	Kochi .....	103,414	24,033	6,426
Ashikaga .....	48,878	8,999	4,980	Kofu .....	82,663	17,068	3,216
Beppu .....	62,346	13,596	19,272	Kokura .....	110,371	22,798	22,322
Chiba .....	57,445	11,938	8,357	Koriyama .....	54,712	9,895	3,345
Choshi .....	48,342	9,857	—	Kumagaya .....	37,648	7,227	—
Fukui .....	75,273	16,861	11,074	Kumamoto .....	187,368	36,311	22,322
Fukuoka .....	291,157	55,184	67,868	Kurashiki .....	34,717	7,366	4,605
Fukushima .....	48,483	8,842	2,791	Kure .....	231,334	46,707	41,052
Fukuyama .....	58,186	12,394	19,972	Kurume .....	91,919	16,468	8,910
Gifu .....	128,714	25,936	38,602	Kushiro .....	56,170	10,237	4,584
Hachinohe .....	62,214	10,853	9,307	Koy to .....	1,080,592	224,663	315,450
Hachioji .....	59,495	11,338	7,607	Marugame .....	29,611	6,308	774
Hagi .....	32,586	7,160	—	Matsumoto .....	73,341	14,851	1,200
Hakodate .....	207,488	39,196	10,236	Matsuyama .....	81,940	18,363	537
Hamamatsu .....	133,336	25,702	23,858	Matsuye .....	52,034	10,623	7,532
Himeji .....	91,371	18,210	29,200	Matsuzaka .....	35,661	7,199	—
Hiratsuka .....	38,346	7,640	—	Mayebashi .....	87,181	16,953	2,256
Hirosaki .....	46,013	8,555	2,676	Mito .....	63,816	12,958	13,168
Hiroshima .....	310,117	66,336	39,700	Miyakonojo .....	36,575	7,201	1,063
Ichinomiya .....	53,376	10,009	11,147	Miyazaki .....	64,729	12,925	10,129
Iizuka .....	39,629	7,777	—	Moji .....	121,609	26,415	13,479
Imabari .....	51,602	11,020	7,867	Morioka .....	69,127	12,847	6,878
Ishinomaki .....	33,628	5,726	—	Muroran .....	65,095	12,343	9,240
Kagoshima .....	181,734	35,647	44,498	Nagano .....	77,324	15,483	3,412
Kainan .....	29,917	6,376	—	Nagaoka .....	62,151	11,860	4,285
Kanazawa .....	163,733	35,399	6,422	Nagasaki .....	211,702	43,470	7,076
Karatsu .....	31,059	6,230	—	Nagoya .....	1,082,814	219,739	175,410
Kawagoye .....	35,188	6,954	983	Nakatsu .....	30,327	6,105	—
Kawaguchi .....	53,718	10,245	—	Naokata .....	43,948	8,528	1,764



Nara .....	55,968	11,840	3,184	Takasaki ....	64,283	12,907	4,355
Nawa .....	65,204	15,241	4,669	Takata .....	31,284	5,758	350
Niigata .....	134,992	26,319	9,884	Tobata .....	67,808	13,937	6,134
Nishinomiya .	89,907	18,241	5,547	Tokushima ...	97,022	21,168	6,388
Nobeoka .....	56,421	10,089	—	Tokyo .....	5,875,388	1,191,939	3,804,475
Numazu .....	49,824	9,063	5,797	Tottori .....	45,335	9,217	8,146
Obihiro .....	35,695	6,980	—	Toyama .....	83,325	17,262	8,226
Ogaki .....	49,276	9,888	10,768	Toyohashi ...	140,736	27,285	42,181
Oita .....	61,731	11,168	4,437	Tsu .....	65,971	13,628	9,436
Okayama ....	166,145	35,837	26,933	Tsuruoka ....	37,224	7,191	2,908
Okazaki .....	77,195	15,650	11,688	Tsuyama ....	36,088	7,784	1,929
Omuda .....	104,989	20,685	7,691	Ube .....	76,644	16,488	15,472
Onomichi .....	30,776	6,950	1,692	Uji-Yamada .	52,494	10,790	1,414
Osaka .....	2,989,868	630,232	536,293	Urawa .....	44,329	8,772	—
Otaru .....	153,587	29,223	8,700	Utsunomiya .	87,127	17,355	5,739
Otsu .....	71,065	14,235	26,686	Uwajima ....	51,280	11,127	7,004
Saga .....	50,154	9,406	3,971	Uyeda .....	35,380	7,620	242
Sakai .....	141,286	29,518	20,938	Wakamatsu	—	—	—
Sakata .....	31,870	6,374	—	(Fukushima-ken)	46,200	8,517	2,469
Sanjyo .....	34,649	6,331	—	Wakamatsu	—	—	—
Sapporo .....	196,539	38,019	27,963	(Fukuoka-ken)	73,344	15,253	16,024
Sasebo .....	173,283	31,009	40,109	Wakayama ..	179,731	38,943	72,287
Sendai .....	219,545	39,883	29,365	Yamagata ...	69,934	12,635	6,511
Seto .....	47,552	10,092	10,243	Yamaguchi ..	34,803	7,156	2,418
Shimizu .....	61,123	11,629	5,458	Yawata .....	208,624	42,922	40,407
Shimonoseki ..	132,738	28,833	34,195	Yawatahama .	30,501	6,537	—
Shingyu .....	32,055	7,458	—	Yokkaichi ...	58,472	12,381	6,762
Shizuoka ....	200,736	36,492	64,255	Yokohama ...	704,290	148,545	83,984
Shuri .....	19,306	4,571	813	Yokosuka ....	182,871	31,640	72,570
Takamatsu ..	86,835	18,803	6,929	Yonago .....	36,635	7,950	3,003
Takaoka .....	57,249	11,299	5,489	Yonezawa ....	50,447	8,878	5,816

Table 18. Distribution of Urban and Rural Population

Population	Result of 2nd Census (1925)			Results of 3rd Census (1930)		
	No. of towns	Population	Pct.	No. of towns	Population	Pct.
Under 500 .....	82	26,103	0.04	70	21,766	0.03
501-2,000 .....	2,542	3,848,410	6.45	2,350	3,543,608	5.50
2,001-5,000 .....	7,052	22,533,803	37.72	6,886	22,120,136	34.32
5,001-10,000 .....	1,734	11,475,200	19.21	1,878	12,472,034	19.35
10,001-20,000 .....	392	5,229,161	8.75	426	5,718,034	8.87
20,001-50,000 .....	145	4,437,992	7.43	158	4,690,674	7.28
50,001-100,000 .....	51	3,444,916	5.77	65	4,402,415	6.83
Over 100,000 .....	21	8,741,237	14.63	32	11,481,288	17.82
Total .....	12,019	59,736,822	100.00	11,865	64,450,005	100.00

Table 19. Population Classified by Calling (2nd Census)

	Employers		Independent		Employed		Total
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	
Agriculture .....	4,084,190	192,976	485,592	243,732	3,173,283	5,960,334	14,140,107
Fishery .....	115,065	755	114,755	11,671	271,258	43,120	546,624
Mining .....	4,439	41	5,239	71	200,496	40,934	251,220
Industry .....	657,539	29,105	802,627	172,629	2,808,985	1,228,696	5,699,581
Trade .....	826,814	126,242	887,258	355,228	1,299,831	982,725	4,478,098
Transportation ....	60,152	806	120,423	925	848,020	77,248	1,107,574
(Civil service and Professional occupations) .....	44,166	4,772	115,586	58,390	1,532,051	289,186	2,044,151
Domestic employees.	—	—	—	—	84,203	697,116	781,319
Others .....	2,787	95	27,476	4,223	457,982	78,383	570,966
Without fixed calling	—	—	—	—	—	—	34,830,365
Total .....	5,795,152	354,792	2,558,976	836,869	10,676,109	9,397,742	64,450,005

Table 20. Census Population By Occupation (3rd Census)

Kinds of Occupation	Population			Those having subsidiary work		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture .....	7,791,030	6,365,000	14,156,030	3,443,080	2,368,000	5,811,080
Fishery .....	521,040	47,000	568,040	71,010	6,000	77,010
Mining .....	198,180	38,000	236,180	5,000	2,000	7,000
Industry .....	4,286,560	1,004,000	5,290,560	305,010	42,000	347,010
Trade .....	3,026,110	1,437,000	4,463,110	222,000	60,000	282,000
Transportation .....	1,027,560	81,000	1,108,560	63,000	3,000	66,000
Civil service and professional occupations.	1,685,060	346,010	2,031,070	103,000	5,000	108,000
Employee .....	87,000	719,000	806,000	3,000	3,000	6,000
Others .....	466,980	94,020	561,000	22,000	6,000	28,000
Without fixed calling ..	13,205,370	21,641,130	34,846,500	58,010	815,000	873,010
Total .....	32,294,890	31,772,160	64,067,050	4,295,110	3,310,000	7,605,110

Foreign Residents in Japan

The number of foreign residents in Japan as at the end of 1934, as shown by the returns of the Statistics Bureau of the Cabinet, stood at 32,641. It shows an increase of 3,373 over the previous year. Tokyo tops the list with 7,641, followed by Hyogo with 7,490, Kanagawa with 4,967, Osaka with 2,975, Nagasaki 1,412, Kyoto 906, Aichi 786, Fukuoka 786, the Hokkaido 638. The number of foreign residents by sex for five years ending 1934 is as follows:—

Table 21. Foreign Residents in Japan

Year	Male	Female	Total
1929 .....	27,972	10,857	38,829
1930 .....	28,612	11,678	40,290
1931 .....	19,655	8,662	28,317
1932 .....	18,615	8,270	26,885
1933 .....	19,764	9,504	29,268
1934 .....	21,895	10,746	32,641

As for the nationality of foreign residents in Japan, Chinese come first with 22,741, Americans with 2,082, English 1,953, Russians with 1,457, Germans 1,254. The detailed figures for 1932, 1933 and 1934 tabulated according to nationality are as follows:—

Table 22. Foreign Residents By Nationality

Nationality	1932	1933	1934
Austria .....	39	45	48
British India ...	287	317	395
China .....	17,819	19,932	22,741
Canada .....	227	304	311
Denmark .....	81	82	92
France .....	462	491	512
Germany .....	1,040	1,118	1,254
Great Britain ....	1,969	1,944	1,953
Italy .....	132	132	130
Netherlands .....	110	139	163
Portugal .....	171	158	107
Soviet Russia ...	1,537	1,479	1,457
Sweden .....	80	79	91
Switzerland .....	225	203	187
United States ...	2,015	2,039	2,082
Total incl. others	26,886	29,268	32,641

Table 23. Foreign Visitors to Japan

Nationality	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
British ...	3,705	3,523	3,525	5,117	6,391
Americans	7,586	6,162	4,310	5,792	7,947
Germans ..	746	672	721	1,118	1,313
French ...	378	462	478	636	883
Russians ..	1,139	1,082	1,066	1,091	1,427
Chinese ...	14,163	12,877	7,792	9,146	12,676
Others ...	1,888	2,494	3,068	3,364	4,559
Total ...	29,605	27,272	20,960	26,264	35,196

LEGAL STATUS OF FOREIGNERS

Landownership and Naturalization

With some exceptions the foreigners living in Japan enjoy the same status as native subjects, so far as rights and privileges are concerned. At the same time the foreigners are just as amenable to the criminal laws and punitive provisions of the realm as the Japanese. The exceptions mentioned above relate first to mining concessions which are granted only to native subjects or to companies formed under Japanese laws. Foreigners may therefore enjoy mining rights by becoming shareholders of a company so formed. Then certain subsidized companies such as the Nippon Yusen Kaisha and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha or the banks under special protection like the Bank of Japan, the Yokohama Specie Bank, etc. are not allowed to take foreigners as shareholders.

Alien Landownership

This was first sanctioned in 1910 by law, but as the date for putting it into operation was left unfixed the law remained as dead letter. A new law voted in the 50th session of the Imperial Diet and promulgated on April 1, 1925, has replaced the original enactment, the measure being put in force on November 10, 1926. The law in question is essentially based on the spirit of reciprocity and recognizes the right of alien



ownership as mutual concession. In other words, this right is extended only to citizens, either as individuals or as majority partners, shareholders, etc., of foreign juridical persons, of those foreign countries that recognize mutatis mutandis similar right of Japanese subjects. According to the law, foreigners cannot own land or acquire superficies or emphyteusis in certain districts of strategic importance without permission of the Ministers of Army and Navy, such districts being designated in the ordinance relating to the operation of the alien landownership law, promulgated on November 1st, 1926.

#### Naturalization

A foreigner may become a Japanese subject under the following conditions, viz., (1) That he has been domiciled in Japan for at least five years continuously; (2) is at least 20 years of age and possesses civil capacity according to the law of his native country; (3) is of good moral; (4) possesses property or ability to maintain himself; (5) possesses no nationality or will lose it on being made a Japanese subject.

The above conditions are much modified for those whose fathers, mothers or wives were Japanese subjects, and for those who were born in Japan of either Japanese father or mother. Those who have lived in Japan for ten years or more may be naturalized even when they have

Table 25. Number of New Emigrants in Recent Years

Name of Country	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Brazil .....	13,741	5,565	15,108	23,299	22,960
Philippines .....	2,685	1,109	746	941	1,544
Peru .....	831	299	369	481	473
British Canada .....	137	106	98	91	105
U. S. S. R. ....	1,512	1,238	1,096	1,095	1,320
Malay States .....	835	549	356	322	598
Dutch East Indies .....	558	447	533	468	356
U. S. A. ....	—	—	—	—	—
Hawaii .....	—	—	—	—	—
Argentina .....	489	362	239	135	112
Mexico .....	434	283	149	85	80
Australia .....	75	34	101	59	105
Other places .....	531	392	233	341	434
Total .....	21,828	10,384	19,028	27,317	28,087

Formerly, affairs relating to emigration and settlement were under the control of the Department of Home Affairs. With the establishment of the Department of Overseas Affairs in June, 1929, however, they were transferred to the new Department, which has since been co-operating with various private associations in promoting the external development of the country by taking protective and encouraging measures for emigration and settlement. Mention must

not domiciled for five consecutive years, while for those who have made distinguished services to Japan the process of naturalization may, with Imperial sanction, be made very simple, i.e., continuous residence or domicile in Japan for at least one year and good morals. The nationality can also be acquired by being adopted by a Japanese subject. Naturalization still remains comparatively insignificant in number, the bulk being supplied by Chinese living in Taiwan.

Table 24. Naturalization

Year	Marrying into family	Adopted	Naturalized	Rehabilitated
1929 .....	3	1	9	27
1930 .....	4	—	1	29
1931 .....	1	1	3	35
1932 .....	3	4	9	55
1933 .....	4	2	—	124
1934 .....	1	—	5	167

#### Emigration

According to the returns of the Statistics Bureau of the Cabinet, 28,087 persons were given permit for emigration in 1934, the number showing an increase of 770 over the preceding year. 22,960, or 82% went to Brazil, 1,544, or 5.5% to the Philippines, 1,320, or 4.7% to the Soviet Union, 598 to the British Malay and the Straits Settlements, 473 to Peru, 356 to the Dutch Indies. The number of emigrants who returned home in 1933 was 14,141.

especially be made of the fact that in September, 1932 the question that had been pending for many years was settled when the Government started granting a subsidy to emigrants to help them prepare for setting out on a long journey. The number of emigrants who went to and that of those who returned from different countries during the ten years ending 1934 is tabulated below:—

Table 26. Emigrants Going and Returning and Remittances

Year	Number of emigrants who departed			Those who returned (men & women)	Money remitted by emigrants (¥ 1,000)
	Men	Women	Total		
1925 .....	7,077	3,619	10,696	13,918	25,453
1926 .....	10,555	5,629	16,184	14,549	24,945
1927 .....	11,735	6,306	18,041	14,735	24,441
1928 .....	12,502	7,348	19,850	15,004	27,613
1929 .....	16,330	9,374	25,704	14,073	28,145
1930 .....	14,130	7,699	21,829	14,546	23,195
1931 .....	7,052	3,332	10,384	12,965	17,914
1932 .....	11,408	7,625	19,033	13,170	20,066
1933 .....	15,919	11,398	27,317	14,141	20,307
1934 .....	16,419	11,668	28,087	—	20,532

#### Japanese Residents Abroad

The number of Japanese residents abroad on October 1, 1934, as shown by the returns of the Statistics Bureau of the Cabinet, was 872,807, of which 496,390, or 57% were males and 376,417 females. To classify the number of Japanese residents abroad by continents, Asia comes first with 339,998, followed by South America with 201,740, North America with 174,230, Oceania with 153,684, Europe 2,961, Africa 201.

As for the occupations of the Japanese residents, in 1930 agriculture claimed the largest proportion at 20%, followed by commerce with 10%, industry 9%, official and other duties 2%.

Table 27. Japanese Residents Abroad By Continents

	1930	1931	1932	1933
N. America .	127,964	131,152	129,429	174,230
Asia .....	109,866	205,777	228,208	339,998
Europe ....	3,997	3,896	3,778	2,954
S. America .	142,648	146,678	160,387	201,740
Africa .....	69	104	152	201
Oceania ....	125,210	147,820	150,312	153,684
Total ....	509,754	635,227	672,266	872,807

Table 28. Number of Japanese Residing Abroad By Countries on October 1, 1934

District	Male			Female			Total		
Grand total .....	496,390	376,417	872,807						
Asia									
Total .....	196,515	143,483	339,998						
East Russia .....	2,293	199	2,492						
Vladivostock .....	63	61	124						
Alexandrovsk .....	475	65	540						
Petropavlovsk .....	—	—	—						
Habarovsk .....	6	4	10						
Manchoukuo .....	138,511	105,357	243,868						
Chientao .....	6,127	4,066	10,193						
Antung .....	8,582	7,513	16,095						
Yingkow .....	5,575	6,477	12,052						
Mukden .....	57,691	47,463	105,154						
Hsinking .....	27,345	20,407	47,752						
Harbin .....	12,285	7,411	19,696						

Kirin .....	4,837	2,988	7,825
China .....	30,364	25,685	56,049
Tientsin .....	4,802	4,044	8,846
Tsingtao .....	7,131	6,788	13,919
Tsinan .....	1,393	1,292	2,685
Shanghai .....	15,018	11,796	26,814
Hankow .....	903	837	1,740
Amoy .....	194	156	350
Fuchou .....	271	122	393
Canton .....	139	160	299
Hongkong .....	743	735	1,478
Siam .....	268	121	389
French Indo-China ...	119	117	236
British India & Ceylon	820	596	1,416
Calcutta .....	208	137	345
Bombay .....	285	244	529
Rangoon .....	295	195	490
Colombo .....	32	20	52
Singapore .....	4,034	2,625	6,659
British Borneo & Sarawak .....	575	237	812
Straits Settlements, Malay States ...	3,459	2,388	5,847
Dutch East Indies ...	4,761	1,777	6,538
Philippines .....	14,577	6,261	20,838
Davao .....	9,476	4,046	13,522
Manila .....	4,949	2,087	7,036
Guam .....	152	128	280

#### Europe

Total .....	Male	Female	Total
Total .....	2,099	855	2,954
District			
England .....	954	469	1,423
Germany .....	462	68	530
France .....	377	136	513
Belgium .....	34	22	56
Spain .....	17	13	30
Netherlands .....	13	15	28
Switzerland .....	48	22	70
Italy .....	45	23	68
Austria .....	22	14	36
U. S. S. R. ....	54	25	79

#### North America

Total .....	Male	Female	Total
Total .....	101,198	73,032	174,230
District			
U. S. A. ....	84,923	61,785	146,708
San Francisco .....	36,240	22,612	58,852
Los Angeles .....	31,515	28,113	59,628
Portland .....	3,504	2,482	5,986
Seattle .....	9,957	6,796	16,753



Chicago .....	705	422	1,127
New York .....	2,533	1,087	3,620
New Orleans .....	469	273	742
Canada .....	12,225	8,837	21,062
Ottawa .....	194	105	299
Vancouver .....	12,031	8,732	20,763
Mexico .....	3,246	2,114	5,360
Panama .....	251	82	333
Cuba .....	548	213	761

## South America

	Male	Female	Total
Total .....	115,862	85,878	201,740
District			
Brazil .....	96,757	76,743	173,500
Argentina .....	4,110	1,382	5,492
Peru .....	13,915	7,212	21,127
Bolivia .....	524	237	761
Chile .....	415	223	638
Colombia .....	99	70	169

## Africa

	Male	Female	Total
Total .....	119	82	201
District			
Egypt .....	50	31	81

## Oceania

	Male	Female	Total
Total .....	80,597	73,087	153,684
District			
Sydney .....	2,488	364	2,852
Hawaiian Islands .....	78,109	72,723	150,832
Honolulu .....	26,538	24,842	51,380
Hawaii .....	18,560	17,377	35,937
Others .....	20,388	19,327	39,715

Note:—The figures in the above table exclude Japanese residents in the Kwantung Province and the South Seas under Japanese mandate.

## Expatriation of Japanese

Until 1916 Japan did not recognize expatriation of her sons and daughters who acquired foreign citizenship, excepting those females who married foreign subjects. The result was the Japanese who legally became American citizens, for example, still figured on Japanese census register so that they stood on the peculiar status of double nationality. This procedure was at last changed and the Law of Nationality was revised in August 1916. The law was further amended in December, 1924 and the foreign countries to which the expatriation applies was designated to be (1) U.S.A., (2) Argentina, (3) Brazil, (4) Canada, (5) Chile, and (6) Peru. It may be noted that those American or Canadian-born Japanese boys not yet expatriated are still

technically liable to the Japanese conscription law, so that the crux of "double nationality" question remains unsolved, as is also the case with the Prussian or French boys born in America.

The number of those Japanese subjects who on account of having acquired citizenship in foreign countries lost their Japanese nationality under the revised Nationality Law in recent years is as follows (the bulk being those who have become American citizens):—

Table 29. Naturalization of Japanese

1929 .....	708	1932 .....	1,541
1930 .....	697	1933 .....	1,696
1931 .....	774	1934 .....	1,144

Apart from Manchoukuo and China, which are differently circumstanced from other countries in so far as the question of our emigration is concerned and also the United States, Hawaii and Canada, which are no longer prospective fields for our emigration, reference will be made to conditions of resident Japanese in Central and South America and the South Seas.

## South America

**Brazil.**—It was in 1911 that the first Japanese emigrants were sent to Brazil. From 1913 or 1914 to 1919 several thousand emigrants crossed over to that country. From 1923 the number began distinctly to increase until it reached 12,000 in 1927 and 15,000 in 1929. The following year the number decreased to 13,741 owing to the growing economic depression in Japan and a political change and the trade depression in Brazil. In 1931 the number further declined to 5,565. In 1932, however, the number of emigrants increased to 15,097 due to such favourable factors as improvement of economic conditions in Japan and to the Government starting to grant a subsidy to emigrants. The following year emigrants increased further to as large a number as 23,389. The number of Japanese emigrants in Brazil as on October 1, 1934, as shown by the returns of the Foreign Office, stood at 173,500.

Most of these Japanese emigrants, or 93 per cent. reside in Sao Paulo. Compared with about 150,000 in Sao Paulo, about 5,000 in Minas Geraes and three other southern provinces and 2,500 in such provinces as Rio de Janeiro, Para and Amazonas will dwindle into insignificance.

As for the occupations of these Japanese emigrants, the majority of them are engaged in farming for the reason that Brazil is a great agricultural country, and that almost all our

emigrants have sailed to that country for the purpose of pursuing agriculture. It is estimated that over 160,000 are engaged in farming 2,000 in commerce, and 1,000 in the manufacturing industry. Of the rest, about 400 attend to public and other duties and 250 are domestic servants.

The majority of Japanese farmers work on the coffee plantations. Of late years many of them have taken to the cultivation of rice, cotton, tobacco and sugar cane. Besides, the culture of fruits and vegetables and sericulture are increasingly engaging the attention of entrepreneurs. Especially reputable is the cultivation of potatoes by Japanese in the neighbourhood of Sao Paulo. There are not a few successful Japanese farmers in Sao Paulo, who own big farms and employ many hands.

**Argentina.**—The Japanese emigrants sailed to Argentina for the first time in 1907. But, the number of emigrants to that country has always been quite limited. The number, which stood at 362 in 1931, decreased to 239 in 1932 and to 135 in 1933. The total number of Japanese residents in that country as on October 1, 1934 was 5,496. Of this number about 2,000 were in Buenos Aires and the rest are scattered over many other parts of the country. As for their occupations, industry comes first with about 1,100, followed by agriculture with 1,000, and commerce with 900. Most of these industrialists are engaged in spinning. The agriculture pursued by the Japanese emigrants consist chiefly of the cultivation of cotton and tea.

**Peru.**—The first emigration of Japanese to Peru dates back to 1899. To give the number of emigrants to that country in recent years, 1931 registered 299, 1932 369 and 1933 481. The total number of Japanese residents on October 1, 1934 was 21,127. About a half of them, or 17,000 were in Lima and the rest scattered over various localities. Classifying residents Japanese according to occupations, about 5,000 are engaged in commerce, 2,000 in agriculture, 500 in the manufacturing industry and 150 attend to official and other duties.

The Japanese residents are tending to concentrate on Lima, Callao and other cities. Almost all the Japanese residents in the above-mentioned two cities are engaged in commerce, their number being estimated at more than 10,200.

**Other South American Countries.**—Other countries in South America, or Chile, Colombia, Bolivia, Paraguay, Venezuela, etc., do not restrict in any way the entry of Japanese emigrants.

All these countries are well suited to agriculture, but Japanese residents are still quite limited. There are 638 Japanese in Chile, 761 in Bolivia, 169 in Colombia, 39 in Uruguay, and 6 in Paraguay.

## Central America

No country in Central America has a larger number of Japanese residents than Mexico. It was as long ago as 1897 that Japanese emigrants sailed to that country for the first time. The inauguration of the Gentlemen's Agreement between Japan and America greatly stimulated emigration to Mexico. 1906 and 1907 saw a tremendous increase in Japanese emigrants. Owing to the prevalence of pestilence and the revolutionary disturbances in that country, the number of emigrants has since seriously decreased. New emigrants numbered 283 in 1931, 149 in 1932, 85 in 1933 and 80 in 1934.

The total number of Japanese residents in Mexico as on October 1, 1934 stood at 5,475. About a half of them were in Mexico City and other places in the central part of the country and the other half in the three north-western states and other localities.

The principal occupations of the Japanese residents are agriculture, horticulture, stockfarming. Besides Mexico, there are 333 Japanese in Panama and 1,115 in Cuba.

## Philippines

At present the Philippines come next in importance to South America in regard to Japanese emigration. They are preceded only by Brazil in the yearly number of settlers. The first emigration of Japanese to the islands was in 1900. Though their number was then very small, it so swiftly increased that 1903 saw over 2,200 new emigrants and 1904 29,000 to the islands. To give the number of new emigrants to the islands inclusive of Guam in recent years, 1931 registered 1,109, 1932 746, 1933 941, and 1934 1,544. The total number of Japanese residents in the islands as on October 1, 1934 was 20,558. As for the distribution of these Japanese residents, 4,076 were in Manila, 1,567 in Luzon (exclusive of Manila City), 13,141 in Davao and Kotabatu. Most of the Japanese are engaged in agriculture, Manila hemp being their principal product.

There are also many Japanese resident in the Malay States and the Straits Settlements, British North Borneo and Sarawak, the Dutch East Indies, British India and Siam.



The number of Japanese residents in those places as on October 1, 1934 are as follows:—

Malay States and Straits Settlements	5,847
Dutch East Indies	6,538
Siam	389
British North Borneo and Sarawak	812
French Indo-China	236
British India and Ceylon	1,416

Most of the Japanese residents are clerks of banks and companies and shops. There are also a considerable number of domestic servants and tradesmen. As to farming, rubber and cocoa are principal farm products, followed by sugar and tea.

#### Emigration to Manchoukuo

The Japanese Government have so far sent to Manchoukuo at four different times special agricultural emigrants representing about 1,800 families. In view of the fact that such a large number of emigrants have settled in Manchoukuo in a comparatively brief space of time since the establishment of the country, the authorities decide that the time has come for the sending of larger numbers of emigrants and contemplate sending large groups of emigrants from 1936 onwards. In October, 1935 there was established a society called the Manchoukuo Emigration Society for the purpose of helping the development of emigration to that country. In December of the same year the Manchoukuo Colonization Company was brought into being with the object of helping the emigration of Japanese farmers and assuring their settlement. (For particulars of emigration to Manchoukuo see Chapter on Population and Emigration in the Manchoukuo Section of the Japan-Manchoukuo Year Book).

**Korean Emigration to Manchoukuo.**—Owing to the close proximity of their country to Manchoukuo, Koreans have emigrated to Manchuria from olden times. Their number has yearly increased in distinct manner since 1870 or so.

From old days Chientao has been the most attractive place for Korean emigrants to Manchuria chiefly because the boundaries between China and Korea about Chientao were not clearly demarcated and partly because of its thin density of population consequent upon being situated at the north-eastern corner of China and of the fertility of soil.

In 1890 there was an unusually large exodus of Koreans to Chientao when sufferers from a serious famine in the northern part of the peninsula migrated thither. Since a temporary branch office of the Residency-General was set up at Chientao in 1907 in order to protect the local Korean settlers, the migration of Koreans from various parts of the peninsula has steadily increased. The number of Korean residents in Chientao at the end of June, 1934 was 421,945, which occupied over 80 per cent. of the total population of the place. The greater part of the arable land is owned by Koreans, and the arable land owned by Manchus is also worked by Koreans. Thus, Chientao looks as if it were an extension of Korea.

The number of Korean settlers in other parts of Manchoukuo, which has been distinctly on the increase ever since the Manchurian incident, was reckoned at 295,562 as at the end of June, 1934. The authorities have worked out a scheme for setting up 2,500 Korean independent farming households in Manchoukuo in the course of five years from 1932 at an estimated expenditure of ¥2,000,000. It is now under way at the hands of the Oriental Development Company.

## CHAPTER V

### IMPERIAL COURT

*For the Imperial House Law see Chapter V of the 1934 edition—Editor*

#### THE IMPERIAL HOUSE

##### The Reigning Sovereign

His Imperial Majesty Hirohito, the reigning Emperor of Japan (124th of the line), is the first son of the late Emperor Taisho (Taisho Tenno), born on April 29th, 1901. He was nominated Heir-Apparent on September 9th, 1912, being at the same time appointed Sublieutenant of the Army and Second Sublieutenant of the Imperial Navy and decorated with the Grand Cordon of the Chrysanthemum; promoted to Lieutenant of the Army and 1st Sub-Lieutenant of the Navy on October 31st, 1914; to Captain and Lieutenant on October 31st, 1916; promoted to Major and Lieut.-Commander on Oct. 31st, 1920; visited Europe in 1921; appointed Regent on Nov. 25th, 1921; promoted to Lieut.-Colonel and Commander on Oct. 31st, 1923; married Princess Nagako Kuni (first daughter of H.I.H. Prince Kuni) on Jan. 26th, 1924; promoted to Colonel and Captain (Navy) on Oct. 31st, 1924; acceded to the Throne on the death of his father Emperor Taisho on Dec. 25th, 1926; formally enthroned on Nov. 10th, 1928.

On March 3rd, 1921, His Majesty (then Crown Prince) proceeded to Europe to make observations and exchange courtesies with the sovereigns and rulers of European countries, returning home in September the same year. It was an epochmaking event in the history of the Japanese Imperial House as it was the first Crown Prince of this Empire who ever stepped out of the country and visited foreign lands, and moreover it was an unqualified success in every respect, particularly having had the result of promoting and further cementing the happy relations between Japan and her friendly Powers in the Occident. After returning from the foreign tour, he was appointed Regent in November, 1921, to conduct affairs of State in place of his Imperial father who, on account of chronic illness, was incapacitated from performing his onerous duties as Emperor. In January, 1924, he married Princess Nagako, eldest daughter of H. I. H. General Prince Kuniyoshi Kuni. Then on the 25th of December, 1926, following the death of his father Emperor Yoshihito (Taisho Tenno) he

ascended the Throne as the 124th Emperor, the new era named Showa being adopted for his reign. The enthronement of the sovereign was officially celebrated at the ancient Capital of Kyoto in November (10th to 15th), 1928, after the lapse of one year's mourning over the demise of the departed Emperor according to traditional custom, the national function being performed with time-honoured ceremonies.

**Nagako**, the Empress, first daughter of the late Prince Kuniyoshi Kuni, born on March 6th, 1903. Her Majesty was educated at the Peereses' School and afterwards studied under private tutors at her home. Married the Emperor (then Crown Prince) Jan. 26th, 1924.

**Sadako**, the Empress Dowager (consort of the late Emperor Taisho), born June 25th, 1884; fourth daughter of the late Prince Michitaka Kujo, a noble of the first rank; married Emperor Taisho (then Crown Prince) on May 10th, 1900; widow Dec. 25th, 1926.

##### The Crown Prince

**Tsugu-no-miya Akihito**, first son of the Emperor, born on December 23rd, 1933.

##### Other Children of the Emperor

**Shigeko** (Teru-no-Miya), first daughter of the Emperor, born Dec. 6th, 1925.

**Kazuko** (Taka-no-Miya), third daughter of the Emperor, born Sept. 30th, 1929.

**Atsuko** (Yori-no-Miya), fourth daughter of the Emperor, born Mar. 7th, 1931.

**Masahito** (Yoshi-no-Miya), second son of the Emperor born Nov. 28th, 1935.

##### Brothers of the Emperor

**Chichibu-no-Miya** (Residence-Akasaka-ku.)

**Prince Yasuhito**, present head (1st of the line) and second son of the late Emperor Taisho, born June 25th, 1902. His house-name was formerly Atsu-no-Miya, but on attaining majority in June, 1922 the Prince founded a new house (Chichibu-no-Miya) by Imperial order. The Prince was educated at the Peers' School and, after finishing the middle school course of the institution, entered the Central Military Preparatory School



in 1917 to receive military education; further studied at the Military Academy, graduating in 1922; was appointed Sub-Lieutenant (infantry) in October the same year and attached to the Imperial Guards Division; promoted to Lieutenant in 1925 and then to Captain in 1930; meanwhile studied at the Military Staff College from 1928 to 1930; attached to the 3rd infantry regiment of the Imperial Guards Division and also attached to the General Staff Office, 1932-1935; now appointed Major and Comdr. of battalion of the 31st infantry regiment; visited Manchoukuo in June, 1934 as Imperial proxy carrying Imperial message of congratulation on the enthronement of Emperor Kang Te.

In 1925 the Prince went to England for study leaving Japan on May 24th and studied at Oxford till December, 1926, when he left for home owing to the serious illness of his father Emperor Taisho, returning home in January, 1927. In September, 1928, the Prince married Miss Setsu-ko, daughter of Mr. Tsuneo Matsudaira, then Ambassador to the Court of St. James'.

The Prince is Honorary President of the British Association (Tokyo), the Siamese Association (Tokyo), the Swedish Society of Japan and the Peers Club, besides being an honorary member of the Ski Club of Great Britain, and member of the Alpine Ski Club of England. He presided over the World Engineering Congress and also at the World Power Congress, held in Tokyo and Osaka in the autumn of 1929.

**Princess Setsuko**, consort of the above, is daughter of Mr. Tsuneo Matsudaira, Minister of the Imperial Household, and niece of Viscount Yasuo Matsudaira. Was born Sept. 6th, 1909; educated at the Peers' School and later in the United States; married the Prince Sept. 28th, 1928.

**Takamatsu-no-Miya** (Residence-Takanawa Nishidaimachi, Shiba-ku, Tokyo).

**Prince Nobuhito**, present head (1st of the line) and third son of the late Emperor Taisho, born January 3rd, 1905. After finishing the middle school course at the Peers' School in 1921, the Prince entered the Naval College as a cadet, graduating in 1924; was appointed 2nd Sub-Lieutenant in December, 1925; promoted to 1st Sub-Lieutenant in December, 1926; meanwhile studied at the Torpedo School (1925-26), the Naval Aviation School at Kasumigaura (1927) and also at the Naval Gunnery School at Yokosuka (1930-31); promoted to Lieutenant in 1930 and attached to the Naval Staff Board; appointed a squadron Commander of the warship Takao in December 1932; transferred to the Fusō in similar capacity in November, 1933.

The Prince was formerly called Teru-no-Miya, but in July, 1913, he set up a new house by order of his father Emperor Taisho and assumed the family-name of Takamatsu-no-Miya. In February, 1930, he married Princess Kikuko, daughter of the late Prince Yoshihisa Tokugawa, and on April 21st the same year the Prince went to Europe accompanied by the Princess to return the courtesy of the British Court which in 1929 despatched to this country the Duke of Gloucester to present the Order of the Garter to the Emperor, and also to present the highest Japanese order to the former King of Spain, returning home via America in the spring of 1931 after visiting 22 European countries and exchanging courtesies with the sovereigns and rulers of many friendly Powers. The Prince is Honorary President of the Japan Fine Arts Association, the Turco-Japanese Society and the Japan-Denmark Society, both of Tokyo.

**Princess Kikuko**, consort of the above, is sister of Prince Yeshimitsu Tokugawa and was born Dec. 26th, 1911. Married the Prince Feb. 4th, 1930.

**Mikasa-no-Miya** (Residence-Akasaka-ku, Tokyo).

**Prince Takahito**, present, head (1st of the line) and fourth son of the late Emperor Taisho and the youngest brother of the reigning Emperor, born Dec. 2nd, 1915. The Prince finished the middle school course of the Peers' School in 1932; the Military Academy in June, 1936; is attached to the 15th Regiment (Cavalry) as Cadet. On attaining his majority in 1935, the Prince was granted the name of Mikasa and founded a new house. The Prince visited Manchoukuo in 1936.

#### Other Members of the Imperial Family

Other members of the Imperial Family are as follows:—

**Kan-in-no-Miya** (Residence—Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo).

The House was founded by Prince Naohito (1703-52, A. D.), eldest son Higashiyama Tenno (113th Emperor).

**Prince Kotohito**, head (6th of the line), Field Marshal, Supreme War Councillor and Chief of General Staff. Is the 16th son of the late Prince Kuniie Fushimi; born Sept. 22nd, 1865; studied at the Military Preparatory School and then at the Military Academy; later studied at a French Military School; took part in the Japan-China and the Russo-Japanese Wars; promoted to Lieut.-General in 1905; appointed Commander of the Imperial Guards Division in 1906; promoted to General and made Supreme War Councillor in 1912; Field Marshal in 1919; appointed Chief

of General Staff, Dec. 1931. In 1921 the Prince accompanied the Crown Prince (present Emperor) on his tour of Europe. Prince is Hon. President of the Japan Red Cross Society, the Japan Sericultural Association, the Franco-Japanese Society, the Russo-Japanese Society, the Tokyo Geological Society, the Military Club, the Tokyo Club and many other similar bodies.

**Princess Chieko**, consort of the above, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Sanetomi Sanjo; born May 25th, 1872. Married the Prince Dec. 19th, 1891. The Princess is Honorary President of the Japan Women's Education Association and of the Japan Red Cross Voluntary Nurses' Association. Issue: A son and three daughters.

**Prince Haruhito**, 2nd son of Prince Kotohito, born Aug. 3rd, 1902. Studied at the Peers' School and then at the Military Academy; is Captain of Cavalry attached to the Cavalry School as instructor and superintendent of research department.

**Princess Naoko**, consort of the above, 4th daughter of the late Prince Saneteru Ichijo; born Nov. 7th, 1908; married Prince Haruhito July 14th, 1928.

**Higashi Fushimi-no-Miya** (Residence—Tokiwamatsu, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

The House was set up by the late Adm. Prince Yorihito, 7th son of the late Prince Kuniie Fushimi, and younger brother of Marshal Prince Kanin. The Prince died heirless in 1922.

**Dowager Princess Kaneko**, consort of the late Prince Yorihito and eldest daughter of the late Prince Tomosada Iwakura. Born Aug. 29th, 1876; married the late Prince Feb. 10th, 1898; widow in 1922. The Princess is Honorary President of the Ladies' Patriotic Association and also of the Women's Hygiene Association.

**Fushimi-no-Miya** (Residence—Kioicho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo).

The House is the oldest of the princely families, founded in the 14th century by a son of Gohanazono Tenno, the 102nd Emperor.

**Prince Hiroyasu**, present head (23rd of the line) and eldest son of the late General Prince Sadanaru; born Oct. 16th, 1875; succeeded to the House of Prince Kwacho in 1883, but returned to the present House in July 1904; studied at the Naval Academy and then in Germany; took part in the Russo-Japanese War and was wounded on board the Mikasa in the battle of the Yellow Sea (Aug. 1904); studied in England, 1909-10; was in command of the Takachiho, 1910; Vice-Admiral, 1917; full Admiral, 1922; Supreme War Councillor, 1920; appointed

Chief of Naval Staff Board, Feb. 1932; Admiral of Fleet, May 1932. The Prince is Honorary President of the Imperial Life Boat Association, the Japan Seamen's Relief Association, the Cancer Research Society, the Naval Club, the Japan-German Society, the Scientific & Chemical Research Institute, etc.

**Princess Tsuneko**, consort of the above, 9th daughter of the late Prince Keiki Tokugawa (the last Shogun). Born Sept. 23rd, 1882. Married Jan. 9th, 1897. Issue: Four sons and three daughters.

**Prince Hiroyoshi**, eldest son of Prince Hiroyasu, born 1897; studied at the Naval Academy; married Princess Tokiko, 3rd daughter of Prince Ichijo, in 1919; is Commander of the Navy; appointed Vice-Commander of the Cruiser Naka, Nov., 1934.

**Princess Tokiko**, consort of the above, 3rd daughter of Prince Saneteru Ichijo, born 1902. Married Dec. 23rd, 1919. Issue: One son and one daughter.

(Prince Hironobu, 3rd son of Prince Hiroyasu, born 1905, created a new House in 1926 by order of the late Emperor Taisho and is now called Marquis Kwacho. He graduated from the Naval Academy in 1925 and is now Lieutenant).

Issue:—A son and three daughters.

**Yamashina-no-Miya** (Residence—Fujimi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo).

**Dowager Princess Hisako**, mother of Prince Takehiko and consort of the late Prince Kikumaro, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Tadayoshi Shimazu; born Feb. 7th, 1874; widow, 1908.

Prince Takehiko has four brothers, Prince Yoshimaro (born 1901), Prince Fujimaro (born 1905), Prince Hagimaro (born 1906) and Prince Shigemaro (born 1908), who were all ordered to set up new houses and are now known as Marquis Yamashina, Marquis Tsukuba, Count Kashima (died Aug. 1932) and Count Katsuragi respectively. They are no longer members of the Imperial Family.

**Prince Takehiko**, head (3rd of the line), eldest son of the late Prince Kikumaro; born Feb. 13th, 1898; studied at the Naval Academy; attached to the Naval Aviation Corps as Sub-Lieutenant and attached to the Naval Staff Board; retired from active service in 1927 on account of declining health; promoted to Lieut.-Commander in 1929 and at the same time placed on waiting list. Married Princess Sakiko, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Kuniyoshi Kaya-no-Miya, who died on Sept. 1st, 1923. Was at one time an aviation enthusiast for which the Prince



was popularly called "Prince of the Air" and established a private aviation institute (Mikuni Aviation School).

**Kaya-no-Miya** (Residence—Ichibancho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo).

**Dowager Princess Yoshiko**, mother of Prince Tsunenori and eldest daughter of the late Marquis Tadayori Daigo. Born Oct. 20th, 1865. Married the late Prince Kuninori in 1892; widow; 1910.

**Prince Tsunenori**, head (2nd of the line) and eldest son of the late Prince Kuninori. Born Jan. 27th, 1900. Graduated from the Military Academy in 1921 and then from the Military Staff College in 1926; promoted to Major of Cavalry and instructor at the Military Staff College, 1931-34; appointed Commander of the 10th cavalry regiment August, 1935. The Prince, accompanied by Princess Toshiko, visited Europe and America in 1934.

**Princess Toshiko**, consort of Prince Tsunenori and 5th daughter of Prince Michizane Kujo. Born May 16th, 1903; married Prince Tsunenori May 3rd, 1921.

Issue:—Five sons and a daughter.

**Kuni-no-Miya** (Residence—Miyashiro, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

**Dowager Princess Chikako**, mother of Prince Asa-Akira, 7th daughter of the late Prince Tadayoshi Shimazu. Born Oct. 19th, 1879; married the late Prince Kuniyoshi Dec. 13th, 1899; visited Europe with her husband in 1909; widow, Jan., 1929. Is also mother of the Empress Nagako.

(Prince Kunihide, 3rd son of the late Prince Kuniyoshi, born May 10th, 1910. Set up a new house in April, 1931, by Imperial order and is now known as Count Higashi Fushimi).

**Prince Asa-Akira**, head (3rd of the line), eldest son of the late Marshal Prince Kuniyoshi Kuni. Born Feb. 2nd, 1900; studied at the Naval Academy; made Lieutenant in 1928; promoted to Lieut.-Commander in 1931; attached to the Naval Staff Board; Chief Gunner of the cruiser Kiso; transferred to the cruiser Yakumo in the same capacity in August, 1934.

**Princess Tomoko**, consort of the above and 3rd daughter of Prince Hiroyasu Fushimi. Born May 18th, 1906; married the Prince Jan. 25th, 1925. Issue:—A son and three daughters.

**Prince Taka**, 5th son of the late Prince Asahiko (1st of the line). Born 1875 in Kyoto; married Princess Shizuko, eldest daughter of the late Viscount Minase, in 1905. Is Grand Custodian of the Great Shrine at Ise. Has two

sons and one daughter. (Residence—Kyoto).

**Nashimoto-no-Miya** (Residence—Mitake-machi, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

**Prince Morimasa**, head and 2nd of the line, 4th son of the late Prince Asahiko; born March 9th, 1874. Field Marshal and Supreme War Councillor. Studied at a French Military School in 1903-04 and again in 1907-08; took part in the Russo-Japanese War (1904-05); after holding various high posts including the post of divisional commander was promoted to full General in 1923 and then appointed member of the Supreme War Council; Field Marshal, August, 1932. The Prince is Honorary President of the Franco-Japanese Society, the Japan Agricultural Association, the Japan Forestry Association, the Japan Martial Art Association, the Imperial Aero Association, the Italian Society of Japan, etc.

**Princess Itsuko**, consort of the above, 2nd daughter of the late Marquis Naotada Nabeshima; born Feb. 2nd, 1882; married Prince Morimasa Nov. 28th, 1900; made a tour of Europe with the Prince in 1908-09. Has two daughters.

**Asaka-no-Miya** (created in March 1906). (Residence—Shirokane Dai-machi, Shiba-ku, Tokyo).

**Prince Yasuhiko**, head, 8th son of the late Prince Asahiko Kuni; born Oct. 2nd, 1887. Studied at the Military Academy and then in France; Major-General and instructor at the Military Staff College in 1430, later appointed Commander of the 1st Infantry Brigade; promoted to Lieut.-General and appointed Commander of the Imperial Guards Division in August, 1933; appointed Supreme War Councillor, 1935.

Issue:—Two sons and a daughter.

**Higashi Kuni-no-Miya** (created in Nov., 1406). (Residence—Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo).

**Prince Naruhiko**, head, 9th son of the late Prince Asahiko Kuni; born Dec. 3rd, 1887; set up the present house in November, 1906, by order of the late Emperor Meiji. Studied at the Military Academy and later in France where he stayed from 1920 till 1926; married Princess Toshiko May 18th, 1915; Major-General and Commander of the 5th Infantry Brigade in August, 1930; promoted to Lieut.-General and appointed Commander of the 2nd Army Division in August 1933; Commander of 4th Army Division in August, 1934; Supreme War Councillor, 1935; is Honorary President of the Press Association of Japan.

**Princess Toshiko**, consort of the above, is the youngest daughter of the late Emperor Meiji. Born May 11th, 1896; married the prince May 11th, 1915. Issue:—Three sons.

**Kita Shirakawa-no-Miya** (Residence—Takanawa Minami-cho, Tokyo).

**Dowager Princess Fusako**, mother of Prince Nagahisa and consort of the late Prince Narihisa; 7th daughter of the late Emperor Meiji. Born Jan. 28th, 1890; married Prince Narihisa Apr. 29th, 1909; went to France with the late Prince in 1922; widow 1923.

**Prince Nagahisa**, head (4th of the line), eldest son of the late Prince Nagahisa; born Feb. 19th, 1910; succeeded to the title on the death in Paris of his father in 1923; graduated at the Military Academy; married Princess Sachiko Apr. 26th, 1935; is Lieutenant of Artillery and attached to Field Artillery Regiment (Imperial Guards Division). The Prince has three sisters.

**Princess Sachiko**, consort of the above, is the 2nd daughter of Baron Yoshiyori Tokugawa. Born Aug. 26th, 1916, married Prince Nagahisa Apr. 26th, 1935.

**Takeda-no-Miya** (Residence—Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo).

The House was created in March, 1906, by the late Prince Tsunehisa (died in 1910), eldest son of the late Prince Kitashirakawa, by order of the late Emperor Meiji.

**Dowager Princess Masako**, mother of Prince Tsuneyoshi and consort of the late Prince Tsunehisa; is the 6th daughter of the late Emperor Meiji, born Sept. 30th, 1888; married the late Prince Tsunehisa Apr. 30th, 1908; widow in 1919. The Prince is Honorary President of the Tokyo Charity Association.

**Prince Tsuneyoshi**, head (2nd of the line), eldest son of the late Prince Tsunehisa; born Mar. 4th, 1909. Studied at the Military Academy; was appointed Sub-Lieutenant of Cavalry in 1930 and attached to the 1st Cavalry Regiment; promoted to Lieutenant in August, 1933; married Princess Mitsuko May 12th, 1934.

**Princess Mitsuko**, consort of the above, is the end daughter of Prince Kinteru Sanjo. Born Nov. 6th, 1915.

#### Royal House of Chosen

Yi, the former royal family of Chosen (Korea). **Prince Gin**, head of the family and younger brother of Prince Chiok (the late head of the house), born October 20th, 1897 in Keijo (Seoul). Brought up in the royal palace in the former Korean capital but later moved to Tokyo to receive education. Graduated from the Military Academy in Tokyo in 1920; promoted to Captain and attached to the 2nd infantry regiment of the Imperial Guards Division in 1926; later

attached to the General Staff Office; promoted to Lieut.-Colonel and attached to the Military Training Department; appointed Colonel and Commander of the 59th infantry regiment August, 1935; married Princess Masako in 1920; visited Europe in 1927 for study and observation, accompanied by Princess Masako. (Residence in Tokyo—Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku).

**Princess Masako**, consort of the above, eldest daughter of H.I.H. Prince Morimasa Nashimoto; born November 4th 1901; married Prince Gin in 1920. (Issue: a son).

**Princess Im**, consort of the late Prince Chiok Yi, born September 15th 1894; widow in 1926. (Residence—Seoul, Chosen).

**Prince Yi Ken**, eldest son of Prince Yi Kang, born October 28, 1909. Graduated at the Military Academy; is the Lieutenant of Cavalry. (Residence—Tokiawamatsu, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

**Princess Yoshiko**, consort of the above, eldest daughter of Mr. Hiroshi Matsudaira; born October 6th, 1911; married the Prince in October 1931. (Issue—a son).

**Prince Yi Kang**, 5th son of the late Grand Prince Yi and father of Prince Yi Ken; born March 30th, 1877.

**Princess Kin**, consort of the above and eldest daughter of the late Baron Kin; born December 22nd, 1878; married October 29th, 1893.

**Prince Yi Gu**, 2nd son of Prince Yi Kang; born November 11th, 1912. Graduated at the Military Cadet School and is now Lieutenant of Artillery.

**Princess Sanshu**, consort of the above and daughter of Marquis Boku; born December 11th, 1914; married May 3rd, 1935. (Residence—Tokiawamatsu, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo).

#### THE IMPERIAL ESTATE AND CIVIL LIST

The civil list was formerly three million yen, but was increased to four and half a million yen in 1910.

The land and other property belonging to the Emperor is divided into hereditary and ordinary estates. As existing at the end of 1931, the Court owned 1,302,062 "cho" (about 3,190,091.90 acres) of landed estates consisting of palace grounds, other building land, forests, farm land, etc., the figure being composed of 209,090 "cho" (about 512,160.50 acres) of hereditary estate and 1,092,972 "cho" (about 2,677,781.30 acres) of ordinary estate, the whole being valued at about 650,000,000 yen, the details being as follows:—



Table 1. Area of Crown Landed Estates  
(at the end of 1933)

	Palace ground	Forests	Farmland	Building land	Others	Total
Hereditary . . . .	478	208,511	—	37	64	209,090
Ordinary . . . . .	225	1,024,186	54,058	193	4,190	1,082,852
Total . . . . .	703	1,232,697	54,058	230	4,254	1,291,942
Do. for 1928 . . .	685	1,244,938	69,075	241	2,172	1,317,111
Do. for 1926 . . .	677	1,359,480	162,352	311	5,416	1,528,236

The above figures are in units of "cho," one "cho" corresponding to about 2.45 acres, so that the total area covers about 3,283,872.85 acres (1,340,193 "cho"). The total area for 1927, compared with the figures for 1924 and 1926, shows a decrease of 491,084.70 and 460,305.35 acres respectively. In consideration of the food question and so forth, the Imperial Court several years ago decided to sell or otherwise transfer to public or private ownership part of the Crown estate, and in 1921 such transfer was made to the extent of 289,259.25 acres of land and forest, that is, about 26.6 per cent. of the total area of the hereditary estates, which at the end of 1929 was returned as 539,305.35 acres. Fur-

ther in 1930 the Court decided to discontinue the detached palace at Nagoya and six Imperial villas in the provinces to save the expenditure involved in their maintenance, the Nagoya palace having been donated to Nagoya City.

There were besides buildings, household effects, and furniture, livestock and many other items. Then the Court owns shares of several banking and other business concerns such as the Bank of Japan, the Yokohama Specie Bank, the Hypothec Bank of Japan, the Industrial Bank of Japan, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Imperial Hotel, etc., all these coming up to hundreds of millions of yen.

Table 2. Imperial Hereditary Estates

The Imperial hereditary estates are at present as follows:—

Name	Locality	Area
The Imperial Palace . . . . .	Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo . . . . .	637,170 (tsubo)
Akasaka and Aoyama Palaces . . . . .	Akasaka-ku, Tokyo . . . . .	185,775 "
Hama Palace . . . . .	Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo . . . . .	75,489 "
Kyoto Palace . . . . .	Kamikyoku, Kyoto . . . . .	270,692 "
Nijo Palace . . . . .	Nakakyoku, Kyoto . . . . .	83,051 "
Katsura Palace . . . . .	Ukyoku, Kyoto . . . . .	13,167 "
Shugakuin Palace . . . . .	Sakyoku, Kyoto . . . . .	84,245 "
Hakone Palace . . . . .	Ashigara Shimo-gun, Kanagawa pref. . . . .	51,798 "
Shosoin Treasury . . . . .	Nara, Nara prefecture . . . . .	5,161 "
Takarawa Imperial Estate . . . . .	Shiba-ku, Tokyo . . . . .	33,772 "
Minami Toshima Estate . . . . .	Yotsuya and Shibuya, Tokyo . . . . .	263,587 "
Unebiyama Estate . . . . .	Takaichi-gun, Nara prefecture . . . . .	33.34 (cho)
Chigashira Estate . . . . .	Shizuoka prefecture . . . . .	38,370.21 "
Tanazawa Estate . . . . .	Kanagawa prefecture . . . . .	4,880.85 "
Sejiri Estate . . . . .	Iwata-gun, Shizuoka prefecture . . . . .	1,598.78 "
Kiso Estate . . . . .	Nagano and Gifu prefectures . . . . .	155,975.14 "
Nanamune Estate . . . . .	Gifu prefecture . . . . .	1,563.01 "
Danto Estate . . . . .	Kitashitara-gun, Aichi prefecture . . . . .	5,794.52 "

The Imperial game preserves are as follows:—

Name	Locality	Games
Nagaragawa Preserves . . . .	Gifu prefecture . . . . .	"Ayu" fish.
Jintsugawa Preserves . . . .	Toyama prefecture . . . . .	"Ayu" Salmon, Trout.
Edogawa Preserves . . . . .	Saitama prefecture . . . . .	Wild ducks, Pheasants, Wild geese.
Edogawa Preserves . . . . .	Chiba prefecture . . . . .	Wild ducks, Wild geese, Snipes, Plovers.

#### IMPERIAL PROPERTY LAW

The Law as gazetted in December, 1910 and put in force in January, 1911 provides that the land and other property belonging to the Emperor is divided into hereditary and personal pro-

perty, and that for all the judicial proceedings affecting the property the Minister of the Imperial Household is held responsible. The ordinary civil or commercial law is applicable to the property only when it does not conflict with the Imperial House Law and the present law.

No hereditary landed estate can be newly used for any other purpose except those of public utility, or undertakings sanctioned by the Emperor. The property of the members of the Imperial House is subject to levy when it does not conflict with the Imperial House Law or the present law. However, this does not apply to the estates belonging to the Grand Empress Dowager, Empress Dowager, Empress, Heir-Apparent, his consort, eldest son and his consort, and other unmarried members of the Imperial Family who have not yet attained majority.

#### THE IMPERIAL HOUSEHOLD DEPARTMENT

The Imperial Household Department controls and conducts affairs relating to the Imperial Household, members of the Imperial Family, Peers, etc., and is independent of the Government departments, its offices being located in the compounds of the Imperial Palace. The Department is divided into several boards or bureaus, including the Board of Chamberlains, the Board of Masters of Ceremonies, Board of the Imperial Families and Peerage, the Board of the Imperial Mausolea, the Board of Archives, the Board of Court Physicians, the Imperial Treasury, the Bureau of Architecture, the Bureau of Imperial Mews and the Bureau of Culinary Affairs. Besides these and not subject to the control of the Household Department, there are also in the Imperial Palace the offices of the Lord-Keeper of the Privy Seal, the Temporary Bureau of Compilation, the Imperial Board of Audit, the Imperial Forest and Estate Bureau, the Imperial Poetry Bureau, etc. Attached to the Household Department and placed under control of the Minister of the Imperial Household are also the Peers' School, the Peeresses' School and the Imperial Household Museum, these being, however, located at different places outside of the Imperial Palace grounds. The chief official of the Imperial Household Department is the Minister of the Imperial Household, who, besides supervising the affairs of the Department also acts as adviser to the Emperor on all matters relating to the Imperial Household and controls the peers (including Korean peers), and in executing his official duties he is assisted by a Vice-Minister. Besides those mentioned above and apart from the officials of the Imperial Household Department, there are several important offices such as Court Ritualists who have charge of the Imperial Sanctuary known as the "Kashiko-Dokoro" and the Imperial Ancestral Halls known as "Koreiden" and "Shinden" and officiate at all religious ceremonies conducted at the Imperial Court,

Chief Aide-de-Camp and Aides-de-Camp to the Emperor, Lord Steward to the Empress, Lord Steward to the Empress Dowager, etc., who usually attend to the Emperor, the Empress or the Empress Dowager respectively. Then there are Court Councillors, Lords-in-Waiting at the Jako Hall and Lords-in-Waiting at the Kinkei Hall, which are, however, all mere honorary posts or titles and have no particular duties assigned to the holders thereof. All these constitute what generally goes by the term "Court officials."

The total number of officials in the service of the Imperial Household, as existing at the end of 1933, stood at 4,536, the figure including 2,109 employees, the stipend for the entire force amounting to 4,227,563 yen for the year.

**Privy Council.**—Besides the Household Department there is in the Imperial Household a special organ acting as advising body to the Emperor on all important affairs of State. This special organ named "Sumitsu-in" or Privy Council, consists of 26 members with its own President and Vice-President, the members being all veteran statesmen who have played very important parts in the administration, and though no longer taking an active share in it, their age and prestige entitle them to universal respect. The functions of the Privy Council are chiefly of a consultative nature. It meets to deliberate on any important matter of State, when its opinion is asked for by the Emperor, and advises him according to its lights. The principal matters on which it is usually consulted are those coming under the jurisdiction of the Imperial House Law, all important legislations, relating to Articles of the Constitution, the issuing of proclamations of the law of siege and of Imperial ordinances and all matters relating to international treaties and pledges, etc. (Also see Chapter on Politics).

#### DECORATIONS

There exist eight kinds of decorations, viz., the Grand Order of Merit; the Grand Cordon of Chrysanthemum, the Grand Order of Chrysanthemum, and the Grand Cordon of Rising Sun and Paulownia (all granted only to the holders of the Grand Order of Merit); the Order of Rising Sun (1st to 6th grade); the Order of Sacred Treasure (1st to 8th grade) granted both to men and women; the Order of Crown (1st to 8th grade and only for women); and lastly the Military Order of the Golden Kite (1st to 7th grade). Besides there exists the Collar of Chrysanthemum, a special mark of honour granted to those holding the Grand Order of Merit. The Order of Rising Sun sometimes car-



ries an annuity. The Collar Chrysanthemum, the Grand Order of Merit and the Grand Cordon of Chrysanthemum are the highest honours accessible to Japanese subjects.

The Golden Kite carries an annuity, ranging from 1,500 yen a year granted to a holder of the 1st grade and 150 yen granted to a holder of the 7th and lowest grade.

Then there are the Blue-ribbon medals conferred on ordinary people who distinguish them-

selves in the cause of public utility; the Green-ribbon medals conferred on those distinguished for filial piety, and the Red-ribbon medals conferred on those who rescue human lives at the peril of their own; the Dark Blue-ribbon medals conferred on those who make monetary contribution in aid of public utility enterprises; the Yellow-ribbon medals (gold or silver) conferred on those who make similar contribution to the national defence funds.

Table 3. Number of Decorations and Holders thereof  
(At the end of 1934)

Order of Merit	Chrysanthemum	Rising sun & Paulownia	Rising Sun	Sacred Treasure	Crown	Golden Kite	No. of Holders
G.C.C. ....	2	—	—	—	—	—	2
G.C. ....	15	—	—	—	—	—	13
1st .....	—	48	100	243	23	1	336
2nd .....	—	—	302	1,095	21	14	1,208
3rd .....	—	—	777	6,983	3	195	6,812
Total with lower grade	17	48	767,837	608,163	2,034	61,124	1,296,519

G.C.C.=Grand Cordon with Collar.

G.C.=Grand Cordon.

N.B.—Those holding more than one order being counted by the highest order they wear, the actual number of orders does not agree with that of holders.

Table 4. Decorations Presented to or Conferred on Foreigners

	G.O.M.	1st O.M.	2nd O.M.	3rd O.M.	4th O.M.	5th O.M.	6th O.M.	7th O.M.	8th O.M.	Total
1928 .....	—	26	16	30	32	12	1	—	—	117
1929 .....	2	4	10	12	6	8	2	—	—	50
1930 .....	1	6	1	8	6	7	2	—	—	32
1931 .....	1	11	4	6	11	4	1	2	1	41
1932 .....	—	8	5	22	21	6	—	—	—	62
1933 .....	—	7	5	12	9	5	1	—	—	39
1934 .....	2	7	2	15	13	9	—	—	—	48

G.O.M.=Grand Order of Merit.  
O.M.=Order of Merit.

#### THE PEERAGE, COURT RANK, ETC.

Though the peerage as a distinct social rank dates only from 1884, it practically existed from ancient times, courtiers or Kuge and feudal princes or Daimyos of olden days corresponding to the Peers of to-day. The Peerage is divided into five grades, viz Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount and Baron. There is no intermediate rank corresponding to the British baronetcy. By origin the Japanese Peers may be classified into four distinct groups, i.e., those who are descendants of the former courtiers or Kuge; descendants of the former Daimyos; those created Peers in recent times, and lastly Korean Peers who were created after the annexation. The number of Peers (exclusive of Korean peers) as in July, 1934 was as follows:—

Prince 19, Marquis 40, Count 110, Viscount 378, Baron 409; Total 956.

**Korean Peers.**—In Oct. 1910, 67 distinguished

Koreans including five members of the former Royal family, were created Peers, i.e. 6 Marquises, 3 Counts, 22 Viscounts, and 45 Barons. The new Peers were given monetary grants. The number of the Korean peers at the end of 1931 was 7 Marquises, 3 Counts, 18 Viscounts and 33 Barons, making a total of 61.

**Hereditary Privilege.**—Japan has no life-Peers, all the Peers being hereditary. A nobleman may be degraded either by his voluntary surrender of the honour or by order of the Court, when he disgraces the rank. Cases of lapsing of the title owing to the successor of a deceased Peer not being reported within one year have occurred now and then lately, such practice no longer being considered as disrespectful to the Court as before.

**Court Rank.**—These are called "ikai" or "kurai," and are graded into eight classes, each of a senior and a junior degree, this "ikai" being given only to Japanese subjects, and serves

to determine precedence, when there are no decorations or other conventional marks to settle it. Thus a holder of a senior degree of the 3rd grade of "ikai" is entitled to take precedence over one whose "ikai" is a junior degree of the same grade. A Peer bears as a matter of course "ikai" differing according to his rank, a 4th grade for a Baron, for instance. A number of wealthy merchants possess "ikai" generally in consideration of their contributions of money for public purposes.

**Posthumous Honours.**—The peculiar custom of conferring posthumous honours still lingers in Japan, though it was abolished years ago in China, the country of its origin. The idea is based on the principle of ancestor-worship.

Theoretically the honour is a parting gift to one on his death-bed, and is granted with this official announcement: "Promoted by one degree for special consideration." In most cases the honour is posthumous, as it usually comes after the death of the beneficiary and Japanese of exalted rank have therefore two different dates of death, i.e. physiological dissolution and official death. What is still more interesting is that notable persons dead several centuries are sometimes honoured in this way. The granting of a peerage has also occasionally been posthumous, and a Barony that is conferred on a distinguished man on his death-bed or after his death, falls to his heir.

Table 5. Genealogy of the Imperial House

Names of Emperors	Number of years after Jimmu Tenno	Period of reign (years)	Accession to Throne B.C.	Names of Emperors	Number of years after Jimmu Tenno	Period of reign (years)	Accession to Throne A.D.
(1st) Jimmu Tenno .....	1	76	660	(44th) Genshō Tenno			
(2nd) Suizei .....	80	33	581	(Empress) .....	1375	10	715
(3rd) Annei .....	112	38	549	(45th) Shōmu .....	1384	26	724
(4th) Itoku .....	151	34	510	(46th) Kōken .. (Empress) ..	1409	10	749
(5th) Kōshō .....	186	83	475	(47th) Junnin .....	1418	7	758
(6th) Kōan .....	269	102	392	(48th) Shōtoku .. (Empress) ..	1424	6	764
(7th) Kōrei .....	371	76	290	(49th) Kōnin .....	1430	12	770
(8th) Kōgen .....	447	57	214	(50th) Kammu .....	1441	26	781
(9th) Kaika .....	503	60	157	(51st) Heizei .....	1466	4	806
(10th) Sujin .....	564	68	97	(52nd) Saga .....	1469	15	809
(11th) Suinin .....	632	99	29	(53rd) Junna .....	1483	11	823
(12th) Keikō .....	731	60	71	(54th) Nimmyō .....	1493	18	833
(13th) Seimu .....	791	60	131	(55th) Montoku .....	1510	9	850
(14th) Chuai .....	852	9	192	(56th) Seiwa .....	1518	19	858
Empress Jingō (Regent) .....	860	69	200	(57th) Yōzei .....	1536	9	876
(15th) Ojin Tenno .....	930	41	270	(58th) Kōkō .....	1544	4	884
(16th) Nintoku .....	973	87	313	(59th) Uda .....	1547	11	887
(17th) Richū .....	1060	6	400	(60th) Daigo .....	1557	34	897
(18th) Hanshō .....	1066	5	406	(61st) Suzaku .....	1590	17	930
(19th) Ingyō .....	1072	42	412	(62nd) Murakami .....	1606	22	946
(20th) Ankō .....	1114	3	453	(63rd) Reizei .....	1627	3	967
(21st) Yuryaku .....	1117	23	456	(64th) En-yū .....	1629	16	969
(22nd) Seinei .....	1140	5	479	(65th) Kazan .....	1644	3	984
(23rd) Kensō .....	1144	3	485	(66th) Ichijō .....	1646	26	986
(24th) Ninken .....	1148	11	488	(67th) Sanjō .....	1671	6	1011
(25th) Buretsu .....	1159	8	498	(68th) Go-Ichijō .....	1676	21	1016
(26th) Keitai .....	1167	25	507	(69th) Go-Suzaku .....	1696	10	1036
(27th) Ankan .....	1194	5	531	(70th) Go-Reizei .....	1705	24	1045
(28th) Senka .....	1195	4	535	(71st) Go-Sanjō .....	1728	5	1068
(29th) Kimmei .....	1199	32	539	(72nd) Shirakawa .....	1732	15	1072
(30th) Bidatsu .....	1232	14	572	(73rd) Horikawa .....	1746	22	1086
(31st) Yōmei .....	1245	2	585	(74th) Toba .....	1767	17	1107
(32nd) Sushun .....	1247	5	587	(75th) Sutoku .....	1783	19	1123
(33rd) Suiko .. (Empress) ..	1252	36	592	(76th) Konoye .....	1801	15	1141
(34th) Jomei .....	1289	13	629	(77th) Goshirakawa .....	1815	4	1155
(35th) Kōgyoku .. (Empress) ..	1302	4	642	(78th) Nijō .....	1818	8	1168
(36th) Kōtoku .....	1305	10	645	(79th) Rokujō .....	1825	4	1165
(37th) Saimei .. (Empress) ..	1315	7	655	(80th) Takakura .....	1828	13	1168
(38th) Tenchi .....	1321	10	661	(81st) Antoku .....	1840	6	1180
(39th) Kōbun .....	1331	1	671	(82nd) Go-Toba .....	1845	14	1185
(40th) Temmu .....	1332	14	672	(83rd) Tsuchimikado Tenno	1858	13	1198
(41st) Jitō .. (Empress) ..	1346	11	686	(84th) Juntoku .....	1870	11	1210
(42nd) Mommu .....	1357	11	697	(85th) Chūkyō .....	1881	1	1221
(43rd) Gemmyō .. (Empress) ..	1367	9	707	(86th) Go-Horikawa Tenno	1881	12	1221
				(87th) Shijō .....	1892	11	1232



Names of Emperors	Number of years after Jimmu Tenno	Period of reign (years)	Accession to Throne A.D.	Names of Emperors	Number of years after Jimmu Tenno	Period of reign (years)	Accession to Throne A.D.
(88th) Go-Saga Tenno	1902	5	1242	(108th) Go-Mizuno-o Tenno	2271	19	1611
(89th) Go-Fukakusa Tenno	1906	14	1246	(109th) Myōshō Tenno (Empress)	2289	15	1629
(90th) Kameyama Tenno	1919	16	1259	(110th) Go-Kōmyō Tenno	2303	12	1643
(91st) Go-Uda	1934	14	1274	(111th) Go-Saiin	2314	10	1654
(92nd) Fushimi	1947	12	1287	(112th) Reigen	2323	25	1663
(93rd) Go-Fushimi Tenno	1958	4	1298	(113th) Higashiyama	2347	23	1687
(94th) Go-Nijo	1961	8	1301	(114th) Nakamikado	2369	27	1709
(95th) Hanazono	1968	11	1308	(115th) Sakuramachi	2395	13	1735
(96th) Go-Daigo	1978	21	1318	(116th) Momozono	2407	16	1747
(97th) Go-Murakami Tenno	1999	30	1339	(117th) Go-Sakuramachi (Empress)	2422	9	1762
(98th) Chōkei	2028	16	1368	(118th) Go-Momozono	2430	10	1770
(99th) Go-Kameyama Tenno	2043	10	1383	(119th) Kōkaku	2439	39	1779
(100th) Go-Komatsu Tenno	2052	21	1392	(120th) Ninkō	2477	30	1817
(101st) Shōkō Tenno	2072	17	1412	(121st) Kōmei	2506	21	1846
(102nd) Go-Hanazono Tenno	2088	37	1428	(122nd) Meiji	2527	46	1867
(103rd) Go-Tsuchimikado	2124	37	1464	(123rd) Taishō	2572	15	1912
(104th) Go-Kashiwabara	2160	27	1500	(124th) Present Emperor	2586		1926
(105th) Go-Nara Tenno	2186	32	1526				
(106th) Ogimachi	2217	30	1557				
(107th) Go-Yōzei	2246	26	1586				

Table 6. List of Emperors (In Alphabetical Order)

(The names printed in black are female Emperors. The reigns that fall before the Christian era are marked B.C.).

Emperors	Period of Reign	Emperors	Period of Reign
Ankan	531—535	Go-Yōzei	1586—1611
Ankō	453—456	Hanazono	1308—1318
Annei	549—511 (B.C.)	Hanshō	406—410
Antoku	1180—1185	Heizei	806—809
Bidatsu	572—585	Higashiyama	1687—1709
Buretsu	498—506	Horikawa	1086—1107
Chō-kei	1368—1383	Ichijō	986—1011
Chūai	192—200	Ingyō	412—453
Chūkyō	1221—(Apr.-July)	Itoku	510—477 (B.C.)
Daigo	897—930	Jimmu	660—585 (B.C.)
Enyū	969—984	Jingō Kōgō	200—269
Fushimi	1287—1298	Jitō	686—697
Gemmyō	707—715	Jomei	629—641
Genshō	715—724	Junna	823—833
Go-Daigo	1318—1339	Junnin	758—764
Go-Fukakusa	1246—1259	Juntoku	1210—1221
Go-Fushimi	1298—1301	Kaika	157—98 (B.C.)
Go-Hanazono	1428—1463	Kameyama	1259—1274
Go-Horikawa	1221—1232	Kammu	781—806
Go-Ichijō	1016—1036	Kazan	984—986
Go-Kameyama	1383—1392	Keikō	71—130
Go-Kashiwabara	1500—1526	Keitai	507—531
Go-Komatsu	1383—1392, 1392—1412	Kersō	485—487
Go-Kōmyō	1643—1654	Kimmei	539—571
Go-Mizuno-o	1611—1629	Kōan	392—291 (B.C.)
Go-Momozono	1770—1779	Kōbun	671—672
Go-Murakami	1339—1368	Kōgen	214—158 (B.C.)
Go-Nara	1526—1557	Kōgyoku	642—645
Go-Nijō	1301—1308	Kōkaku	1779—1817
Go-Reizei	1045—1068	Kōken	749—758
Go-Saga	1242—1246	Kōko	884—887
Go-Saiin	1654—1663	Kōmei	1846—1866
Go-Sakuramachi	1762—1770	Kōnin	770—781
Go-Sanjō	1068—1072	Konoye	1141—1155
Go-Shirakawa	1155—1158	Kōrei	290—215 (B.C.)
Go-Suzaku	1036—1045	Kōshō	475—393 (B.C.)
Go-Toba	1185—1198	Kōtoku	645—654
Go-Tsuchimikado	1464—1500	Meiji	1867—1912
Go-Uda	1274—1287	Mommu	697—707

Emperors	Period of Reign	Emperors	Period of Reign
Momozono	1747—1762	Senka	535—539
Montoku	850—858	Shijō	1232—1242
Murakami	946—967	Shirakawa	1072—1086
Myōshō	1629—1643	Shōkō	1412—1428
Nakamikado	1709—1735	Shōmu	724—749
Nijō	1158—1165	Shōtoku	764—770
Nimmyō	833—850	Suiko	592—628
Ninken	488—498	Suinin	29 (B.C.)—70 (A.D.)
Ninkō	1817—1846	Suizei	581—549 (B.C.)
Nintoku	313—399	Sujin	97—30 (B.C.)
Ogimachi	1557—1586	Sushun	587—592
Ōjin	270—310	Sutoku	1123—1141
Reigen	1663—1687	Suzaku	930—946
Reizei	697—969	Taishō	1912—1926
Richū	400—405	Takakura	1168—1180
Rokujo	1165—1168	Temmu	672—686
Saga	809—823	Tenchi	661—671
Saimei	655—661	Toba	1107—1123
Sakuramachi	1735—1747	Tsuchimikado	1198—1210
Sanjō	1011—1016	Uda	887—897
Seimu	131—190	Yōmei	585—587
Seinei	479—484	Yōzei	876—884
Seiwa	858—876	Yūryaku	456—479

Table 7. List of Japanese Year-Names

(The year-name, originally Chinese custom, was first adopted in the reign of the 39th Emperor Kōtoku Tenno (645-654) and until that time there was no year-name. In many cases the year-name was changed several times during the reign of one Emperor in the days prior

to the Meiji era when the system of one year-name for each one era was adopted so that after the Meiji period the year-name is practically era-name. In the following list of the year-names the period of course means the Christian era).

Year-name	Period	Year-name	Period
An-ei (安永)	1772—1781	Dai-ei (大永)	1521—1528
An-gen (安元)	1175—1177	Dai-ji (大治)	1126—1131
An-sei (安政)	1854—1860	Ei-chō (永長)	1096
An-tei (安貞)	1227—1229	Ei-en (永延)	987—988
An-wa (安和)	968—970	Ei-hō (永保)	1081—1084
Bun-meiji (文明)	1469—1487	Ei-ji (永治)	1141—1142
Bun-pō (文保)	1317—1319	Ei-kan (永觀)	983—985
Bun-an (文安)	1444—1449	Ei-kyō (永享)	1429—1441
Bun-chū (文中)	1372—1374	Ei-kyū (永久)	1113—1118
Bun-ei (文永)	1264—1275	Ei-man (永萬)	1165—1166
Bun-ji (文治)	1185—1190	Ei-nin (永仁)	1293—1299
Bun-ka (文化)	1804—1818	Ei-ryaku (永曆)	1160—1161
Bun-ki (文久)	1501—1504	Ei-roku (永祿)	1558—1570
Bun-kyū (文久)	1861—1863	Ei-shō (永承)	1045—1053
Bun-ō (文應)	1260—1261	Ei-shō (永正)	1504—1521
Bun-reki (文曆)	1234—1235	Ei-so (永祚)	989—990
Bun-roku (文祿)	1592—1598	Ei-toku (永徳)	1381—1384
Bun-sei (文政)	1818—1830	Ei-wa (永和)	1375—1379
Bun-shō (文正)	1466—1467	Em-bun (延文)	1356—1361
Bun-wa (文和)	1352—1356	Em-pō (延寶)	1673—1681
Chō-gen (長元)	1028—1037	En-chō (延長)	1096—1097
Chō-hō (長保)	999—1004	En-gen (延元)	1336—1340
Chō-ji (長治)	1104—1106	En-gi (延喜)	901—923
Chō-kan (長寛)	1163—1165	En-kei (延慶)	1308—1311
Chō-kyō (長亨)	1487—1489	En-kyō (延享)	1744—1748
Chō-kyū (長久)	1040—1044	En-kyū (延久)	1069—1074
Chō-reki (長曆)	1037—1040	En-ō (延應)	1239—1240
Chō-roku (長祿)	1457—1460	En-ryaku (延曆)	782—806
Chō-shō (長承)	1132—1135	En-toku (延徳)	1489—1492
Chō-toku (長徳)	995—999	Gen-bun (元文)	1736—1741
Chō-wa (長和)	1012—1017	Gen-chū (元中)	1384—1393
Dai-dō (大同)	806—810	Gen-ei (元永)	1118—1120



Year-name	Period
Gen-ji (元治)	1864—1865
Gen-kei (元慶)	877—885
Gen-ki (元龜)	1570—1573
Gen-kyō (元享)	1321—1324
Gen-kō (元弘)	1331—1334
Gen-kyū (元久)	1204—1206
Gen-na (元和)	1615—1624
Gen-nin (元仁)	1224—1225
Gen-ō (元應)	1319—1321
Gen-roku (元祿)	1688—1704
Gen-ryaku (元曆)	1184—1185
Gen-toku (元徳)	1329—1331
Haku-chi (白雉)	650—655
Haku-hō (白鳳)	673—686
Hei-ji (平治)	1150—1160
Ho-an (保安)	1120—1124
Hō-ei (寶永)	1704—1711
Ho-en (保延)	1135—1141
Ho-gen (保元)	1156—1159
Hō-ji (寶治)	1247—1249
Hō-ki (寶龜)	770—780
Hō-reki (寶曆)	1751—1764
Hō-toku (寶徳)	1449—1452
Ji-an (治安)	1021—1024
Jingo-keiun (神護慶雲)	767—770
Jin-ki (神龜)	724—729
Ji-reki (治暦)	1065—1069
Ji-shō (治承)	1177—1181
Jō-ei (貞永)	1232—1233
Jō-gen (貞元)	976—978
Jō-ji (貞治)	1362—1368
Jō-kan (貞觀)	859—877
Jō-kyō (貞享)	1684—1688
Jō-ō (貞應)	1222—1224
Jō-wa (貞和)	1345—1350
Ju-ei (壽永)	1182—1185
Ka-ei (嘉永)	1848—1854
Ka-gen (嘉元)	1303—1306
Ka-hō (嘉保)	1094—1096
Ka-kei (嘉慶)	1387—1389
Ka-kitsu (嘉吉)	1441—1444
Kam-bun (寛文)	1661—1673
Kam-pei (寛平)	889—898
Kam-po (寛保)	1741—1744
Kan-ei (寛永)	1626—1644
Kan-en (寛延)	1748—1751
Kan-gen (寛元)	1243—1247
Kan-ji (寛治)	1087—1094
Kan-ki (寛喜)	1229—1232
Kan-kō (寛弘)	1004—1012
Kan-nin (寛仁)	1017—1021
Kan-ō (寛應)	1350—1352
Kan-sei (寛政)	1789—1801
Kan-sei (寛正)	1460—1466
Kan-toku (寛徳)	1044—1046
Kan-wa (寛和)	985—987
Ka-ō (嘉應)	1169—1171
Ka-reki (嘉暦)	1326—1329
Ka-roku (嘉祿)	1225—1227
Ka-shō (嘉承)	1106—1108
Ka-shō (嘉祥)	848—851
Ka-tei (嘉禎)	1235—1238
Kei-an (慶安)	1648—1652
Kei-chō (慶長)	1596—1615
Kei-ō (慶應)	1865—1868
Kei-un (慶雲)	704—708
Kem-bu (建武)	1334—1338
Kem-pō (建保)	1213—1219

Year-name	Period
Ken-chō (建長)	1249—1256
Ken-ei (建永)	1206—1207
Ken-gen (建元)	1302—1303
Ken-ji (建治)	1275—1278
Ken-kyū (建久)	1190—1199
Ken-nin (建仁)	1201—1204
Ken-ryaku (建暦)	1211—1213
Ken-toku (建徳)	1370—1372
Kō-an (弘安)	1278—1288
Kō-an (康安)	1361—1362
Kō-chō (弘長)	1261—1264
Kō-ei (康永)	1342—1345
Kō-gen (康元)	1256—1257
Kō-hei (康平)	1058—1065
Kō-ho (康保)	964—968
Kō-ji (康治)	1142—1144
Kō-ji (弘治)	1555—1558
Kō-koku (興國)	1340—1346
Kō-ka (弘化)	1844—1848
Kō-nin (弘仁)	810—824
Kō-ō (康應)	1389—1390
Kō-reki (庵暦)	1379—1381
Kō-roku (康祿)	1528—1533
Kō-shō (康正)	1455—1456
Kō-toku (康徳)	1452—1455
Kō-wa (康和)	1099—1101
Kō-wa (弘和)	1381—1384
Kyō-ho (享保)	1716—1736
Kyō-toku (享徳)	1452—1455
Kyō-wa (享和)	1801—1804
Kyū-an (久安)	1145—1151
Kyū-ju (久壽)	1154—1156
Man-en (萬延)	1860—1861
Man-ji (萬治)	1658—1661
Man-ju (萬壽)	1024—1028
Mei-ji (明治)	1868—1912
Mei-ō (明應)	1492—1501
Mei-reki (明暦)	1655—1658
Mei-toku (明徳)	1390—1394
Mei-wa (明和)	1764—1772
Nim-pyō (仁平)	1151—1154
Nin-an (仁安)	1166—1168
Nin-ji (仁治)	1240—1243
Nin-ju (仁壽)	851—854
Nin-na (仁和)	885—889
Ō-an (應安)	1368—1375
Ō-chō (應長)	1311—1312
Ō-ei (應永)	1394—1428
Ō-ho (應保)	1161—1163
Ō-toku (應徳)	1084—1087
Ō-wa (應和)	961—964
Rei-ki (靈龜)	715—717
Reki-nin (曆仁)	1238—1239
Reki-ō (曆應)	1338—1342
Sai-kō (齊衡)	854—857
Shi-toku (至徳)	1384—1387
Shō-an (承安)	1171—1175
Shō-an (正安)	1299—1302
Shō-chō (正長)	1428—1429
Shō-chū (正中)	1324—1326
Shō-gen (正元)	1259—1260
Shō-gen (承元)	1207—1211
Shō-hei (承平)	931—938
Shō-hei (正平)	1346—1370
Shō-hō (承保)	1074—1077
Shō-hō (正保)	1644—1648
Shō-ji (正治)	1199—1201

Year-name	Period
Shō-ka (正嘉)	1257—1259
Shō-kei (正慶)	1332—1333
Shō-kyū (承久)	1219—1222
Shō-ō (正應)	1288—1293
Shō-ō (承應)	1652—1655
Shō-reki (正暦)	990—995
Shō-reki (承暦)	1077—1081
Shō-tai (昌泰)	898—904
Shō-toku (承德)	1097—1099
Shō-toku (正徳)	1711—1716
Shō-wa (正和)	834—848
Shō-wa (承和)	1312—1317
Shō-wa (昭和)	1926
Shu-chō (朱鳥)	686—701
Tai-hō (大寶)	701—704
Tai-ka (大化)	645—650
Tai-ji (大治)	1126—1131
Tai-shō (大正)	1912—1926
Tem-bun (天文)	1532—1555
Tem-meī (天明)	1781—1789
Tem-pō (天保)	1830—1844
Tem-puku (天福)	1233—1234
Tem-pyō (天平)	729—749
Tempyō-Hōji (天平寶字)	757—765

Year-name	Period
Tempyō-Jingo (天平神護)	765—767
Tempyō-Shōhō (天平勝寶)	749—757
Ten-kei (天慶)	938—947
Ten-an (天安)	857—859
Ten-chō (天長)	824—834
Ten-ei (天永)	1110—1113
Ten-en (天延)	978—976
Ten-gen (天元)	978—983
Ten-ji (天治)	1124—1126
Ten-ju (天授)	1375—1381
Ten-ki (天喜)	1053—1058
Ten-nin (天仁)	1108—1110
Ten-ō (天應)	781—782
Ten-roku (天祿)	970—973
Ten-ryaku (天曆)	947—957
Ten-shō (天承)	1131—1132
Ten-shō (天正)	1573—1592
Ten-toku (天徳)	957—961
Ten-wa (天和)	1681—1684
Ten-yō (天養)	1144—1145
Toku-ji (徳治)	1306—1308
Wa-dō (和銅)	708—715
Yō-rō (養老)	717—724
Yō-wa (養和)	1181—1182



## CHAPTER VI

### ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM

#### 1. THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

**The Cabinet.**—The "Naikaku" or Cabinet is the highest central administrative organ, and is organized with all Ministers of State who are at the same time chiefs of different departments of the central Government. The function of this collective body of Ministers of State is to initiate, determine and carry out the general schemes and policies of the Government, and as the chief and highest executive administrative organ of the State it exercises all powers executive, legislative and judicial, which are vested in the Crown by the Constitution. Thus is issuance of all administrative and emergency ordinances, the making of treaties with foreign countries, the making or unmaking of war, etc., all falling within the executive function of the Government, are virtually controlled by the Cabinet in the name of the Emperor. The Ministers of State as members of the Cabinet periodically meet to discuss and determine under the presidency and guidance of the Prime Minister how the Imperial Government is to be carried on in all important matters of State and how to advise the Emperor on such matters, the meeting being called the Cabinet council.

The Central Government is composed of twelve Departments, namely, those of Foreign Affairs, of Home Affairs, of Finance, of Army, of Navy, of Justice, of Education, of Agriculture and Forestry, of Commerce and Industry, of Communications, of Railways and of Overseas Affairs. The last named department was created in June 1929.

Each of these departments has its chief official, who is a Minister of State and who besides controlling the department and supervising its affairs is held responsible to the Emperor as a Minister of State. The Minister is assisted by a permanent vice-minister in controlling and supervising the affairs of the department, and also by a parliamentary vice-minister in directing political affairs of the department and matters relating to parliamentary affairs. Under the parliamentary vice-minister there is in each department parliamentary counsellor whose duty is to assist the parliamentary vice-minister. Then each department is divided into several bureaux, each bureau having its head or bureau director, and again each of these bureau is divided into

more than one section, each section having its chief official or sectional chief. Under those chief officials there is a number of clerks who are attached to different bureaux or sections as the case may be.

Besides these officials, there are in each department a personal secretary to the Minister, several secretaries, technical experts, and other special officials or non-official members, etc. The Ministers are appointed by the Emperor in person and are classed as officials of Shinnin rank; the vice-ministers (both parliamentary and permanent), parliamentary counsellors and bureau directors are classed as officials of Chokunin rank and are appointed by the Ministers by the order of the Emperor. Ordinary clerks and other junior officials belong to either the Sonin or Hannin rank.

#### The Composition of Departments

The composition of various departments, briefly explained, is as follows:—

**The Foreign Office (Gaimu-sho).** There are five bureaux, i.e. European & Asiatic Bureau, Eastern Asiatic Bureau, American Bureau, Commercial Bureau, and Treaty Bureau, besides the Intelligence Department and the Cultural Undertakings Department. Location—Kasumigaseki 1-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

**The Department of Home Affairs (Naimu-sho).** Is divided into the bureaux, i.e. those of Shrines, Local Affairs, Police, Public Work, and Sanitation, in addition to which there are two special bureaux, namely, Social Bureau and Employment Exchange Office. It also controls Shinto shrines, city and town planning, etc. Location—Sakurada-machi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

**The Department of Finance (Okura-sho).** Has four bureaux, i.e. Account, Taxation, Finance, and Banking; also the Deposit Section, the Mint, the Monopoly Bureau, etc. Location—Otemachi 1-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

**The Department of War (Rikugun-sho).** Is divided into eight bureaux, namely, those of Personnel, Military Affairs, Reorganization, Ordnance, Account, Medical Affairs, Construction and Judicial Affairs. The General Staff Office consisting of four sub-departments with

a number of officers is also on the same premises as the Department of War. Location—Nagata-ho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

**The Department of the Navy (Kaigun-sho)** Is divided into eight bureaux, namely, those of Military Affairs, Personnel, Education, Supplies, Medical Affairs, Account, Construction and Judicial Affairs. The Naval Staff Board is also on the same premises as the Department of the Navy. Location—Kasumigaseki 2-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

**The Department of Justice (Shiho-sho).** Consists of the Civil Affairs Bureau, the Criminal Affairs Bureau and the Prison Affairs Bureau. Location—Nishi Hibiya-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

**The Department of Education (Mombu-sho).** Consists of six bureaux, i.e., Special Education, Common Education, Technical Education, Social Education, Textbooks, and Religions. Location—Sannen-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

**The Department of Agriculture & Forestry (Norin-sho).** Is divided into five bureaux, namely, those of Agriculture, Forestry, Fishery, Stock-breeding, and Sericulture. Besides, it has 6 local forest bureaux in Tokyo and elsewhere, the Yokohama Silk Conditioning House, several local agricultural, horticultural, tea, fishery, sericultural, stock-breeding and forestry experiment

stations, etc. Location—Otemachi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

**The Department of Commerce & Industry (Shoko-sho).** Is divided into four bureaux, i.e., Commerce, Industry, Mining, and Trade, and besides, Patent Bureau, Insurance Section, Geological Investigation Institute; also controls the local mine superintendence bureaux, etc. Location—Kobiki-cho, 10-chome, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo.

**The Department of Communications (Teishin-sho).** Is divided into seven bureaux, i.e., Postal Affairs, Telegraph & Telephone, Construction, Electrical Affairs, Mercantile Marine, Aviation, such as Post Savings Banks, Industrial Life Insurance, Communications, Light-house, etc. Location—Otemachi 2-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

**The Department of Railways (Tetsudo-sho).** Has seven bureaux, i.e., Private Railway Administration, Traffic, Construction, Way & Work, Engineering, Electric, and Financial. Besides, it has the Bureau of Traffic Industry, Divisional Superintendence Offices, etc. Location—Otemachi, 1-chome, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

**The Department of Overseas Affairs (Takumusho).** Consists of one sub-department (Chosen Dept.) and three bureaux, namely, those of Superintendence, Industrial, and Colonial Affairs. Location—Nishi Hibiya-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

#### II. CIVIL AND MILITARY SERVICE

##### Classification

The civil service is graded into four ranks, viz. as follows:—

**"Shin-nin" or Ministerial**—Cabinet Ministers, Privy Counsellors, Ambassadors, and a few others, who are nominated by the Emperor in person and are entitled to report direct to the Crown.

**"Choku-nin" or Directorship**—Vice-Ministers and Bureau Directors of various Departments, Prefectural Governors, University Professors of high grade and some others, all of whom are appointed by the Emperor through the chiefs of the respective Departments and are entitled to attend the State ceremonies.

**"So-nin" or Secretaryship**—Bureau Secretaries, Sectional Chiefs, etc., who are not entitled to attend the State ceremonies.

**"Han-nin" or Clerical staff**—Assistant engineers, etc.

The 2nd and 3rd grade officials (i.e. "Choku-nin" and "So-nin" officials) are also collectively called "Koto-kan" (High officials), the term being also applied to high officers of the Army and Navy. Non-commissioned and warrant

officers of the Army and Navy are classed as "Han-nin" rank.

##### Appointment

Under the Appointment Regulation in force the "Choku-nin" officials are appointed, in principle, from among those "So-nin" officials of higher rank who have been in the service for over 2 years or others possessing similar qualifications, the Army and Navy officers of the rank above major-general or rear-admiral or corresponding rank having the privilege to be appointed the "Choku-nin" officials (civil) of the Army or Navy Department respectively. The "So-nin" official are appointed from among those who passed the examination for higher civil service or others possessing similar qualifications, those "Han-nin" officials who have been in the service for over 5 years and have shown ability in the execution of official business being accorded the treatment of "So-nin" grade. The "Han-nin" officials are appointed from among those who have passed the examination for ordinary civil service or graduates of middle schools or



other schools of similar status and recognized as such by the Education Minister, or others having similar qualifications, or those junior clerks or employees who have been in the public service for over 4 years successively.

**Special Appointment**—Some classes of high officials are appointed irrespective of the aforementioned qualifications, these being Chief Secretary of Cabinet, Director of Legislation Board, Parliamentary Vice-Ministers and Parliamentary Counsellors of various Departments, Director of Police Affairs Bureau (Home office), Inspector-General of Metropolitan Police, Chief Secretaries of the Houses of the Diet, Personal Secretaries to the Ministers of State, etc. The special appointment also covers the Chiefs of Govt. Iron Foundry and Monopoly Bureau, Directors of Printing Bureau, the Mint and the Woolen Factory (Army), Financial Commissioners stationed abroad, and a few others, who are appointed from among men possessing technical knowledge, tact and experience necessary to the execution of official business peculiar to the respective posts, irrespective of the qualifications specified in the Appointment Regulations.

The total force of the staff of Government service as at the end of 1935 was as follows:—

Table 1. Total Force of Government Service

Civil Service (inclusive of employees)	494,570
Army 14,955 (exclusive of non-commissioned officers)	
Navy 8,802	

#### Scale of Salaries

The scale of salaries for the officials in the Government service of all ranks excluding Premier, Ministers of State, Governor-Generals of Chosen and Taiwan, and Governor of Kwantung Leased Territory were substantially increased in 1920. The new scale for principal posts in civil and military service stands as follows:—

Table 2. Scale of Salaries

Office	Salary per annum
Prime Minister	¥9,600
Ministers of State	6,800
Gov.-Gen. of Chosen	
Pres. of Privy Council	6,600
Gov.-Gen. of Taiwan	
Ambassadors	
Pres. of Administrative Litigation Court	6,600
Pres. of Supreme Court	
Public Procurator-General	
Pres. of Board of Audit	

Office	Salary per annum
Vice-Pres. of the Privy Council	6,200
Dir.-Gen. of Admin. Affairs (Chosen)	
Pres. of Manchurian Affairs Board	
Privy Councillors	5,800

#### (b) "Choku-nin" Rank

Pres. of Imp. Universities	6,200-5,800	
Gov. of Hokkaido		
Pres. of Board of National Resources	5,800-5,100	
Vice-Pres. of Manchurian Affairs Board		
Pres. of Social Bureau		
Financial Commissioners Abroad		
Pres. of Monopoly Bureau		
Pres. of Patent Bureau		
Pres. of Supreme Court (Taiwan)		
Dir.-Gen. of Kwantung Bureau		
Chief Secretary of Cabinet		5,800
Pres. of Legislation Bureau		
Chairman of Cabinet Inquiry Council		
Vice-Ministers (Parl. and Perm.)		
Dir.-Gen. of Civil Affairs (Taiwan)		
Chief Engineer of Home Department		
Inspector-Gen. of Metropolitan Police Board		
Pres. of Supreme Court (Chosen)		
Ministers Plenipotentiary	5,350-4,650	
Embassy Councillors		
Commercial Councillors		
Bureau Dir. of Chosen Govt.-Gen.	5,800-4,050	
Judges and Procurators		
Gov. of South Sea Is. and of Karafuto		
Pres. of Public Universities		
Chief of National Cultural Research Office		
Gov. of Prefectures		
Pres. of Decoration Bureau		5,100
Chief Secr. of Privy Council		
Chief Secr. of the Houses of Diet		5,350-4,650
Gov. of Kwantung Province		
Parliamentary Councillors	4,650	
Bureau Directors		
Consul-General		

The Governors of Tokyo, Osaka, Kyoto, Kanagawa and Hyogo enjoy each an additional allowance of ¥800, and those of Nagasaki, Niigata, Aichi, Miyagi, Hiroshima, Fukuoka and Kumamoto, ¥600.

#### (c) "So-nin" and "Han-nin" Rank

Grade	"So-nin" (Annual)	"Han-nin" (Monthly)
1st class	¥4,050-2,770	¥160
2nd "	3,600-2,420	135
3rd "	3,400-2,150	115
4th "	3,050-1,820	100
5th "	2,770-1,650	85
6th "	2,420-1,470	75
7th "	2,150-1,300	65
8th "	1,820-1,130	55
9th "	1,650-1,050	50
10th "	1,470-970	45
11th "	1,300-900	40
12th "	1,130	—

Note.—In exceptional cases the salary of "Han-nin" rank may be raised to ¥200.

#### (d) "Choku-nin" Rank

	Salary	Service Allowance
Ambassador	¥6,600	¥45,000 (U. S. A.) 40,000 (Great Britain & France) 35,000 (Germany) 30,000 (Russia, Italy, Brazil & Turkey) 28,000 (Belgium) 26,000 (China) 20,000 (Manchoukuo)
Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary	(a) ¥5,800 (b) 5,100 (c) 4,650	¥25,000 (Austria, Iran, Argentina & Canada) 22,000 (European countries except Austria) 18,000 (Mexico, Chile & Peru) 15,000 (Siam)
Embassy Counsellor and Emb. Commercial Counsellor	(a) ¥5,800 (b) 5,100 (c) 4,650	¥15,000-7,300
Consul-General	¥4,650	¥15,000-13,000 (New York) 14,000-12,000 (San Francisco) 12,000-10,000 (London, Hamburg, Sydney, Honolulu & San Paulo) 1,000-9,000 (Mukden, Alexandria & Shanghai) 10,000-8,000 (Habarovsk, Vladivostok, Alexandrovsk, Harbin, Singapore & Calcutta) 9,000-8,000 (Tientsin, Tsingtao, Nanking, Hankow & Manila) 8,500-7,500 (Tsinan, Canton, Hongkong, Hanoi & Batavia) 7,000-6,000 (In Manchoukuo and some Chinese cities).
Consul	¥4,050-2,150	¥9,000 (Havana) 8,500 (Seattle, Chicago and New York) 8,150 (London) 8,000 (Liverpool, Marseilles, Los Angeles, Portland, New Orleans, Vancouver, Panama Bauru) 7,800 (San Francisco) 7,650 (Hamburg) 7,500 (Lyons, Milan, Anvers, Odessa, Mazatlan & Lima) 7,000 (Rangoon, Colombo, Bombay, Port Said, Mombassa, Cape Town & San Paulo) 6,800 (Sydney & Honolulu) 6,800 (Alexandria) 6,500 (Saigon & Durvao) 6,000-4,000 (In other places).
Vice-Consul	¥3,050-1,300	¥7,750-5,850 (U.S.A., Holland & Turkey)

#### (e) Imperial Household Service

	Salary per annum
Minister	¥6,800
Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal	6,800
Director of Peerage Bureau	6,200-5,800
Grand Chamberlain	
Grand Master of Ceremonies	
Vice-Minister	5,800
Lord Steward to Empress	5,800-5,100
Lord Steward to Empress Dowager	5,800-5,100
President of Imp. Estate Bureau	5,800-1,650
President of Imp. Board of Audit	5,800-4,650

Officials of higher civil service draw from ¥5,100 to 970 a year.

#### (f) Judicial Service

	Salary per annum
Supreme Court:	
President	¥6,600
Procurator-General	6,600
Judges & Procurators	5,800-4,050
Appeal Courts:	
President	5,800-4,650
Chief Procurators	5,800-4,650
Judges & Procurators	4,650-4,050
District Court:	
Presiding Judges & Chief Procurators	4,650-4,050



(g) Army Service		(h) Navy Service	
	Salary per annum		Salary per annum
General	¥6,600	Admiral	¥6,600
Lieut.-General	5,800	Vice-Admiral	5,800
Major-General	5,000	Rear-Admiral	5,000
Captain	4,150	Captain	4,150
Lieut.-Colonel	3,220	Commander	3,220
Major	2,330	Lieutenant-Commander	2,330
Captain	1,900-1,470	Lieutenant	1,900-1,470
Lieutenant	1,130-1,020	Sub-Lieutenant (1st)	1,130-1,020
Sub-Lieutenant	850	Sub-Lieutenant (2nd)	850
Bandmaster (1st)	2,150-1,750	Special Commission Lieutenant	2,070 1,910
" (2nd)	1,540 1,390	" " Sub-Lieut. (1st)	1,740-1,630
" (3rd)	1,240-1,130	" " Sub-Lieut. (2nd)	1,470-1,368
		Cadets	670

III. THE PENSION SYSTEM

The pension law (revised in 1923) divides pensions into (a) ordinary pension, (b) additional pension and invalid allowance, (c) retiring allowance, (d) pension to the families of deceased officials and officers, and (e) allowance to the families of deceased officials and officers. Those who are entitled to pension under the law are civil officials above "han-nin" rank and military officers and men, the staff of public schools and libraries, prison and police officers (all above "han-nin" rank) being also entitled to the same privileges as civil officials.

**Ordinary Pension.**—Civil officials who retire after a series of 15 years or more (5 years in the case of Ministers of State and 10 years in

the case of police and prison officers) are entitled to ordinary pension, the amount being fixed according to the length of service and the sum of salary drawn at the time of retirement. The rate is 50/150 of the annual sum of salary for one whose service extended 15-16 years, 1/150 to be added to reach extra year until the maximum of 40 years is reached. Military officers and men are granted ordinary pension on retiring after the service of 11 years or more, an addition being allowed for each extra year until the maximum of 50 years is reached, as shown in the undermentioned scale of rate fixed according to rank and length of service.

Table 3. Pension System for Army and Navy

Length of service	Generals & Admirals	Colonels (Captains) to Lieutenants	Non-Commissioned & Warrant Officers	Privates
11	¥2,500-1,867	¥1,534-467	¥490-225	¥200-150
15	2,700 1,017	1,656-505	432-253	224-174
20	2,950-2,104	1,808-552	472-288	254-204
25	3,200-2,392	1,961-600	512-329	284-234
30	3,450-2,579	2,113-647	552-358	314-264
35	3,700-2,797	2,266-695	592-393	344-294
40	3,950-2,954	2,418-742	632-428	474-334
45	4,200-3,329	2,571-790	673-463	403-381
50	4,500-3,329	2,703-837	712-498	534-384

**Additional Pension.**—Civil officials and military officers and men who retire on account of incapacity arising from sickness contracted while in discharge of duty or who have become invalids because of wounds sustained in action are granted additional pension at the rate ranging from ¥240 to ¥2,880 per annum for those disabled while on ordinary duty and from ¥300 to ¥3,600 per annum for those disabled in action. The rates differ according to the order of official rank held at the time of retiring from service and the degree of incapacity.

**Invalid Allowance.**—This is granted to military men of the rank of non-commissioned and warrant officers and privates or blue-jackets who retire from service on account of ill health or wounds suffered while on duty, though not disabled for life. The rates which differ according to rank as well as the cause and degree of incapacity range between ¥132 (min.) and ¥1,650 (max.) for non-commissioned officers and warrant officers, and between ¥120 (min.) and ¥1,500 (max.) for privates and bluejackets, as shown below:—

Non-commissioned and warrant officers	Invalid from action	¥165-1,660	Invalid from discharge of ordinary duty	¥132-1,320
Privates and bluejackets		150-1,500		120-1,200

**Retiring Allowance.**—Retiring allowance is granted to those who retire from the service before the tenure of service entitles them to pension, the sum being fixed, as in the case of pension, according to the length of service and the sum of salary drawn by the retiring official or officer at the time of retirement. For civil officials it is calculated by multiplying the sum of monthly salary by the number of years of service. Rates for military officers vary according to the official rank and the length of service, the scale of maximum and minimum rates being as follows:—

Table 4. Retiring Allowance for Army and Navy

Rank	Minimum		Maximum	
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
Generals and Admirals	(a)	¥4,375	¥6,200	
	(b)	3,250	5,417	
	(c)	2,333	5,417	
Colonels to Lieutenants	(a)	1,533	3,833	
	(b)	988	3,292	
	(c)	542	2,708	
	(d)	196	1,960	
	(e)	142	1,417	
	(f)	117	1,167	
Non-commissioned and warrant officers	(a)	100	1,000	
	(b)	71	713	
	(c)	64	638	
	(d)	56	863	

**Pension & Allowance to Families of Deceased Officials and Officers.**—Pension is granted to the family of the deceased whose tenure of service entitles him to ordinary pension or who had already been receiving ordinary pension, the amount being (1) the whole sum of the pension to the deceased in the case of death from ill health or wounds suffered in action, (2) 8/10 in the case of death from ill health or wounds while on ordinary duty, and (3) 5/10 in the case of death from other causes.

Allowance is granted to the family of one who died while in office before the tenure of service entitles him to pension, the amount being the same as the retiring allowance for the corresponding length of service.

The order of family members entitled to this pension or allowance is widow, children under age, widower, parents, and grandparents.

Pension and Annuities

Pensions to civil and military officers, annuities to their families, and lump sum of money granted on their retiring, or, in case of death, to their families, make the following record (in Yen). Annuities attached to the decorations are also added.

Table 5. Pension

Year	Pension		Annuity to family	
	No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
1929	56,008	33,107,076	23,310	6,521,611
1930	57,373	34,542,230	24,328	6,866,909
1931	59,966	36,792,783	25,641	7,330,837
1932	64,294	40,654,321	26,556	7,681,063
1933	66,297	42,076,308	27,668	8,110,432
1934	68,087	43,527,986	29,088	8,623,104
<b>(b) Army Service</b>				
1929	113,461	48,470,638	80,568	15,803,368
1930	112,665	48,763,196	79,341	15,665,242
1931	112,476	49,478,838	78,088	15,513,920
1932	111,403	49,498,604	79,188	15,896,662
1933	110,889	49,392,255	78,597	16,176,481
1934	109,321	49,703,523	77,953	16,267,497
<b>(c) Navy Service</b>				
1929	64,007	23,611,108	14,874	3,541,459
1930	66,805	24,640,808	15,174	3,605,350
1931	69,196	25,589,352	15,862	3,776,040
1932	70,926	26,558,453	16,297	3,885,895
1933	71,576	26,900,066	16,743	4,049,540
1934	71,899	27,180,508	17,529	4,250,514

Table 6. Annuity Attached to the Order of Golden Kite and Rising Sun

Year	Golden Kite		Rising Sun	
	No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
1929	62,858	11,267,150	3,651	230,615
1930	61,856	11,073,700	3,557	221,125
1931	60,804	10,872,650	3,377	210,515
1932	59,640	10,640,350	3,252	200,150
1933	58,858	10,478,450	3,126	193,440
1934	61,424	10,967,550	2,951	172,310

Table 7. Directory

Cabinet:	
Prime Minister	Koki Hirota
Chief Secretary	S. Fujinuma
President of Legislation Bureau	D. Tsugita
" " Decoration Bureau	Dr. Y. Shimojo
" " National Resources Bureau	S. Matsui
" " Manchurian Affairs Board	General J. Terauchi
Bureau Directors	Statistics: T. Hasegawa
	Pension: S. Higai
	Printing: K. Tsuchiya



Department of Education:

Minister .....	Hachisaburo Hirao
Parliamentary Vice-Minister .....	Ko-zo Yamamoto
Permanent Vice-Minister .....	Shunsaku Kawahara
Parliamentary Councillor .....	Takatara Sakuda
Bureau Directors .....	Special School Affairs: N. Ito Common School Affairs: T. Kikuchi Technical School Affairs: K. Fujino Social Education: T. Yamakawa Text Books: S. Kawahara Religions: K. Takata Current Thought: N. Ito Educational Investigation: Dr. S. Shinohara
President, Tokyo Imperial University .....	Dr. M. Nagayo
Director, Epidemic Disease Institute .....	Dr. Y. Miyagawa
Director, Aeronautical Institute .....	Dr. Koroku Wada
Director, Seismic Research Institute .....	Dr. Mishio Ishimoto
Director, Tokyo Astronomical Observatory ..	Dr. Kiyofusa Saotome
Director, Imperial Library .....	K. Matsumoto
Director, Central Meteorological Observa- tory (Tokyo) .....	Dr. T. Okada
Director, Physical Education Research In- stitute .....	Dr. T. Iwahara
Director, Navigation Training Institute .....	K. Fujino
Director, Marine Observatory (Kobe) .....	Dr. T. Okada (add.)
Director, High Altitude Observatory .....	Wasaburo Oishi
Director, Geodetic Observatory .....	Dr. Hisashi Kimura
Director, Tokyo Science Museum .....	Y. Akiho
Director, Imperial Academy .....	Dr. Joji Sakurai
Director, Imperial Fine Art Academy .....	Dr. Teoru Shimizu
President, Kyoto Imperial University .....	Dr. M. Matsui
President, Tohoku Imperial University .....	Dr. K. Honda
President, Kyushu Imperial University .....	C. Matsuura
President, Hokkaido Imperial University ..	Dr. M. Takayama
President, Osaka Imperial University .....	Dr. C. Kusumoto

N.B.—For the names of Presidents of other Universities and Directors of Colleges and Schools vide Chapter on Education.

Department of Agriculture and Forestry:

Minister .....	Toshio Shimada
Parliamentary Vice-Minister .....	Takeshi Yamasaki
Permanent Vice-Minister .....	Sadaichi Nagase
Parliamentary Councillor .....	Kinuji Kobayashi
Bureau Directors .....	Agriculture: Y. Toda Fishery: T. Hara Forestry: R. Murakami Stock Breeding: T. Hosokawa Sericulture: S. Ino Rice: Y. Hasumi
Director, Economic Rehabilitation Dept. ..	Dr. G. Kodaira
Director, Silk Conditioning House (Yoko- hama) .....	Toshihiko Higo
Director, Silk Conditioning House (Kobe) ..	T. Kitao

Department of Commerce and Industry:

Minister .....	Dr. Gotaro Ogawa
Parliamentary Vice-Minister .....	Hideo Ikeda
Permanent Vice-Minister .....	Kakichi Takeuchi
Parliamentary Councillor .....	Gonzo Terajima
Bureau Directors .....	Commercial: N. Murase Industrial: S. Kishi Mining: S. Kojima Trade: S. Terao Insurance: H. Ogai
President, Patent Bureau .....	
President, Industrial Rationalization Bureau	Dr. G. Ogawa (add.)

Directors, Mine Superintendence Bureaux ..	E. Azuma (Tokyo) S. Tachibana (Sendai) K. Kuroda (Osaka) I. Harada (Fukuoka) M. Sekiguchi (Sapporo)
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Department of Communications:

Minister .....	Keikichi Tanomogi
Parliamentary Vice-Minister .....	Fusanosuke Maeta
Permanent Vice-Minister .....	Kenji Tomiyasu
Parliamentary Councillor .....	Mitsunaga Tada
Bureau Directors .....	Postal Affairs: J. Iseya Telegraph & Telephone Affairs: K. Hirasawa Construction: T. Kajii Electrical: T. Owada Mercantile Marine: T. Ono Aviation: N. Kataoka Financial: S. Sindo Postal Savings: Y. Takeda Industrial Life Insurance: T. Inokuma Light House: N. Nagaoka
Directors, Local Communications Bureaux ..	Y. Fujikawa (Tokyo) Y. Yamada (Nagoya) Y. Fujiwara (Osaka) S. Komatsu (Hiroshima) K. Tamura (Kumamoto) Y. Morishita (Sendai) T. Hagihara (Sapporo)
President, Higher Marine Court (Tokyo) ..	T. Ono
Directors, Principal Telegraph Offices .....	S. Hiroshima (Tokyo Central) H. Kimura (Osaka Central) E. Sugiyama (Kobe Central) T. Kondo (Shimonoseki) H. Ureshino (Shanghai)

Department of Railways:

Minister .....	Yonezo Maeda
Parliamentary Vice-Minister .....	Kazutani Tago
Permanent Vice-Minister .....	Kenjiro Kiyasu
Parliamentary Councillor .....	Jiro Hoshijima
Bureau Directors .....	Traffic: G. Arai Construction: N. Kawara Way and Works: R. Yamada Private Railway Administration: M. Maeda Engineering: Dr. K. Asakura Financial: Y. Kudo Electric: S. Morita Tourist Industry: M. Den
Regional Superintendents .....	C. Sakaguchi (Tokyo) K. Ikeda (Nagoya) K. Suzuki (Osaka) K. Shimaoka (Moji) F. Hirayama (Sendai) Y. Yamashita (Sapporo) S. Yamada (Hiroshima) Y. Morimoto (Niigata)

Department of Overseas Affairs:

Permanent Vice-Minister .....	Hidejiro Nagata
Parliamentary Vice-Minister .....	Mesaue Inata
Permanent Vice-Minister .....	Kaihei Iriye
Parliamentary Councillor .....	Roichi Hayashi
Chief, Chosen Department .....	K. Iriye (add.)
Bureau Directors .....	Superintendence: H. Hagiwara Industrial: K. Kitajima Colonial Affairs: S. Takayama



## Government-General of Chosen:

Governor-General .....	General Jiro Minami
Director-General of Administrative Affairs .....	Rokuichiro Ono
Bureau Directors .....	{ Internal Affairs: Juro Otake Financial: S. Hayashi Industrial: S. Hozumi Judicial: S. Masunaga Educational: B. Tominaga Police: K. Mitsunashi Agriculture & Forestry: S. Yajima Railway: H. Yoshida Communications: C. Yamada Monopoly: S. Yasui
President, Higher Court .....	T. Ogawa
" Appeal Court .....	J. Ito (Keijo) C. Nomura (Heijo) M. Hara (Taitei)
Customs Directors .....	{ M. Oda (Jinsen) S. Okawahara (Fusan) M. Seto (Shingishu)

## Government-General of Taiwan:

Governor-General .....	Seizo Kobayashi
Director-General of Administrative Affairs .....	Jiro Morioka
Bureau Directors .....	{ International Affairs: J. Kohama Education: S. Fukakawa Financial: K. Mineda Traffic: K. Hotta Industrial: S. Nakanose Police: K. Ishigaki Monopoly: K. Tabata
President, Higher Court .....	S. Saito
Customs Directors .....	{ T. Kawazoe (Keelung) E. Nakata (Takao)

## Kwantung Bureau:

Director-General .....	Rokuzo Takebe
Chief of Home Affairs Board .....	Rokuzo Takebe (add.)
Chief of Police Affairs Board .....	Major-Gen. Eiki Tojo
Chief of Supervisory Board .....	Nobuyoshi Tanaka
Gov. of Kwantung Province .....	Tatsuo Mikageike
Bureau Directors of Kwantung Province .....	{ Internal Affairs: K. Shiraishi Police Affairs: H. Tabe Communications: T. Ito Monopoly: S. Yonaiyama
Higher Court (Ryojun) .....	{ President: T. Kajima Chief Procurator: K. Shimoda
Chiefs, Civil Administration Offices .....	{ N. Yasunaga (Ryojun) S. Yonaiyama (Dairen) I. Yamaguchi (Chinchow) R. Hayashida (Pulantien) Go Gen-kei (Pitzuwo)

## Karafuto Administration Office:

Governor .....	Takeshi Imamura
Bureau Directors .....	{ Internal Affairs: K. Muto Police: T. Nakamura Agriculture & Forestry: F. Atsuchi
Director, Central Laboratory .....	Dr. Y. Miyake

## South Sea Islands (Mandate) Administration Office:

Governor .....	Hisao Hayashi
Secretary .....	Sadaichi Domoto
Director, Higher Court .....	O. Ishikawa

## Board of Audit:

President .....	Hideo Kono
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Department Chiefs .....	{ B. Kawamoto (1st Department) K. Oka (2nd Department) A. Inouye (3rd Department)
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## Court of Administrative Litigation:

President .....	Dr. H. Futagami
Departmental Chiefs .....	{ T. Miyake Dr. G. Endo
Councillors .....	{ T. Miyake G. Endo K. Sekiguchi T. Shimamura K. Murakami T. Sawada B. Abe F. Nozawa S. Horiye S. Sugita T. Shirokane

## Metropolitan Police Board:

Inspector-General .....	Kaoru Ishida
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## Department of War:

Minister .....	General Count Juichi Terauchi
Parliamentary Vice-Minister .....	Viscount T. Tatsumi
Permanent Vice-Minister .....	Lieut.-General Y. Umetsu
Parliamentary Councillor .....	

Bureau Directors .....	{ Personnel: Major-Gen. A. Atomiya Military Affairs: Lieut.-Gen. R. Isogai Arms: Major-Gen. K. Aminami Finance: Intendant-Gen. K. Hirate Law Affairs: F. Oyama Organization: Lieut.-Gen. S. Yamaoka Medical Affairs: Surgeon-Gen. C. Koizumi
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Chief, Aviation Department .....	Lieut.-Gen. K. Furusho
Chief, Aviation Technical Research Institute .....	Major-Gen. S. Ito
Chief, Military Aviation Arsenal .....	Major-Gen. K. Kazumi
Chief, Military Arsenal .....	Lieut.-Gen. S. Takahashi
Chief, Ordnance Department .....	Lieut.-Gen. G. Nagamochi
Chief, Technical Department .....	Lieut.-Gen. T. Hisamura
Chief, Scientific Research Institute .....	Lieut.-Gen. R. Tada
Commander, Tokyo Garrison .....	Lieut.-Gen. T. Iwakoshi
Commander, Gendarmerie (Tokyo) .....	Lieut.-Gen. K. Nakashima
Commander, Gendarmerie (Chosen) .....	Colonel S. Ninomiya
Chief, Fortification Department .....	Major-Gen. Y. Satake
Chief, Military Horse Supply Department .....	Lieut.-Gen. S. Nakayama
Chief, Transport Department .....	Lieut.-Gen. K. Matsuda
Director, Senju Woollen Factory (Acting) .....	Intendant Colonel S. Okamoto
Director, Provision Depot .....	Intendant Major-Gen. S. Futakame
Director, Clothing Depot .....	Intendant Major-Gen. J. Yabe

## General Staff Office:

Chief .....	Field Marshal H. I. H. Prince Kan-in
Deputy Chief .....	Lieut.-Gen. S. Nishio
Sectional Chiefs .....	{ Major-Gen. S. Iida (General Affairs) Lieut.-Gen. S. Kuwaki (1st Sec.) Major-Gen. H. Watari (2nd Sec.) Major-Gen. G. Tsukada (3rd Sec.)

Chief, Land Surveying Department .....	Major-Gen. S. Kuwahara
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## Military Training Department:

Inspector-General .....	Lieut.-Gen. M. Sugiyama
Superintendent .....	Lieut.-Gen. K. Nakamura
Inspectors .....	{ Cavalry: Lieut.-Gen. B. Hasunuma Artillery: Lieut.-Gen. M. Yamamuro Engineering: Lieut.-Gen. M. Satake Commissariat: Major-Gen. M. Imamura



Military Staff College: Major-Gen. Marquis T. Maeda  
 Military Academy: Lieut.-Gen. O. Yamada  
 Art. & Eng. School: Lieut.-Gen. Y. Hirooka  
 Infantry School: Major-Gen. S. Fujita  
 Toyama School: Major-Gen. T. Miyake  
 Cavalry School: Major-Gen. S. Inaba  
 Field Artillery School: Major-Gen. T. Iseki  
 Heavy Artillery School: Maj.-Gen. E. Uemura  
 Engineering School: Lieut.-Gen. S. Ushijima  
 Intendants School: Intend.-Gen. H. Ishikawa  
 Surgeons School: Surg.-Gen. Y. Teramoro  
 Veterinary Surgeons School: Vet.-Surg.-Gen. H. Fujii  
 Motor Car School: Major-Gen. I. Tsuchibashi  
 Tokorozawa Aviation School: Lieut.-Gen. H. Ezashi  
 Akeno Aviation School: Major-Gen. M. Wakatake  
 Shimoshizu Aviation School: Lieut.-Gen. R. Haruta  
 Hamamatsu Aviation School: Maj.-Gen. M. Sano  
 Aviation Tech. School: Major-Gen. K. Tsuji  
 Military Communications School: Major-Gen. K. Nakajima  
 Military Preparatory School (Tokyo): Cap. J. Shinohara  
 Military Training School (Sendai): Maj.-Gen. U. Yamada  
 Military Training School (Toyohashi): Maj.-Gen. K. Tsuneoka  
 Military Training School (Kumamoto): Maj.-Gen. K. Hamada  
 Narashino School: Maj.-Gen. M. Taniguchi  
 Artificers School: Major-Gen. Y. Ito

## School Directors

## Tokyo Garrison Headquarters:

Commander ..... General Tsuneichi Iwakoshi  
 Chief Staff ..... Major-Gen. Toji Yasui

## Army Divisions:

Division	Commander (Lt.-Gen.)	Division	Commander (Lt.-Gen.)
Guards	S. Kozuki	9th	S. Yamaoka
1st	K. Kawamura	10th	S. Yanage
2nd	N. Okamura	11th	S. Tada
3rd	M. Ito	12th	K. Shimizu
4th	K. Imai	13th	S. Suematsu
5th	K. Hayashi	16th	T. Kodama
6th	H. Tani	19th	Y. Suzuki
7th	K. Mike	20th	K. Miyake
8th	K. Shimomoto		

## Colonial Armies:

Commander of Chosen Army ..... Lieut.-Gen. K. Koiso  
 Chief Staff ..... Major-Gen. Y. Sae  
 Commander of Taiwan Army ..... Lieut.-Gen. T. Hata  
 Chief Staff ..... Major-Gen. R. Ogisu  
 Garrison Commander ..... Lieut.-Gen. Y. Iwamatsu  
 Commander of Kwantung Army ..... General K. Uyeda  
 Chief Staff ..... Lieut.-Gen. S. Itagaki  
 Deputy Chief Staff ..... Major-Gen. M. Imamura  
 Commander of Garrison in China (Tientsin) ..... Major-Gen. K. Tashiro  
 Chief Staff ..... Major-Gen. G. Hashimoto

## Department of Navy:

Minister ..... Admiral Syushin Nagano  
 Parliamentary Vice-Minister ..... Vice-Admiral K. Hasegawa  
 Permanent Vice-Minister ..... Zensaburo Nagata  
 Parliamentary Councillor

Bureau Directors ..... Military Affairs: Rear-Admiral F. Toyota  
 Personnel: Rear-Admiral S. Kobayashi  
 Supplies: Vice-Admiral M. Ueda  
 Construction: N. Yoshida  
 Education: Rear-Admiral T. Sumiyama  
 Medical Affairs: Surg. Vice-Adm. S. Takasugi  
 Account: Paym. Vice-Adm. H. Murakami  
 Law Affairs: S. Siomi  
 Chief, Naval Technical Department ..... Vice-Admiral G. Momotake  
 Chief, Aviation Department ..... Vice-Admiral G. Yamamoto  
 Chief, Technical Institute ..... Conductor: Rear-Admiral C. Ujiya  
 Chief, Gunpowder Depot ..... Rear-Admiral N. Yamauchi  
 Chief, Hydrographical Department

## School Directors

Naval Staff College: Vice-Admiral T. Otagaki  
 Naval College: Vice-Admiral K. Nakamura  
 Engineering School: Vice-Admiral M. Idemitsu  
 Medical School: Surg. Rear-Admiral Y. Mukoyama  
 Gunnery School: Rear-Admiral K. Tabata  
 Torpedo School: Rear-Admiral J. Arichi  
 Communication School: Cap. T. Takahata

## Naval Staff Board:

Chief ..... Fleet Adm. H. I. H. Prince Hiroyasu Fushimi  
 Deputy-Chief ..... Vice-Admiral S. Shimada

## Sectional Chiefs

Rear-Admiral N. Kondo (1st Section)  
 Rear-Admiral I. Takahashi (2nd Section)  
 Rear-Admiral S. Takesu (3rd Section)  
 Rear-Admiral M. Mayeda (4th Section)

## Naval Stations:

Yokosuka ..... Commander-in-Chief: Vice-Admiral M. Yonouchi  
 Kure ..... Commander-in-Chief: Admiral S. Fujita  
 Sasebo ..... Chief Staff: Cap. M. Shimizu

## Secondary Naval Ports (Commanders)

Maizuru: Vice-Admiral K. Shiozawa  
 Ominato: Rear-Admiral T. Sugisaka  
 Make: Rear-Admiral S. Wada  
 Chinkai: Vice-Admiral T. Inouye  
 Ryojun (Port Arthur): Rear-Adm. H. Wada

## Naval Arsenal (Chiefs)

Rear-Admiral T. Furuichi (Yokosuka)  
 Vice-Admiral T. Toyota (Kure)  
 Rear-Admiral S. Kikuno (Sasebo)  
 Rear-Admiral T. Fukuma (Hiroshima)

## Imperial Fleets:

Combined Fleet ..... Commander-in-Chief: Admiral S. Takahashi  
 First Squadron ..... Commander-in-Chief: Admiral S. Takahashi (add.)  
 Second Squadron ..... Commander-in-Chief: Vice-Admiral T. Kato  
 Third Squadron ..... Commander-in-Chief: Vice-Adm. K. Oikawa  
 Training Squadron ..... Commander: Vice-Admiral Z. Suzuki

## Defence Squadron (Commanders)

Rear-Admiral Y. Miyata (Yokosuka)  
 Rear-Admiral H. Higure (Kure)  
 Rear-Admiral T. Ando (Sasebo)

## Navy Department in Manchoukuo:

Commander ..... Vice-Admiral Y. Hamada  
 Chief Staff ..... Captain Y. Suzuki



## IV. LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Japan Proper is divided into 46 administrative districts or prefectures, three of them being called "fu" and the rest "ken."

These 46 prefectures are subdivided into 632 smaller administrative districts, which are called "gun" or counties, and these in turn are subdivided into villages or "mura" and towns or "machi." Originally sub-prefectural administrative division, the "gun" system was abolished in 1926 and "gun" now remains as a mere relic of olden times. As existing on August 1, 1936, there were 9,724 villages, 1,693 towns and 129 autonomous cities or "shi."

The chief administrator of a "fu" or "ken" is called "chiji" or prefectural governor and is appointed by the Minister of the Interior, whereas the mayor of a city or the headman of a town or village is elected by indirect popular votes usually for the term of four years. Thus when we say local government, the term includes all these different administrative organs, the chief executives of which are prefectural governor, mayor, and headman.

## Prefectures

Each prefecture has its own prefectural assembly, which is composed of at least 30 members elected by popular votes. Every male Japanese subject of the age of over 25 years, residing over one year in the prefecture and enjoying citizenship, has the right to vote or to be elected. The term of office of the members is four years. The assembly is called once a year by the prefectural governor to deliberate and decide the annual budget of the prefecture, and to give its consent to the general policies of the Governor. The assembly has initiative on non-budgetary matters and can demand a call of a special session on the quorum of at least one-third of the assembly or of one-half of the standing committee. The assembly can be dissolved subject to Imperial sanction. Established in 1878 it is in Japan the oldest representative institution modelled after the Western system and the law as last revised in 1929 made it liberal and more up-to-date in principle.

## Cities

The city with a population of over 30,000 has a municipal government. The mayor of a municipal city is elected by its city council, which is composed of at least 30 members elected by the qualified voters. Hence a city-government in Japan is in a sense a self-government, though the power of the mayor and city-council is still very much limited. A municipality can

own and control electric, gas, and water plants, and sewer systems; and it manages all matters concerning the primary education of its citizens, and its sanitary affairs. Within the limit defined by law, a municipality can make its own regulations and can tax its citizens. It can also make contract of loans. But all the power the mayor and the city-council of a city can exercise is under the strict supervision of the central as well as the prefectural government. No municipality in Japan is given the power to control the police forces within its city-limits, and even in Tokyo they are subsidiary to the Home Office.

Members of the city-council are elected by qualified voters, the qualifications of an elector being that he must be a male Japanese subject of 20 years of age and residing for a period of one year or more in his municipal electoral district.

(As regards composition, finance, etc., vide Chapters on Population and also on Six Premier Cities).

## The Municipal System

The municipal system in force was revised in 1921, together with partial reform in the law for the control of the election of the members of the city-council, next in 1926 and again in 1929. By the last revision the scope of franchise was considerably enlarged to prepare a way for the enforcement of general manhood suffrage for the election of parliamentary members. The extension of franchise through the revision has considerably increased the number of voters, by about 204 per cent., the number swelling to 80 voters for a population of 1,000 against 26 voters for a population of the same number under the old rules.

The result of the elections held under the system as revised in 1929 indicates a decided improvement in the quality of the members returned, particularly in respect of age, education, etc.

## Towns and Villages

The town and the village have also their own self-government, somewhat similar to the municipal government but on a smaller scale. They have their own headmen elected by indirect popular votes, i.e. a headmen elected by the town council in the case of a town, and by the village council in the case of a village. The qualifications of an elector of the town or village council are practically the same as those of an elector of the municipal council.

## ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM

## Latest Revision of Local System

The year 1926 saw an epoch-making revision in the local administrative system, in other words, the principle of the new election law for parliamentary members was adopted for the election of the members prefectural, municipal and village-town assemblies. In 1929 the prefectural system was revised as described above and that of the subordinate bodies was also made more democratic. In other words, their initiative is now recognized and the power of the administrative headmen was much curtailed as regards the enforcement of draft measures.

## Election under Universal Suffrage System

The first elections of prefectural assembly members under the universal suffrage system came off in 1927-28 with the following results, No. of votes, 12,406,311; No. of votes, 9,960,230; ratio of absentees, 19.7%. The votes polled as classified by party distinction were as follows:—

Seiyukai (Ministerial)	4,359,633
Minseito (Opposition)	4,262,580
Proletarians	471,131
Others	866,886

The returns for the cities and village-town elections are unknown, but as ascertained early in July 1929 the success of Proletarian members was striking, especially the Social Democrats in urban electorate and the other proletarian parties in the rural.

Table 8. Composition of Prefectures  
(April, 1934)

Prefecture	"Gun"	City	Town	Village
Aichi	18	5	81	150
Akita	9	1	51	184
Aomori	1	3	23	141

Prefecture	"Gun"	City	Town	Village
Chiba	12	2	87	252
Hime	12	3	35	235
Fukui	11	1	12	165
Fukuoka	19	10	50	251
Fukushima	17	3	47	357
Gifu	18	2	57	278
Gunma	11	3	40	162
Hiroshima	16	4	56	340
Hokkaido	85	7	46	218
Hyogo	25	5	71	335
Ibaraki	14	1	53	326
Ishikawa	8	1	25	185
Iwate	13	1	28	208
Kagawa	7	2	22	150
Kagoshima	12	1	37	105
Kanagawa	11	4	34	137
Kochi	7	1	28	163
Kumamoto	12	1	41	305
Kyoto	18	1	57	205
Miyazaki	8	3	18	74
Miye	15	4	36	293
Miyagi	16	2	37	162
Nagano	16	3	30	354
Nagasaki	9	2	24	159
Nara	10	1	28	123
Niigata	16	4	50	348
Oita	12	3	34	214
Okayama	19	3	58	323
Okinawa	5	2	4	50
Osaka	7	3	26	201
Saga	8	2	13	110
Saitama	9	4	46	313
Shiga	12	1	20	177
Shimane	16	1	23	254
Shizuoka	13	4	50	271
Tochigi	8	2	38	137
Tokushima	10	1	38	98
Tokyo	8	2	10	90
Tottori	6	2	17	163
Toyama	8	2	33	229
Wakayama	7	2	28	188
Yamagata	11	4	26	198
Yamaguchi	11	4	32	182
Yamanashi	9	1	12	225
Total	632	124	1,683	9,838
Do (1933)	632	121	1,663	9,839
Do (1932)	632	112	1,716	9,946
Do (1931)	632	109	1,708	9,986
Do (1930)	632	109	1,702	9,980
Do (1929)	632	104	1,687	10,065

Note.—For area, population, etc. see Chapter on Population.

Table 9. Members of Local Assemblies

	Prefectural		Municipal		Town and Village	
	Mem.	Electors (1,000)	Mem.	Electors (1,000)	Mem.	Electors (1,000)
1929	—	—	3,870	2,739	154,621	9,496
1930	1,881	12,129	3,868	2,819	154,816	9,575
1931	1,901	12,373	3,886	2,935	154,086	9,613
1932	—	—	4,092	3,643	151,918	9,157
1933	—	—	4,451	3,810	152,542	9,112

## REFORM IN JAPANESE ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY IN MANCHOUKUO

The question of reforming the Japanese administrative machinery in Manchoukuo was at last settled late in December 1934 after ex-

periencing troubles and entanglements. According to the regulations published on December 26 through the Official Gazette with reference



to the new offices set up, the new Manchurian Affairs Board (Taiman Jimukyoku) is under control of the Premier and takes charges of the following business:

- (1) Business relative to the Kwantung Bureau.
- (2) The unification of administrative affairs bearing on Manchoukuo in all Government offices.
- (3) The guidance and encouragement of colonization business in Manchoukuo, except matters of foreign relations.
- (4) Supervision of the South Manchuria Railway Company and the Manchuria Telegraph and Telephone Company.

The new Kwantung Bureau, provided within the Japanese Embassy in Hsinking, supervises the Kwantung Government and controls administrative matters in Kwantung Province, controls administration in the South Manchuria Railway zone, except what may be otherwise stipulated, and supervises the business of the South Manchuria Railway Company and the Manchuria Telegraph and Telephone Company.

The Ambassador to Manchoukuo superintends the Kwantung Bureau, himself being under the supervision of the Premier. In matters of for-

eign relations, however, he is amenable to the control of the Foreign Minister.

The Ambassador can ask the military or naval commanders in the districts concerned for the use of military or naval force, in case he deems the step necessary for the maintenance of peace and order in Kwantung Province and the South Manchuria Railway zone.

The Kwantung Government is provided for Kwantung Province, which is divided into five administrative districts, each having a civil administrative office.

The Governor of Kwantung Province controls administrative business in the province under the direction and supervision of the Ambassador. The Governor can, either by virtue of his office or by special powers entrusted to him, issue orders, for the infraction of which he can impose penalties of imprisonment with or without hard labour for a term not exceeding three months and or a fine not exceeding ¥100.

The Governor is called upon to report to the Ambassador when he requires the help of armed force for the maintenance of peace and order in the province under his jurisdiction. In case of emergency, he can apply to the military or naval commander in the affected districts direct.

## CHAPTER VII

### POLITICS AND POLITICAL PARTIES

#### THE CONSTITUTION

The constitutional movement in Japan, unlike similar agitations in many other countries, was a logical sequel to the reform of the Restoration of 1868,—a reform largely based on the idea of Europeanizing the country. It was not inaugurated with the motive restricting the power of the Sovereign, or settling the problem of "taxation and representation."

It was in 1874, the year following the split in the Council of State over the Korean question, that the regular constitutional movement first made its appearance in Japan. Among the politicians who undertook the constructive work of the Restoration, there were men of two distinct types, one civilian, and the other military, the former belonging in thought to the old "Kaikoku-to" party advocating the principle of opening the country, and the latter to "Joi-to" (Anti-Foreign) party. When they saw that even the national existence was in jeopardy at the critical moment of Restoration, their high sense of duty and patriotism had them work in concert in the interest of national unification and for effecting the necessary reconstruction. But the great task over, collision between the two was inevitable sooner or later. The Korean question furnished such an occasion and the Council of State became sharply divided over it, the affair ending in the resignation of those who were defeated. Shortly after they had left office, some of them began to take up an agitation aimed at the establishment of a national assembly, and publicly charged those who remained in office with determining the policies of State on their own arbitrary judgment. The agitation was entirely novel to the general public who had been inured to absolutism for centuries, and produced a wonderful effect on their mentality. So wide spread became this movement that the Government was forced to establish quasi-legislative institutions such as "Génro-in" (Senate), a High Court of Justice named "Taishin-in," and an Assembly of Prefectural Governors to ask their opinion about establishing a national assembly.

The national assembly idea spread like a wild fire, and was even advocated by a member of the Council of State, Shigenobu Okuma (afterwards Marquis), who at his own sole discretion planned

to establish a national assembly in 1883. His scheme met with strong opposition from all his colleagues. About this time the Government had decided to sell its industrial undertaking in Hokkaido to a private firm, and this evoked bitter and vehement public criticism when it was exposed by Okuma. On the 12th of October, 1881, the Government annulled the sale and at the same time issued an Imperial Decree commanding the establishment of a national assembly in 1890. In March, 1882, Hirobumi Ito (later Prince) and his suite were dispatched to Europe to study the political institutions in the West with a view to preparing a Constitution for Japan. The mission returned home in 1884. While Ito was in Europe, he spent most of his time in Prussia. After his return he exerted all his influence and made every effort to introduce a bureaucracy after the Prussian type into Japan and, under his guidance, a Bureau for the investigation of Constitutional System was established in 1884 as an office subjoined to the Imperial Household Department, to carry out the work of drafting a Constitution. In this grave task Ito was assisted principally by Takeshi Inouye, (afterwards Viscount and Minister of Education), Miyoji Ito (afterwards Count and Privy Councillor), Kentaro Kaneko (now Count and Privy Councillor) and some others. A Constitution was duly framed, was submitted to and adopted by the Privy Council, and was promulgated on the 11th of February, 1889. In the following year, the National Assembly or Imperial Diet, as it is called, was established, and thus Japan changed from an absolute monarchical state to a constitutional monarchy. (The text of the Constitution is given in full in Chapter VI, 1934 edition of this book, which see—Editor).

#### POLITICS

Politics in every country has its own peculiarities, and that is particularly so in Japan. Her political institutions are very complicated, and the political psychology of her people is unique and extremely singular. Hence it is not an easy matter to describe the working of her government or the political state of the country.

References: Table 1—Nippon Teikoku Tokai Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual), 1935. Table 2—Shokun Roku (List of Government Officials), 1935. Tables 3, 4, 5—Researches of the War & Navy Offices. Table 7—Shokun Roku (List of Government Officials), 1935. Table 8—Researches of Home Department. Table 9—Nippon Teikoku Tokai Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual), 1935.



The principal factors in the constitutional machinery of Japan are the Emperor, the Privy Council, the Cabinet, the Imperial Diet, the Electorate, the Political Parties, and the Genro or Elder Statesmen which last is now practically one of historic interest. Their legal status and actual powers, and their relations to each other may be briefly described as follows:

#### The Emperor

Prince Hirobumi Ito, the chief framer of the Constitution, expounds the constitutional status of the Emperor with the following words: "The sovereign power of reigning over and governing the State is inherited by the Emperor from the ancestors, and by him bequeathed to his posterity. All the different legislative as well as executive powers of State, by means of which he reigns over the country and governs the people, are united in the Most Exalted Personage, who holds in his hands, as it were, all the ramifying threads of the political life of the country, just as the brain in the human body is the primitive source of all mental activity manifested through the four limbs and different parts of the body." Thus, in theory, the Emperor is absolute, and the people believe him to be sacred and inviolable according to the letter of the Constitution. But in reality, he acts only by the advice of the Prime-Minister and occasionally by that of the Elder Statesmen. And constitutionally he is inviolable in the sense that "he can do no wrong."

#### The Privy Council

Next to the Emperor, the Privy Council in Japan occupies a peculiar position in the constitutional system of her government. It is not like the Privy Council of England, out of which the British cabinet system has grown, and in which the Cabinet Ministers have their legal existence. The Cabinet and the Privy Council in Japan form two separate and independent institutions.

The functions of the Privy Council are chiefly of a consultative nature. It meets to deliberate on any important matter of State, when its opinion is asked for by the Emperor, and advises him according to its lights. The principal matters on which it is usually consulted are those which come under the jurisdiction of the Imperial House Law, all important legislations relating to Articles of the Constitution, the issuing of proclamations of the law of siege and of Imperial ordinances and all

the matters relating to international treaties and pledges.

The power of the Privy Council is entirely of a negative nature; nevertheless it exercises a very strong powers and influence in Japanese politics. It consists of 26 members with its own President and Vice-President. They are all veteran statesmen who have played very important part in the administration, and though no longer taking an active share in it, their age and prestige entitle them to universal respect. As may be expected they are extremely conservative in their political ideas and sentiments.

All such important acts of legislation as relating to rights and liberties of the people are usually submitted to the Privy Council, before the Government introduce them to the Imperial Diet. The Privy Council is at liberty to reject or to delay their passage. Of course, it is as the Emperor pleases either to accept or reject this decision, but it may easily be seen how great is the influence which the Privy Council can exercise on all such legislation by virtue of its deliberative function. Sometimes the Cabinet uses the power of the Privy Council as a convenient expedient for killing measures it does not really desire to bring into the Diet. On the other hand, it sometimes happens that the Privy Council prevents the passage of some important measures of the Government. But the Privy Council cannot meet on its own account, its meetings being called by the Emperor on the advice of the Minister-President. All the Cabinet ministers have seats in the Council *ex-officio*, and, therefore, it is the will of the Cabinet that ultimately prevails, and not that of the Privy Council.

As to international treaties and pledges, the Privy Council is always consulted, and it is the only deliberate body in the constitutional system of Japan that can freely discuss all the foreign policies of a Government with the Cabinet, though its meetings are kept absolutely secret.

The most important power of the Privy Council is that of interpreting the Constitution. In 1927 and 1928 three important cases were submitted to the approval of the Privy Council. The disapproval of the Wakatsuki Ministry's Bank of Taiwan relief measure in April, 1927 on constitutional ground caused its fall, while a similar proposal made by the succeeding Cabinet and the Peace Preservation Emergency Ordinance proposed in July, 1928 by the same Cabinet were both passed. The latest instance was a hot dispute raised in June, 1929 that the phrase in the Kellogg Anti War Pact; "in

the names of their respective peoples," was not compatible with the Constitution.

#### The Cabinet

Nowhere in the Constitution of Japan is the word "Cabinet" mentioned. Yet there exists as a matter of fact as a collective body of all Department Ministers under the presidency of the Minister-President, somewhat like the Council of Ministers in Belgium, or the British Cabinet, for the purpose of initiating, determining, or carrying out the general scheme and policies of the Government. Though this collective body known as the "Naikaku" meets to discuss and determine under the guidance of the Minister-President how the Imperial government is to be carried on in all important matters of State and how to advise the Emperor, yet it has no joint responsibility as the British Cabinet has, that is to say, each Cabinet Minister is not responsible for the action of the Cabinet as a whole nor the Cabinet as a whole for the action of each Minister.

As chief executive organ of the State, the Cabinet exercises all powers executive, legislative, and judicial, which are invested in the Crown by the Constitution, that is to say, the issuing of administrative and emergency ordinances, the making of treaties with foreign nations, the declaring of peace and war, etc., all of which falling within the executive function of government are virtually controlled by the Cabinet in the name of the Emperor.

In Japan, the Cabinet Ministers, unlike those of England, are not always party-men; they may hold their office independent of the House of Representatives. The representative system of government has not yet developed in this country to such a stage as to make the Cabinet Ministers necessarily responsible to the Diet.

A certain ordinance provides that the Minister of War must be but a General or Lieutenant-General, and the Minister for the Navy, an Admiral or Vice-Admiral, and because of this ordinance it was found impossible on one occasion to organize a Cabinet as ordered by the Emperor because there was no suitable Admiral willing to become the Minister for the Navy in the Cabinet. On another occasion the Ministry in power was forced to go out of office because of the strong demand of military men to increase the army divisions.

But the above instances are unusual, and as a matter of fact, those days are now passed owing to the steady development of peace movement.

#### The "Genro"

The "Genro" or so-called Elder Statesmen as a body has no constitutional status, but as surviving builders of the grand work of the Imperial rehabilitation over half a century ago the Council of Genro was, until the beginning of 1922, an important institution in the political system of Japan, though with functions not legally formulated. It then consisted of four Elder Statesmen, Marshall Prince Yamagata, Prince Saionji, Marquis Matsukata and Marquis Okuma. The last mentioned had not often been present at its conclaves. The venerable title is now retained by Prince Saionji, the other three being no more, and though the Prince is still held in great respect by politicians of all parties as one to be consulted on important questions of State, age no longer allows him to take any active part.

#### The Imperial Diet

The Imperial Diet is bicameral, consisting of a House of Peers and a House of Representatives. The former is composed of Princes of the Blood; ordinary Princes and Marquises who sit by virtue of their right; representatives of Counts, Viscounts, and Barons; Imperial Nominees and representatives of the highest taxpayers.

With regard to legislative matters, all rights and powers granted to the Diet by the Constitution are equally granted to both Houses, except that the Budget is to be introduced first into the House of Representatives. Thus the two Houses are supposed to be coordinate, neither one nor the other being considered superior or subordinate. But it is not so in practical politics. Where there are two chambers in a legislature, naturally one or the other becomes predominant.

Although, as far as outward appearances go, the members of the House of Peers occupy a better fortified position, for the House of Peers is not subject to dissolution as the House of Representative is, yet in practice it is not the former, but the latter that the Cabinet regards with greater dread, holding it more aggressive and powerful, and more difficult to control. The fact is that the 125 Imperial Nominees in the House of Peers are mostly ex-officials of government, who hold their position on a life tenure, while the rest are aristocrats either by birth or by wealth. Naturally their sympathy has almost always been with the Cabinet Ministers independent of and irresponsible to the House of Representatives.



In the House of Peers there are no political parties, so to speak. Nevertheless all its members are of political leaning, either for or against the Cabinet of the day, as mentioned elsewhere in this chapter. This political activity is especially strong among the younger and ambitious members of the House.

In the House of Representatives, there are very clear-cut divisions, and no matter how many parties there are, the House is usually divided into two camps, the government party and the opposition, though this party division does not come from any political principle or conviction. Of late things have become more complicated in the House owing to the absence of a party commanding absolute majority and to the manoeuvre engineered by minor party-men to snatch an opportunity of casting votes.

The Lower House has the power of initiative in all matters of legislation, but its legislative power is rather negative in character, for in Japan a majority of the House of Representatives does not necessarily control the Cabinet. It is the Cabinet that gets majority by one way or other. When a political party in Japan supports the Government, it is because its leader is the Prime Minister or holds a certain portfolio in the Cabinet. Then again some parties or individual members too often give support to the Government from consideration of interest, while, on the other hand, the Government can sometimes force them to support

its policies either by intimidation or through threat of dissolution.

The Cabinet Ministers in Japan do not therefore formulate the policies of State in accordance with the political programmes which the parties supporting the Government may have laid down at the time of their election. It may even be said that the political parties in Japan have no definite programmes; they make no definite promise before election. They know well that they cannot make their promises good, even if they made them. The Cabinet Ministers have practically an entirely free hand to formulate all policies of State, and even the government party usually accepts almost blindly whatever the Cabinet decides. Too often the government party is merely a convenient tool to the Cabinet for carrying its measures through the House of Representatives.

#### THE ELECTORAL SYSTEM

The Election Law in Japan has a separate existence from the Constitution; and that is very fortunate for her, revision having been effected already four times solely on account of this convenient arrangement. The Constitution, on the other hand, is a formidable document that does not easily allow modification.

Important features in the original and revised Election Laws are shown below in a tabular form:—

Table 1. Important Features in Original and Revised Election Laws

	Elector		Candidate		No. of Members	Voters (in 1,000)	No. of Members per electoral district
	Age	Tax	Age	Tax			
Original:							
1890.....	25	¥15	30	¥10	300	500	1-2
Revised:							
1900.....	25	¥10	30	none	381	1,500	4-12
1920.....	25	¥3	30	none	464	2,960	1-3
1925.....	25	none	30	none	466	13,000	3-5
1934.....	25	none	30	none	466	13,000	3-5

The revision in 1925 is memorable as an epoch-making event in the democratic movement in Japan and as a distinct triumph realized by those espousing the cause of universal suffrage. It is essentially a general manhood suffrage system somewhat limited in application, but as such it occasioned intense contest from the 42nd session (1919-20) to the 50th (24-25) in and out of the Diet between the two opposing parties and it even caused at one time the dissolution of the House. The law as it stands was a result of compromise at the conference of the two Houses.

#### Revised Election Law

The features of the election law as revised in 1925 and still in force are outlined as follows:—As shown above the result of the removal of the tax qualification has increased the number of those eligible to franchise to upward of 13,000,000 as against approximately 3,000,000 under the former system. Excluding from that figure those who are disqualified for franchise because of their receiving public or private relief or help towards a living on account of poverty, the number of those entitled to vote will come down to about 10,000,000.

**Eligibility for Franchise:**—The right of voting has been extended to the following:

Students; Teachers of primary schools; Shinto or Buddhist priests and other persons engaged in religious work; Persons doing work for the Government under contract, Government and public officials connected with election affairs, who have not resigned their offices 3 months before. (Government officials other than those connected with administrative affairs of State have no right to vote).

**Electoral Districts:**—The new law has adopted the system of middle electoral districts, the number of members for each district being fixed at 3 to 5, at the rate of one member for a population of 120,000. The former system of independent electoral districts for cities has been abolished. In consequence of the above-mentioned change the number of electorates has decreased to 122 from 379 as under the former system, while the number of members has increased to 466 from 464.

**Period of Election Campaign:**—The new election law has shortened the period intervening between the expiration of the term of members and the day of the next general election, or between the dissolution of the House of Representatives and the next general election. In the case of a dissolution the general election is to be held within 30 days from the date of the dissolution, while in the case of the expiration of the members' term a general election is to be held on the day following the day when the term expired, or within 5 days after the said date in case circumstances necessitate. In case the members' term expires during the session of the House or within 25 days after the closing of the session a general election is to be held within 30 days after the lapse of 26 days from the date of the closing of the session.

**Candidates:**—The candidates must send in applications to the chief election commissioners within 7 days before the date of the election, and must deposit a sum of ¥2,000 either in cash or public bonds as security. In case the number of candidate falls short of the fixed number of members to be returned from a certain electoral district the candidates will be elected as members for that district without going through the proceedings of voting.

**Cost of Election:**—The expense to be defrayed by a candidate is fixed at the rate of 40 sen for each franchise-holder, and the total amount of the expenses is fixed at the total number of the franchise-holders of the electoral districts divided by the number of parliamentary members for the districts, the quotient thus obtained

being then multiplied by 40 sen. The standard figure of the total number of voters divided by the number of members is estimated at between 25,000 and 30,000, and the amount of the election expenses is roughly estimated at between ¥12,000 and ¥15,000 for one candidate. The defrayal of the election expenses is to be in charge of chief election commissioners or those specially designated by chief election commissioners. When the amount of expenses of a candidate exceeds the maximum limit his election shall be void.

**Strict Control over Campaign:**—In the new law only election commissioners and election committees, their number not to exceed fifty persons, are permitted to take part in the campaign. These are allowed to receive remuneration from candidates to cover the cost incurred or they may be employed on wage basis by candidates. The number of election offices to be established by a candidate in one electoral district is limited the seven. The new law prohibits the practice of the "house-to-house call" by candidates or their canvassers for soliciting votes.

**Penal Provisions:**—The revised election law provides much heavier penalties for the violation of the law. Candidates who have infringed the law are punished with a fine of ¥2,000 or less or servitude or imprisonment for a period not longer than 3 years as the heaviest penalty, as against the maximum amount of a fine of ¥500 and imprisonment without hard labour of the old law.

#### Upper House Reform

Simultaneously with the adoption of the general manhood suffrage bill in the 50th session (1924-5) of the Diet the reform of the Upper House was effected, though naturally more limited than that of the Lower House. The main points in the reform are as follows:—

The age-limit for the members of the order of Prince and Marquis was raised to 30 from 25 years.

The number of the members of the lower order of peerage has been fixed at 18 for Counts, 66 for Viscounts and 66 for Barons.

The inclusion of 4 representatives of the members of the Imperial Academy to be elected from among the members thereof by mutual elections.

The highest tax paying members in the House shall be effected from among those paying direct national tax to the amount of ¥300 and upward in connection with landed property, industry or commerce, the age-limit for such



members being fixed as 40 years and upwards. The number of such members for each prefecture is limited to 1 or 2, according to the size of population, the total number not exceeding 66.

The application of the penal clause of the election law, hitherto exclusively applied to the election of the members of the Lower House, to the election of the highest tax paying members.

The cancellation of Article 7 of the Law of the Houses providing that the number of the Imperial nominees and highest tax paying members in the Upper House shall not exceed the number of the titled members.

The period of the examination of the Budget by the Upper House committee has been limited to within 21 days as in the case of the Lower House committee.

With the growth of reform campaigns in various quarters following the February 26 incident referred to elsewhere in the present Chapter, the question of another reform of the House of Peers began to be mooted among some factions of Peers including Baron Dr. Yoshiro Sakatani, Prince Fumimaro Konoye, President and other influential members. The question soon took on a practical shape when in the middle of April agreement was come to for introducing a petition into the Special Session of the Diet (May 4-27, 1936). The petition was unanimously carried by the Diet. As a result, in deference to the desire of the Upper House the Government has decided to draw up a draft reform and then negotiate with the House. Principal moot points are (1) abolition of the hereditary system, (2) revision of the provisions for mutual election, (3) reform of the methods for recommending candidates for Imperial nomination, (4) abolition of the system for electing members from among the highest tax payers, (5) reduction of the membership, etc.

#### THE POLITICAL PARTIES

The representative system of Japan dates from 1890, but the history of political parties is much older. The Jiyu-to (Liberals) was the first political party and was organized by the late Count Itagaki and his followers in 1880, to be followed two years later by the Kaishin-to (Progressives) formed by the late Marquis, then Count Okuma. Both upheld the cause of liberty and progress, the only difference being that the former were more radical. As an organ of conservative and bureaucratic element the Teisei-to (Imperialists) was created soon after, but for all the fostering care bestowed upon its growth, it failed to enlist any great

support of the public and disappeared in 1884.

Hard and bitter was the campaign which the Liberals waged against bureaucrats and militarists who entrenched in their formidable stronghold, treated them with merciless severity. It was a critical moment in the political history of Japan. Fortunately Japan had at that time an enlightened sovereign in Meiji Tenno who on the advice of the late Prince Ito, his most trusted counsellor, made a solemn pledge in 1881 to establish constitutional government within ten years. The heated and dangerous political agitation was thus diverted to the constructive work of preparation and training for the eagerly anticipated day. The history of the political parties in Japan from the opening of the Diet in 1890 to the formation of the 4th Ito Cabinet in 1906 may be summed up in a few words. In the first few years the Bureaucratic Government and political parties were almost irreconcilable; in the second stage, either exhausted or tired of incessant strife, the two became more placable, effected some sort of understanding, and a partial coalition Cabinet was formed first by Ito with Itagaki's followed and next by Matsukata with Okuma's Kaishin-to (Progressives). The two trials failed miserably owing to the lurking suspicion which the bureaucratic and party adherents had retained towards each other. The two bureaucratic administrations that followed had only served to bring into alliance the followers of the two leaders to fight the bureaucratic government. The Opposition tactics worked with complete success in the House of Representatives though at the cost of inviting dissolution on each occasion. Then occurred an interesting episode in the constitutional history of Japan. The bureaucrats at the instance of Ito decided to recommend Okuma and Itagaki to the Throne to form a joint cabinet, and thus for the first time partymen were placed in the responsible position of conducting the administration of the State. Before forming the Cabinet the two parties dissolved themselves and were brought together under a new standard named "Constitutional Party." The chairs of the ministers of Army and Navy were filled, as is the case even to-day, with prominent personages in the respective services but otherwise the charge was distinctly democratic. However this Cabinet could not last more than six months; it crumbled through the jealousy of the Liberal and Progressive elements for share of official power, the non-party holders of the chairs of the two services fanning the friction.

Thus put to test and proved wanting the Bureaucrats could recover with easy conscience

their supreme position in the administration of the country, and from 1898 to 1914 the partymen had to view with impotent rage eight bureaucratic ministries succeeding one after another so that the six months' miserable experience as administrators cost them sixteen long years of humiliation and subservience as supporters of one or other Genro premiers.

When on the demise of the great Meiji Tenno, who had naturally preferred the veteran statesmen like Ito and Yamagata to party leaders, the 3rd Katsura Ministry was formed with no particular following in the House, the partymen could no longer tolerate a bureaucratic regime. The "Save the Constitution" agitation burst out and the Government was overthrown. Thus after long waiting Okuma formed his 2nd Cabinet with his followers. It had a powerful backing in the House, but after two years and a half it fell over the Election Scandal Affair. It was succeeded by a reactionary administration headed by Marshal Terauchi who was supported by the Seiyu-kai Party headed by K. Hara, the second largest party in the House. When the soldier-statesman had to resign owing to his growing unpopularity on account of the "Disgrace Loans" and especially the "Rice Riot" in August 1918, he with approval of the Genro recommended K. Hara as his successor. The Hara Cabinet was the first ministry under a commoner premier, and it looked as though the course of constitutional politics had regained a normal groove. He proved a consummate party leader, and dissolved the House when the Opposition introduced the Manhood Suffrage Bill. The general election of May 1920 secured his party 282 seats out of the total of 464. The untimely death of the veteran leader in November 1921 by a boy-assassin's hand caused serious shaking to the stability of this predominant party, for the late Mr. (then Baron) Takahashi, who succeeded Hara, failed to command undivided devotion of the rank and file, and his Cabinet lasted only six months owing to internal dissention. It was followed by the three transcendent Cabinet of Adm. Kato, Adm. Count Yamamoto and Viscount Kiyoura. The formation of the last named Cabinet caused an explosion of the smouldering flame of discontent between the faithful followers of the new Seiyu-kai chief and their opponents. The issue was whether the party should effect understanding with the Kiyoura Ministry or whether to fight it on constitutional ground, and eventually those who declared in favour of the Government seceded on the eve of the general extraordinary election and organized

their own party called "Seiyu-honto" or briefly "Honto," while those who strenuously opposed this temporizing policy arranged some compromise with their former rivals, the Kensei-kai, the better to conduct the election contest against the common enemy, the Ministerial Seiyu-Honto. By irony of fate the Ministerialists were defeated in the election and the Kiyoura Cabinet withdrew and was succeeded by the Kensei-kai-Seiyukai Coalition Cabinet as the 1st Kato (Viscount) Ministry. It speaks volume for the greatness of Hara as party leader that the sudden disappearance of his controlling hand from the parliamentary stage caused serious dislocation not only of the Seiyu-kai but also of its rivals, the Kensei-kai. The loss of this trained pilot drove the Seiyu-kai seceders to the mortifying state of stray party, for though in numerical strength in the House they were next to the Kensei-kai but superior to the Honto, they were obliged to maintain the attitude of neutrality to both, if not a bit more friendly to the former than to the latter. The presence of this anomalous party "Honto" was largely responsible for the kaleidoscopic change that has marked the party politics of Japan recently. The 1st Kato (Viscount) Cabinet having been created by the temporary combination of the Kensei-kai and the Seiyu-kai to fight the super-party Kiyoura Cabinet, it was a foregone conclusion that as soon as its *raison d'être*, disappeared it should collapse. This occurred in 1925 on the ostensible ground of difference of views over the taxation reform measure, but really from the deeper cause of inherent rivalry between the two parties. With the formation of the 2nd Kato Cabinet in August 1925 with his own followers the Kensei-kai at last returned to power after having patiently waited for a turn of fortune for ten years. The death of Premier Kato after a short illness and the creation of another Kensei-kai Cabinet by Reijiro Wakatsuki, his immediate lieutenant, did not particularly affect the status quo of the three leading parties, Kensei-kai, Honto and Seiyu-kai. The second remained as political waif, to side at one time with the Ministerialists and then to renew reconciliation parleys with the former comrades, the Seiyu-kai, which was now led by General Baron Tanaka as successor of Mr. Takahashi. This abnormal phenomenon was at last dispelled when the Wakatsuki Ministry resigned over the Bank of Taiwan Relief Measure which the Privy Council disapproved on constitutional ground and when Baron Tanaka as president of the Seiyu-kai was ordered to form a ministry. The occasion served for the Kensei-kai and the



Seiyu-Honto to effect formal combination and to organize a new party called "Rikken Minseito" (Constitutional Democratic Party). In anticipation of the coming development twenty M.P.'s and other notables identified with the Seiyu-Honto went over to their original camp, but the Minseito still outnumbered the rival party. The party composition of the House was thus clearly divided between the two main bodies, for the only minor groups worth mentioning were Sanji Muto's eight or nine followers in the House styled as "Business Men's Party" the temporarily organized Shinsei Club counting 26, and some 20 independents, Tsuyoshi Inukai's coterie having practically disappeared with his going over to the Seiyu-kai.

T. Tokonami once more took the public by surprise when he declared in August 1928 his resolution to leave the Minseito in order to form a third party, and this was carried into effect by the creation of a Shinto Club with some 242 followers. The Minseito's numerical strength in the House was reduced by so much and the Shinto Club now occupied the position of casting vote, but with Tokonami's rejoining the Seiyu-kai in June 1929 his meteoric course has come to a halt. In consequence the Seiyu-kai has apparently secured absolute majority in the House.

**Proletarian Parties**—Amidst these ceaseless changes in the composition of the existing parties the rapid march of democratic movement and the enactment of the Manhood Suffrage Law in 1926 were signalized by the birth of several Proletarian parties, namely, Shakai Minshu-to (Social Democratic Party upholding Fabian ideas), Rodo Nomin-to (Labour Farmers Party), Nihon Rono-to (Japan Labour Farmers Party), etc. Their numerical strength in the House was only eight reduced to seven owing to the death of one member early in 1929, but they were expected to rise to a greater power in the future. Of these Proletarians, the first organized by such an intellectual as Isob Abe, formerly Prof. at Waseda University and Bunji Suzuki, President of the Federation of Japanese Labourers, overshadowed the other sections in influence and though their following (about 75,000) was less than that of some others, they were far more compact and well organized. The other Proletarians were fluctuating and divided between those advocating extreme views tinged red and others standing midway between them and the Fabians. It should be noted that the Rodo Nomin-to was ordered dissolution by the Home Minister in 1928 on the charge of holding communistic ideas and hence subversive of the national polity. They were even suspected of be-

ing more or less supported by the Russian Third International.

**Seiyu-kai**.—The creation of the Seiyu-kai by the late Prince Ito in 1900 forms a distinct chapter in the history of party politics in Japan, though the first Ministry under Ito did not last for more than two years, for what with the opposition of the Peers and militarists and next desertion of members of questionable loyalty, its power was weakened. Then in 1903 Ito had to exchange his post as party leader for the Presidency of the Privy Council held by Prince Saionji, and the latter led the party till 1914. The chair was next filled by K. Hara, and during the seven years of his leadership the Seiyu-kai reigned supreme. Naturally the masterful leader made himself an object of implacable hatred and unbounded dread to his political foe, this eventually causing him to be assassinated by a demented youth. From the untimely death of Hara (Nov. 4, 1921) till the split of the party in January 1924 the history of the Seiyu-kai was one of repeated troubles and internal disintegration. The resignation of the leadership by K. Takahashi (former Viscount) in 1925 in favour of General Baron Tanska somewhat improved the situation as it induced a number of the seceders to come back. On the fall of the Kensei-kai Cabinet in 1927 the Seiyu-kai came into power though the Party's strength in the House still fell below the Kensei-kai, and was brought practically to a tie by the general election of 1928. On the Seiyu-kai Ministry's resignation in June, 1929, and the creation of a Minsei-to Cabinet, Tokonami's anomalous group Shinto Club was persuaded to join the Seiyu-kai, so that the latter became apparently the largest party in the House. But the Party appeared to be far from stable and settled internally, owing to the growing discontent against the erratic doings of its leader (Baron Tanaka).

**Minseito**.—This party was created in 1927 on the union of the Kensei-kai and the Seiyu-Honto, the former being historically composed of the followers of Okuma, Katsura, and Inukai. Katsura's party was called the Doshi-kai, and when the Prince died prematurely, the leadership of the party fell naturally upon Viscount Kato, a deputy leader. The party supported Marquis Okuma when he organized a Cabinet in 1914, and Viscount Kato was given the post of Minister of Foreign Affairs in that ministry. In the general election held in 1915 under the Okuma Cabinet, the influence of the party almost swept the whole country. The name of the party was then changed to Kensei-kai. At the time of the downfall of the Okuma Ministry

in 1916, the Kensei-kai still held a majority in the House of Representatives, but in the general elections of 1917 and 1920, the party's strength was much reduced, and it had only 109 seats in the House at the beginning of the 45th session, to be still further weakened during that session. In the general election of May 1924 the party profited by the desperate contest fought between the Seiyu-kai and its deserters the Honto, and came out relatively the strongest force in the House. In May 1927, Y. Hamaguchi succeeded Wakatsuki (now Baron) as leader of the party and the latter and Tokonami, Honto leader, were appointed Advisers. Once again the ex-Honto leader was a political waif in June 1929, when the Tanaka Cabinet was about to resign and at last he was persuaded, with diminished following, to join the Seiyu-kai where he held a delicate position until he was appointed Minister of Communications in the Okada Ministry in July 1934.

#### Latest Development of Political Parties

The development of the two major political parties—Seiyukai and Minseito—has been briefly described elsewhere. Besides these two, there are minor parties, namely, Kokumin Domei (National League), Shakai Taishu-to (Social Masses Party), Nippon Kokka Shakai-to (Japan State Socialist Party), and Shin Nippon Kokumin Domei (the New Japan National League). The Socialist People's Party is the largest and most powerful of the three and was formed in July, 1932, by the amalgamation of the former Shakai Minshuto (Social Democrat Party) and the Zenkoku Rono Taishuto (National Labour-Farmer Party). The new party claims to have 300,000 members. The President is Prof. Isob Abe (formerly President of the Shakai Minshuto) and Chief Secretary is Mr. Hisashi Aso (formerly President of the Zenkoku Rono Taishuto). It advocates the destruction of capitalism and the emancipation of the proletariat. The Japan Socialist Party was organized in May, 1932, by Katsumaro Akamatsu, who with his followers seceded from the former Social Democrat Party. Akamatsu is the leader of the group. The New Japan National League was organized in May, 1932, and Yasaburo Shimonaka is its leader. Both groups consist of proletarian politicians who advocate state socialism with a touch of fascism. Membership of both is small. The Ronoto (Labour-Farmer Party), organized in 1929 by Ikuo Oyama, amalgamated in July, 1931, with the Zenkoku Rono Taishuto, and was later amalgamated

with the Shakai Minshuto to form the Shakai Taishuto. The constant dissolution and fusion of the labour parties in Japan form the greatest weakness of the labour movement.

After the organization of the proletarian parties in 1926 great expectations were entertained of them as a new rising political power, but the result of the general election fell short of such expectations. The second election brought only six seats for them in the House of Representatives. The reason for the decline of their strength is the lack of unity among different parties. While they indulged in internal strife, the third election came bringing poorer results for them. In the meantime, the outbreak of the Manchurian incident in 1931 resulted in the agitated national thoughts, and this, in turn, influenced the thought of the labour parties. Thus at present, the Social Masses Party and the State Socialist Party are pitted against each other.

The political party that comes next to the two predominating parties is the "Kokumin Domei" or "National League," which is the newest party of the five. It was organized in December, 1932 by Kenzo Adachi, Home Minister in the second Wakatsuki Cabinet. As mentioned elsewhere, Adachi, in spite of the fact of his being a Minseito leader, insisted upon organizing a coalition Cabinet. There was some misunderstanding between Premier Wakatsuki and Home Minister Adachi, which eventually caused the collapse of the Wakatsuki Ministry and subsequently the latter's departure from the Minseito rank. His coalition Cabinet plan was shattered to the ground and the power was transferred to the rival party the Seiyukai. Those who were faithful to Adachi and who belonged to the Minseito grew impatient with the inactivity of that party and sought to form a more vigorous political party and they all rallied under Adachi's leadership. Their efforts culminated in the formation of a new party Kokumin Domei (National League or National Party) with Adachi as its leader and central figure. The new political unit is not as yet a full-fledged party in the strict sense. The public interest was aroused, however, concerning the probable intensity of Fascism with which this unit may grow up because of its outspoken views on such subjects as the state control of economy or the creation of Manchurian economic block. The public, however, was rather disappointed at the poor showing of the party at the last session of the Imperial Diet.



Table 2. Relative Strength of Political Parties (1936)

Parties	Seats
Seiyukai .....	174
Minseito .....	205
Showa-kai .....	19
Kokumin Domei .....	15
Shakai Taishuto .....	18
Independent .....	35

**Changes in Presidency of Minseito.**—In November, 1934 Baron Reijiro Wakatsuki, who had been twice Premier and who had represented Japan at the London Naval Disarmament Conference, resigned as President of the Minseito. He had held the presidency since he took over the post as a successor of the late Mr. Hamaguchi in 1931. In announcing his resolution to resign the Presidency at a meeting of the Directors of the party on November 1 Baron Wakatsuki recalled that in April, 1931 he was asked by the late Mr. Hamaguchi who was then in hospital to take over the Presidency. Mr. Hamaguchi was so weakened in health that he was conscious of his inability to continue in the Premiership which he held at the time, and was desirous of resigning that post after fixing his successor to the Presidency of the Party. Indeed, he was so weak that he gasped at each word. Baron Wakatsuki said that he was so moved to sympathy with his sick friend that he assured him that he would arrange matters.

When he gave this assurance to Mr. Hamaguchi, he had in mind Baron Yamamoto as Mr. Hamaguchi's successor. So he immediately went to Baron Yamamoto and asked him to take over the Presidency, but his request was flatly rejected. At last Baron Wakatsuki himself was persuaded by the party leaders to accept the post believing that a suitable president would be forthcoming to relieve him. Subsequently the Minseito Cabinet had to surrender power, and the General Election that ensued brought an unfavourable result for the party. The May 15 affair that occurred some time after caused widespread uneasiness to society and in political circles, and the Minseito suffered from this general atmosphere of uneasiness. Under such circumstances he could not find it in his heart to announce his desire to resign no matter how eager he might have been to vacate the Presidency. Now, however, that security had been restored to political circles and there was unity and solidarity within the party, he had concluded that the time had come for him to realize his cherished desire.

The leaders and the rank and file of the party did everything they would to induce Baron Waka-

tsuki to reconsider his resolution. But the Baron rejected the repeated requests of the leaders saying that his resolution was the result of deliberation, and that there was no room for reconsideration. So the leaders decided to recommend Mr. Machida, Minister of Commerce and Industry as his successor, and according to the decision of the Councillors' meeting Baron Wakatsuki nominated Mr. Machida as his successor. At first Mr. Machida firmly declined the offer on the ground that he was not a suitable man for the post, but at last he consented to be not President but chairman of the Board of Directors. On January 20, 1935 Mr. Machida formally accepted the Presidency.

#### Recent Condition of Political Parties

**Minseito.**—Taking the view that the clarification of the source of party expenses is requisite to the regeneration of political parties, the Minseito has decided henceforth to raise party expenses publicly and announce their amount. Early in the autumn of 1936 the party was to have started an extensive campaign for that.

**Seiyukai.**—Since the appearance of the Okada Ministry, the Party has been in a poor way. In the recent General Election it was at last superseded by the Minseito. Even Dr. Suzuki, President, was defeated. To make the plight of the party worse, Mr. Fusanosuke Kuhara, leading member, has disappeared from the political world since some time after the February 26 incident. Due to all this, the path of the Seiyukai seems to be strewn with various difficulties.

**Kokumin Domei.**—Before the 68th session of the Diet in 1935 one member after another seceded from the Kokumin Domei. At last on November 12 the Party became disqualified for a bargaining body. In the recent General Election it won only fifteen seats in the Diet.

**Shakai Taishuto.**—In the recent General Election the party showed far better results than had been expected and has been noticeably active since the extra-session of the Diet in May, 1936.

**Showakai.**—The Showakai consisted of only eight members when it was organized as a club by deserters of the Seiyukai before the 68th session of the Diet in 1935. In the General Election it won 19 seats in the Diet. After the election the membership gradually increased until on March 6 it became 25, by which the party was qualified for a bargaining body.

**Tohokai.**—Organized immediately after the

69th extra-session of the Diet, the party is composed of nine members representing Mr. Seigo Nakano and other seceders from the Kokumin Domei and former Independents.

#### RECENT CHANGE IN THE CABINET

##### Formation of the Hirota Cabinet

Immediately after the February 26 incident the Okada Cabinet tendered its resignation. In the meantime Prince Saionji, the only surviving Genro, arrived in Tokyo from his seaside villa, Okitsu and repaired to the Palace to receive from the Throne an inquiry as to the choice of the head of the succeeding Cabinet. The Elder Statesman recommended to the Throne Prince Fumimaro Konoye, President of the House of Peers, as a suitable candidate. Then the Imperial Command to organize the Cabinet fell upon Prince Konoye, who, however, declined the

Imperial Command on the strength of ill-health. Then, according to Prince Saionji's recommendation, the Emperor ordered Mr. Koki Hirota, Foreign Minister to organize the new Ministry. Accepting the Imperial command, Mr. Hirota set about organizing a Cabinet, but experienced great difficulties in securing the approval of the army and navy as to the personnel of the Cabinet. At last on the 9th of March the Cabinet was organized by reserving the offices of foreign minister and of education minister for future appointment. The personnel of the new Cabinet is as follows:—

Prime Minister and Foreign Minister.....	Keki Hirota
Home Minister and Education Minister.....	Keinosuke Ushio
Finance Minister .....	Eiichi Baba
Minister for War .....	Gen. Juichi Terauchi
Minister of the Navy .....	Admiral Osami Nagano
Minister of Justice .....	Raisaburo Hayashi
Minister of Agriculture and Forestry.....	Toshio Shimada
Minister of Commerce and Industry.....	Takukichi Kawasaki
Minister of Communications .....	Keikichi Tanomogi
Minister of Railways .....	Yonezo Mayeda
Minister of Overseas Affairs .....	Hidejiro Nagata

Soon after the organization of the Cabinet Mr. Kawasaki, Minister of Commerce and Industry, died, to be succeeded by Dr. Gotaro Ogawa. Later Mr. Hachisaburo Hirao, a veteran business man, was appointed as Education Minister and Mr. Hachiro Arita, Ambassador to China, as Foreign Minister. Simultaneously Mr. Hirota, the Premier, was relieved of the additional post of Foreign Minister and Mr. Ushio of the additional office of the Minister of Education.

##### Platform of New Cabinet

On March 17 the Hirota Cabinet announced its platform as follows:—

"Unworthy though it be, the present Cabinet has been formed by Imperial command to adjust the situation created by the February 26 incident. The task is great; and the Cabinet is struck with awe in realizing its responsibilities to the Emperor.

"The times are troubled, and the country is beset with many difficulties at home and abroad. The roots of these difficulties, moreover, lie deep.

The Government seeks, therefore, to bring about administrative reforms in its firm determination to cope with them.

"The first administrative principle is to emphasize the ideals on which our nation was founded and to bring about national unity with all the people co-operating as one man under their sovereign, the Emperor. To make manifest an unshakable conception of the basic principle of the State is thus the main objective of the Government:

"All policies, foreign and domestic, must be founded, needless to say, on this principle. Particularly is it incumbent on the present Government under existing circumstances to renovate education and culture; uphold the national spirit, eliminate ideas incompatible with national principles and at all times to preserve the integrity of the Constitution and the laws of the land.

"It is the fixed policy of Japan to promote friendship with foreign Powers from the standpoint of international faith and fulfillment of its mission as the stabilizing Power in the Far East, based on co-existence and co-prosperity



among the nations of Asia and particularly on the inseparable relations between Japan and Manchoukuo, and ultimately to contribute thereby to world peace and the happiness of mankind. In both diplomacy and national defence, the Government means to apply this policy.

"At the same time, in view of the prevailing international situation, the Government will endeavor to provide adequate means of national defence, regulating and expanding all facilities required for this purpose, and to establish a unified diplomatic policy controlled by and based on Japan's own needs and aims.

"In order to comply with the advance of national fortunes, efforts will be made to reform the system of taxation, improve financing, effect other necessary financial and economic renovations and bring about development and expansion of industry and trade. It is very important to cultivate in this manner the foundations of national strength.

"In all walks of life of late, the accumulation of traditional evils has gradually weighed down upon the people, and everywhere are rising conflicts of interests. Such a state of affairs mili-

tates against our morals and the great spirit in which the nation was founded. For the welfare of the country, nothing could be more unfortunate. The Government thus intends to pursue measures designed to stabilize and improve national life in all of its aspects, enabling the subjects of the Emperor to enjoy safety of life and property.

"As for general administrative reforms, they cannot be brought about by mere arrangements. For their realization, it is necessary to invigorate officialdom and renovate administrative organs. The Government will not let itself be influenced by old customs; it means to carry out reforms that will meet the needs of the times, and in so doing it will take a long-range view of the situation at home and abroad. For the execution of national policies, the Government will not only stimulate its various departments to see that all goes well but also make use of national talent and observe the will of the populace. It will avoid undue haste but proceed with determination in what it believes to be right. It means not to temporize or lose sight of a far-sighted national policy."

CABINET CHANGES SINCE 1885

It will be seen from the following table of Cabinet changes since 1885 that the bureaucratic statesmen monopolized the administration till the formation of the 1st Okuma Cabinet in June 1898. It was the first Cabinet organized along the party lines, but unfortunately it collapsed after a short existence from internal dissention of the two rival parties that had temporarily sunk their difference to uphold the common cause of party politics. Then followed the succession of Cabinet either purely bureaucratic or with a thin veneer of party element. Of the sixteen administrations that were in power from

the fall of the Okuma Cabinet down to the formation of the 2nd Kato Cabinet, seven were purely bureaucratic and the other nine mixed. So far the Hara Ministry and its extension, the Takahashi Ministry, have risen to the highest level accessible to party politics under the peculiarly complicated circumstances in which various political organizations work in Japan. The Hara Administration is noteworthy as the first Cabinet of Japan formed by an avowed party leader (Seiyukai) and an untitled commoner. The Hamaguchi Cabinet and its extension namely 2nd Wakatsuki Cabinet was another.

Table 3. Statistics of Cabinet Changes Since 1885

Ministerial chairs	1st Ito Dec. 1885	Kuroda April 1889	1st Yamagata Dec. 1889	1st Matsukata May 1891	2nd Ito Aug. 1892
Premier .....	Ito	Kuroda	Yamagata	Matsukata	Ito, Kuroda
Foreign Affairs .....	{ Inouye Ito Okuma	Okuma	Aoki	Enomoto	{ Mutsu Saionji
Home Affairs .....	Yamagata	{ Yamagata Matsukata Yamagata	{ Yamagata Saigo	{ Saigo Shinagawa Soyejima Matsukata Kono	{ Inouye Nomura Yoshikawa Itagaki
Finance .....	Matsukata	Matsukata	Matsukata	Matsukata	{ Watanabe Matsukata Watanabe

Ministerial chairs	1st Ito Dec. 1885	Kuroda April 1889	1st Yamagata Dec. 1889	1st Matsukata May 1891	2nd Ito Aug. 1892
Army .....	Oyama	Oyama	Oyama	Takashima	{ Oyama Saigo Yamagata Oyama
Navy .....	{ Saigo Oyama Saigo	Saigo	{ Saigo Kabayama	Kabayama	{ Nire Saigo
Justice.....	Yamada	Yamada	Yamada	{ Yamada Tanaka Kono	{ Yamagata Ito Yoshikawa
Education .....	Mori	{ Mori Oyama Enomoto	Yoshikawa	{ Yoshikawa Oki	{ Kono Yoshikawa Inouye Saionji
Agriculture & Commerce .....	{ Tani Saigo Tani Hijikata Kuroda	{ Enomoto Inouye Yamagata	Mutsu	{ Mutsu Kono Sano	{ Goto Enomoto
Communications.....	Enomoto	{ Enomoto Goto	Goto	Goto	Kuroda

(Continued)	2nd Matsukata Sept. 1896	3rd Ito Jan. 1898	1st Okuma June 1898	2nd Yamagata Nov. 1898	4th Ito Oct. 1900
Premier .....	Matsukata	Ito	Okuma	Yamagata	Ito
Foreign Affairs .....	{ Okuma Nishi	Nishi	Okuma	Aoki	{ Saionji Kato
Home Affairs .....	Kabayama	Yoshikawa	Itagaki	Saigo	Suyematsu
Finance .....	Matsukata	Inouye	Matsuda	Matsuda	{ Watanabe Saionji
Army .....	Takashima	Katsura	Katsura	Katsura	{ Katsura Kodama
Navy .....	Saigo	Saigo	Saigo	Yamamoto	Yamamoto
Justice .....	Kiyoura	Sone	Ohigashi	Kiyoura	Kaneko
Education .....	{ Hachisuka Hamao	{ Saionji Toyama	{ Ozaki Inukai	Kabayama	Matsuda
Agriculture & Commerce .....	{ Enomoto Okuma Yamada	{ M. Ito Kaneko	Oishi	Sone	Hayashi
Communications.....	Nomura	Suyematsu	Hayashi	Yoshikawa	{ Hoshi Hara

(Continued)	1st Katsura June 1901	1st Saionji June 1905	2nd Katsura July 1908	2nd Saionji Aug. 1911	3rd Katsura Dec. 1912
Premier .....	Katsura	Saionji	Katsura	Saionji	Katsura
Foreign Affairs .....	Komura	{ Kato Hayashi	{ Katsura Komura	Saionji	Katsura
Home Affairs .....	{ Utsumi Kodama Yoshikawa Kiyoura	Hara	Hirata	Hara	Oura
Finance .....	Sone	{ Sakatani Matsuda	Katsura	T. Yamamoto	Wakatsuki
Army .....	Terauchi	Terauchi	Terauchi	Ishimoto	Kigoshi
Navy .....	Yamamoto	Saito	Saito	Saito	Saito
Justice .....	{ Kiyoura Hatano	{ Matsuda Senge	Okabe	Matsuda	Matsumuro
Education .....	{ Kikuchi Kodama	{ Saionji Makino	Komatsubara	{ Haseba Makino	Shibata
Agriculture & Commerce .....	{ Hirata Kiyoura	Matsuoka	Oura	Makino	Nakashoji
Communications.....	{ Yoshikawa Sone	{ I. Yamagata Hotta	S. Goto	Hayashi	S. Goto



(Continued)	Yamamoto Feb. 1915	2nd Okuma Apr. 1914	Terauchi Oct. 1916	Hara Oct. 1918	Takahashi Nov. 1921
Premier .....	Yamamoto	Okuma	Terauchi	Hara	Takahashi
Foreign Affairs .....	Makino	{Kato Okuma Ishii	{Terauchi Motonou	{Uchida Hara	Uchida
Home Affairs .....	Hara	{Okuma Oura Okuma Ichiki	Goto	Tokonami	Tokonami
Finance .....	Takahashi	{Wakatsuki Taketomi	Shoda	Takahashi	Takahashi
Army .....	Kusunose	{Oka Oshima	Oshima	{Tanaka Yamanashi	Yamanashi
Navy .....	Saito	{Yashiro T. Kato	Kato	Kato	Kato
Justice .....	{Matsuda Okuda	Ozaki	Matsumuro	Oki	Oki
Education .....	{Ooka Okuda	{Ichiki Takata	Okada	Nakahashi	Nakahashi
Agriculture & Commerce .....	T. Yamamoto	Oura, Kono	Nakashoji	T. Yamamoto	T. Yamamoto
Communications .....	Motoda	{Taketomi Minoura	Den	Noda	Noda
Railways .....	—	—	—	Motoda	Motoda

(Continued)	Kato (Adm.) June 1922	Yamamoto Sept. 1923	Kiyoura Jan. 1924	1st Kato June 1924	2nd Kato Aug. 1925
Premier .....	Kato (Adm.)	Yamamoto	Kiyoura	Kato (Vis. T.)	Kato (Vis. T.)
Foreign Affairs .....	Uchida	{Yamamoto Ijuin	Matsui	Shidehara	Shidehara
Home Affairs .....	Mizuno	Goto	Mizuno	Wakatsuki	Wakatsuki
Finance .....	Ichiki	Inouye	Shoda	Hamaguchi	Hamaguchi
Army .....	Yamanashi	Tanaka	Ugaki	Ugaki	Ugaki
Navy .....	{Kato Takarabe	Takarabe	Murakami	Takarabe	Takarabe
Justice .....	Okano	Hiranuma	Suzuki	{Yokota Ogawa	Egi
Education .....	Kamada	Okano	S. Egi	R. Okada	R. Okada
Agriculture & Commerce .....	Arai	Den, Okano	Mayeda	Takahashi	
Agr. & Forestry .....				Okazaki	Hayami
Com. & Industry .....				Noda	Kataoka
Communications .....	Mayeda	Inukai	Fujimura	Inukai	Adachi
Railways .....	Oki	Yamanouchi	Komatsu	Sengoku	Sengoku

(Continued)	Wakatsuki Jan. 1926	Tanaka April 1927	Hamaguchi July 1929	2nd Wakatsuki Apr. 14, 1931
Premier .....	Wakatsuki	Tanaka	Hamaguchi	Wakatsuki
Foreign Affairs .....	Shidehara	Tanaka	Shidehara	Shidehara
Home Affairs .....	{Wakatsuki Hamaguchi	{Suzuki Mochizuki	Adachi	{Adachi Suzuki
Finance .....	{Hamaguchi Hayami Kataoka	{Takahashi Mitsuchi	J. Inouye	J. Inouye
Army .....	Ugaki	Shirakawa	Ugaki	J. Minami
Navy .....	Takarabe	Okada	Takarabe	Abo
Justice .....	Egi	Y. Hara	Watanabe	{Watanabe Kawamura
Education .....	Okada	{Mitsuchi Mizuno Shoda	{Kobashi R. Tanaka	R. Tanaka
Agr. & Forestry .....	{Hayami Machida	T. Yamamoto	Machida	Machida
Com. & Industry .....	{Kataoka Fujisawa	Nakahashi	Tawara	Sakurauchi
Communications .....	Adachi	{Mochizuki Kuhara	Koizumi	Koizumi
Railways .....	{Sengoku Inouye	Ogawa	T. Egi	T. Egi
Overseas Affairs .....	—	Tanaka	G. Matsuda	S. Hara

(Continued)	Inukai Dec. 15, 1931	Adm. Saito May 26, 1932	Adm. Okada July 8, 1934	Hirota Mar. 9, 1936
Premier .....	Inukai	Saito	Okada	Hirota
Foreign Affairs .....	{Inukai* Yoshizawa	{Saito* Uchida Hirota	Hirota	{Hirota* Arita
Home Affairs .....	Nakahashi	Yamamoto (Baron)	F. Goto	Ushio
Finance .....	{Takahashi J. Inouye	Takahashi	{Fuji Takahashi	Baba
Army .....	Araki	{Araki Hayashi	{Hayashi Kawashima	Terauchi
Navy .....	Osumi	Okada, Osumi	Osumi	Nagano
Justice .....	Suzuki	Koyama	Ohara	Hayashi
Education .....	Hatoyama	{Hatoyama Saito*	{Matsuda Mochizuki	{Ushio* Hirao
Agr. & For. ....	T. Yamamoto	F. Goto	Yamazaki	Shimada
Com. & Ind. ....	Mayeda	{K. Nakajima J. Matsumoto	Machida	{Kawasaki Ogawa
Communications .....	Mitsuchi	H. Minami	{Tokonami Mochizuki	Tanomogi
Railways .....	Tokonami	Mitsuchi	Uchida	Maeda
Overseas Affairs .....	Hata	Nagai	{Okada* Kodama	Nagata

N.B.—The Department of Agriculture & Commerce ceased to exist in June, 1924, at the time of Viscount Kato's ministry and instead the Department of Agriculture & Forestry and that of Commerce & Industry were newly established; the Department of Overseas Affairs was created in 1927 at the time of General Tanaka's ministry.  
\* Additional post.

IMPERIAL DIET

The House of Peers

The House of Peers is composed of (a) Princes of the Blood; (b) Peers of the order of Princes and Marquises who are to sit in the House by virtue of their birthright when they attain the age of thirty; (c) Representatives of the peers of the order of Counts, Viscounts and Barons, who are elected from among their respective orders; (d) Men of erudition or of distinguished services nominated by the Emperor; (e) Four members of the Imperial Academy elected from among the members thereof and nominated by the Emperor; (f) Representatives of the highest tax payers elected by means of mutual election from among the highest tax payers in each prefecture, the number thereof being one or two for each prefecture. The number of members representing each of three inferior orders of the peerage is 18 for Counts, 66 for Viscounts and 66 for Barons. (Further details are given elsewhere in this chapter).

The House was composed, at the close of the 67 session (March, 1935), as follows:

Table 4. Number of Peers

Imperial Princes .....	19
Kenkyu-kai .....	158
Kosei-kai .....	66
Keyu Club .....	36
Kayo-kai .....	42
Dewa-kai .....	36

Dosei-kai .....	23
Independents (Neutral) .....	28
Total .....	410

As mentioned elsewhere in this chapter, there are clear-cut political divisions or parties in the Upper House as in the case of the other House, still the members excluding those Imperial Princes having seats in the House now belong to one or the other of several groups or associations which exist as organ to form the opinions of the members of the respective groups on important political or other problems. Of those organizations, the most influential is the Kenkyukai, whose attitude very often controls opinions of the House on the bills of important issue. The relative strength of those quasi-political groups in the House as at the end of the last (67th) session was as follows:—

Table 5. Various Factions in House of Peers

Princes of Blood .....	18
Princes .....	16
Marquises .....	33
Counts .....	18
Viscounts .....	66
Barons .....	66
Imperial Nominees .....	125
Imperial Academy Members .....	4
Highest Tax Paying Members .....	66
Total .....	412



The present President of the House is Prince Fumimaro Konoye (appointed in 1933), and Vice-President Count K. Matsudaira (appointed in 1933), Chief Secretary being T. Cho.

**The House of Representatives**

As under the new election law passed in the 50th session of the Imperial Diet in 1925, and enforced in 1928, the House is composed of members elected by male Japanese subjects of not less than 25 years of age, who are qualified for eligibility to the franchise with some exceptions. The whole country is divided into 119 electoral districts, Taiwan (Formosa) and other

colonies being excluded of course, each district returning from 3 to 5 members to the House, with the total number of members fixed at 466. A general election is to take place every four years, and is carried on by secret ballot, one vote for one man. The allotment of seats, which formerly was 305 for the rural districts and 75 for the urban districts, was increased to 352 and 112 respectively in 1928.

**Sessions of House and Dissolutions**

The chronological lists of sessions of the Lower House from the first is as follows; those marked with asterisks (\*) being the dissolved sessions.

**Table 6. Chronological Sessions of House of Representatives**

Session	Period of sitting	President	Vice-President
1st	Nov. 29, 1890—Mar. 8, 1891	N. Nakajima	S. Tsuda
* 2nd	Nov. 29, 1891—Dec. 25, 1891		
3rd	May 5, 1892—June 15, 1892	T. Hoshi	A. Sone
4th	Nov. 29, 1892—Mar. 1, 1893	Do.	M. Kumamoto
* 5th	Nov. 28, 1893—Dec. 30, 1893	M. Kusumoto	I. Abei
* 6th	May 16, 1894—June 2, 1894		K. Kataoka
7th	Oct. 18, 1894—Oct. 22, 1894		Do.
8th	Dec. 24, 1894—Mar. 27, 1895		S. Shimada
9th	Dec. 28, 1895—Mar. 29, 1896		Do.
10th	Dec. 25, 1896—Mar. 24, 1897	K. Hatoyama	Do.
* 11th	Dec. 24, 1897—Dec. 25, 1897		Do.
* 12th	May 19, 1898—June 10, 1898	K. Kataoka	Do.
13th	Dec. 3, 1898—Mar. 10, 1899		H. Motoda
14th	Nov. 22, 1899—Feb. 24, 1900		H. Motoda
15th	Dec. 25, 1900—Mar. 25, 1901		
16th	Dec. 10, 1901—Mar. 10, 1902		T. Sugita
* 17th	Dec. 9, 1902—Dec. 28, 1902		
18th	May 12, 1903—June 5, 1903		T. Sugita
* 19th	Dec. 10, 1903—Dec. 11, 1903		
20th	Mar. 20, 1904—Mar. 30, 1904	H. Kono	Do.
21st	Nov. 30, 1904—Feb. 28, 1905	M. Matsuda	K. Minoura
22nd	Dec. 28, 1905—Mar. 27, 1906	T. Sugita	Do.
23rd	Dec. 28, 1906—Mar. 28, 1907		
24th	Dec. 24, 1907—Mar. 28, 1908		
25th	Dec. 28, 1908—Mar. 25, 1909	S. Haseba	R. Koezuka
26th	Dec. 24, 1909—Mar. 24, 1910		
27th	Dec. 24, 1910—Mar. 24, 1911		
28th	Dec. 24, 1911—Mar. 24, 1912		
29th	Aug. 21, 1912—Aug. 23, 1912	I. Ooka	N. Seki
30th	Dec. 24, 1912—Mar. 26, 1913		
31st	Dec. 26, 1913—Mar. 26, 1914	I. Ooka, S. Haseba, H. Oku	Do.
32nd	May 5, 1914—May 8, 1914	H. Oku	Do.
33rd	June 20, 1914—June 26, 1914		
34th	Sept. 3, 1914—Sept. 9, 1914		
* 35th	Dec. 7, 1914—Dec. 25, 1914		
36th	May 20, 1915—June 15, 1915	S. Shimada	T. Hanai
37th	Dec. 1, 1915—Feb. 29, 1916		Do.
* 38th	Dec. 27, 1916—June 25, 1916		S. Hayami
39th	June 22, 1917—July 15, 1917	I. Ooka	K. Hamada
40th	Dec. 22, 1917—Mar. 26, 1918		
41st	Dec. 27, 1918—Mar. 27, 1919		
* 42nd	Dec. 26, 1919—Feb. 16, 1920		
43rd	June 29, 1920—July 30, 1920	S. Oku	Y. Kasuya
44th	Dec. 25, 1920—Mar. 27, 1921		
45th	Dec. 25, 1921—Mar. 25, 1922		

Session	Period of sitting	President	Vice-President
46th	Dec. 27, 1922—Mar. 27, 1923	Y. Kasuya	G. Matsuda
47th	Dec. 11, 1923—Dec. 23, 1923		Do.
* 48th	Dec. 27, 1923—Jan. 31, 1924		Do.
49th	June 28, 1924—July 19, 1924		M. Koizumi
50th	Dec. 24, 1924—Mar. 31, 1925		Do.
51st	Dec. 24, 1925—Mar. 31, 1926	Do.	
52nd	Dec. 24, 1926—Mar. 25, 1927	Do.	
53rd	May 3, 1927—May 8, 1927	S. Morita	G. Matsuura
* 54th	Dec. 26, 1927—Jan. 21, 1928		H. Motoda
55th	Apr. 20, 1928—May 7, 1928	H. Motoda, M. Kawahara	I. Kiyose
56th	Dec. 24, 1928—Mar. 25, 1929	Z. Horikiri	Do.
* 57th	Dec. 24, 1929—Jan. 21, 1930	I. Fujisawa	M. Koyama
58th	Apr. 23, 1930—May 14, 1930		K. Nakamura
59th	Dec. 26, 1930—Mar. 28, 1931	K. Akita	G. Masuda
* 60th	Dec. 26, 1931—Jan. 21, 1932		E. Uehara
61st	Mar. 20, 1932—Mar. 25, 1932		
62nd	June 1, 1932—June 15, 1932	K. Akita	E. Uehara
63rd	Aug. 23, 1932—Sept. 5, 1932		
64th	Dec. 26, 1932—Mar. 28, 1933		
65th	Dec. 26, 1933—Mar. 25, 1934		
66th	Nov. 27, 1934—Dec. 10, 1934	K. Hamada	Do.
67th	Dec. 24, 1934—Mar. 26, 1935		
* 68th	Dec. 26, 1935—Jan. 21, 1936	K. Tomita	T. Okada
69th	May 1, 1936—May 27, 1936		

**Sitting.**—Ordinary sessions are generally convoked between November and December, and last three months. After effecting the organization towards the end of December the House adjourns for about one month, so that its actual working time does not exceed two months.

**General Election**

The general election takes place every four years, this being the regular term for Commons. The extraordinary session must, according to the Constitution, be convened within five months from the date of dissolution. In general three or four months interval between the date of dissolution and that of general election. Of the 19 general elections since the 1st election held in 1890 and four, i.e. those of 1902, 1908, 1912 and 1936, were regular and were held after the natural expiry of the 4 years term.

The results of the general election carried out in February 1936 were as follows:—

**Table 7. Results of General Election, 1936**

Name of Party	Number of Candidates	1936 Elected
Seiyu-kai	336	174
Minseito	296	205
Kokumin Domei	33	15
Showa-kai	49	20
Shakai Taishuto	30	18
Independents and others	101	34
Total	878	466

N.B.—The Kokumin Doshikai or Businessmen's Party which secured no seat in the House in the 1932 election went out of existence shortly after the election.

**Sessions and Relative Party Strength**

Leaving out of account all those minor groups of temporary existence, the relative strength of those permanent parties as at the close of the respective sessions is shown below:—

**Table 8. Relative Strength of Parties**

Session	Seiyukai	Minseito	Kokumin Domei	Showakai	Neutral	Proletarians and others	Vacancies	Total
68th (1935-36)	242	127	20	24	5	9	39	466
67th (1934-35)	260	118	30	—	—	18	25	466
66th (Nov. 1934)	264	118	31	—	—	27	26	466
65th (1933-34)	283	119	32	—	1	11	20	466
64th (1932-33)	298	120	32	—	—	6	9	466
63rd (Sept. 1932)	299	117	31	—	—	14	5	466
62nd (June 1932)	300	144	—	—	1	18	3	466
61st (Mar. 1932)	303	144	—	—	1	18	0	466

**Number of Franchise-Holders.**—The election law revised in 1925 and enforced in 1928 increased the number to 13,000,000.



Table 9. Franchise Holders

Election	M.P.'s	Franchise holders (1,000)	Franchise-holders per 1 member	Franchise-holders per 1,000 pop.	% of Voting	
					Voters	Absentees
1st (1890)	300	467	1,550	11.42		
10th (1908)	379	1,582	4,176	32.80	85.72	14.28
14th (1920)	464	3,069	6,166	46.33	86.70	13.30
15th (1924)	464	3,341	7,199	55.60	91.18	8.82
16th (1928)	466	12,530	26,889	199.75	80.33	19.67
17th (1930)	466	12,943	27,496	198.81	83.34	16.66
18th (1932)	466	13,096	28,108	200.34	81.68	18.32
19th (1936)	466	14,480	31,075	212.15	78.70	21.30

**Profession of Members.**—Comparing the professions of the members returned in the general election of 1936 with those on former occasions the decrease of farmer members and increase of those of other origins are quite noticeable, the relative percentage being as follows:—

Table 10. Occupations of M.P.'s

	5th	10th	14th	15th	16th	17th	18th	19th
Civil and Military	0.7	0.3	6.5	3.2	10.2	7.9	9.2	4.9
Medicine	1.3	1.9	1.7	3.0	2.2	2.5	1.5	1.5
Journalists	2.7	4.5	5.4	6.5	7.3	3.6	10.3	8.8
Lawyers	8.3	16.9	14.7	13.8	15.6	16.9	17.8	18.8
Businessmen	17.0	16.1	28.4	27.8	22.2	22.1	16.7	23.7
Farmers	48.7	27.4	20.0	17.9	9.5	13.9	9.4	16.7
Manufacturers and Mine-owners	1.7	3.2	5.8	5.0	9.7	2.1	9.8	3.4
Others	4.3	6.3	3.5	5.8	5.2	12.2	4.9	8.8
No profession	15.3	23.5	14.0	17.0	18.1	16.5	20.1	13.4

**Violation of Election Law.**—The record since the 1st election is as follows:—

Table 11. Statistics of Violation of Election Law

Election	Imprisonment	Penalty	Acquitted	Unseated	Total
1st (1890)	26	211	47	—	286
2nd (1892)	65	183	69	4	323
3rd-4th (1894)	217	504	403	24	1,155
5th-6th (1898)	249	611	152	15	1,029
7th (1902)	173	1,348	335	5	1,861
8th (1903)	140	1,642	212	2	1,998
9th (1904)	25	280	28	1	284
10th (1908)	128	1,419	274	—	1,921
11th (1911)	325	3,437	188	—	3,950
12th (1915)	448	7,194	671	19	8,332
13th (1917)	1,283	21,245	319	530	23,377
14th (1920)	148	5,166	145	37	5,496
15th (1924)	56	9,434	36	1,825	11,351
16th (1928)	241	7,559	—	69	12,869
17th (1930)	221	12,690	—	59	12,970

**Age of Members.**—The average is gradually increasing as follows, the figures in percentage:—

Table 12. Age of M.P.'s

Election	Age Group				Election	Age Group			
	20-39	40-49	50-59	60 or over		20-39	40-49	50-59	60 or over
1st (1890)	51.3%	35.0	10.0	3.7	16th (1928)	7.9	38.6	34.8	18.7
5th (1902)	35.0	47.0	15.0	3.0	17th (1930)	4.5	35.4	36.3	23.8
10th (1912)	16.1	46.4	34.0	3.4	18th (1932)	4.5	34.1	41.4	20.0
14th (1920)	12.9	32.3	41.2	13.6	19th (1936)	4.7	26.4	42.3	26.6
15th (1924)	14.2	37.7	38.2	9.9					

REVIEW OF RECENT POLITICAL AFFAIRS

General Election of Members of Local Assemblies

The general election of the members of the local assemblies of thirty-eight prefectures was held from August 30 to October 14, 1935. There were 2,660 candidates for 1,525 seats. In order to consummate the purification campaign the Government exercised strict control in accordance with the provisions of the new Election Law. The results of the election were that the Seiyukai gained 679 seats, the Minseito 632, the Proletariats 36, the Kokumin Domei 33 and the Independents and others 145.

Budget Controversies

The Cabinet Council for the drawing up of the draft Budget for 1936-37 was opened on November 26. Prior to this the authorities of the Department of Finance held converse with those of the various other government departments in regard to new demands to be preferred. As the authorities of the Service Departments were so insistent upon their demands that political solution at the Cabinet Council was thought to be the only means of settling the service estimates. At the opening of the Cabinet Council on the 26th Mr. Takahashi, the Minister of Finance, warned the Services to exercise care not to incur the enmity of the nation, after maintaining that a definite policy for the gradual reduction of loan issue be laid down. These remarks on the part of the Minister of Finance seriously ruffled the nerves of the Services. The Department of War issued an unofficial statement attacking the minister's utterances, while at the Cabinet Council on the 27th both the Minister for War and the Minister of the Navy drew the attention of the Finance Minister to what they regarded as indiscreet embodied in his utterances at the previous session of the Council. Thus the situation became very serious. In the meantime new resources for ¥14,000,000, approximately were created by various measures. On the other hand, the leading authorities of the Department for War met in conference at the mansion of H. H. Prince Kan-in, Chief of the General-Staff, from the midnight of the 29th till the dawn of the following day. As a result, early on the morning of the 30th a compromise was at last reached between the Services and the Finance authorities and Budget Estimates aggregating ¥2,270,000,000 were drawn up.

Change in the Office of Lord Keeper of Privy Seal

On December 26 Count Shinken Makino, Lord Keeper of Privy Seal, suddenly resigned on the plea of ill-health. Simultaneously with this Adm. (Retired) Viscount Makoto Saito was appointed Lord Keeper of Privy Seal.

Dissolution of the 68th Session of the Diet

The 68th ordinary session of the Imperial Diet, which was convened on December 26, 1935 was dissolved as had been expected, on January 21 when the Diet reassembled after the usual New Year adjournment.

Prior to this, or on the 19th the Seiyukai, Opposition party, held a meeting of the Directors at which it was definitely decided that a vote of non-confidence should be introduced at the re-opening of the session. At the general meeting of the party held the same day the Seiyukai took the Government severely to task for the lack of sincerity shown in the handling of the national policy issue. Although eighteen months had passed since the issue came to the front, the Government had betrayed a grievous lack of courage in not denouncing the objectionable theory definitely. It said that the Government's lukewarm and vacillating attitude was more than loyal subjects could tolerate. The declaration further said that the national situation had never been so grave as at the moment. Foresights and decision were badly needed, but the Cabinet had been content with temporising measures in all matters. There was a lack of harmony between defence and industry. The measures taken to relieve the farmers and small merchants and industrialists had fallen far short of the mark. At home social uneasiness had been engendered, and abroad the China policy had been far from pertinent. Although the National Policy Council had been created, it had done nothing noteworthy. It had served no other purpose than to furnish the Government with an excuse for the evasion of responsibility. All this was due to the fact that Premier Okada had formed his Cabinet without any policy to carry out, and that he had undertaken State administration with no adequate knowledge of the actualities of the prevailing situation.

After referring to Japan's withdrawal from the Disarmament Conference, the Declaration further stated that the national unity could not be achieved except under a party Cabinet. While avowing the need of national unity, the



Okada Cabinet was bent on disturbing the solidarity of political parties in order to preserve its own existence and concluded that the continued existence of that weak and incompetent Cabinet must not be allowed any longer.

The vote of non-confidence introduced by the Seiyukai was couched in the terms identical with the Declaration of the party given above. The dissolution came immediately after the speeches by the Premier, the Foreign Minister and the Finance Minister were over in the House of Representatives. Thus the Opposition was not given the opportunity to explain its motion.

In an official statement on the dissolution of the Diet the Government said that it had always held that the co-operation of the nation was the only way of coping successfully with the present momentous situation. In pursuance of this policy it had done its best to carry out the platform declared at its formation. However, after the debates in the last two sessions of the Diet, and also because of the latest course of political events, it had become persuaded that conditions in the House of Representatives had forbade the smooth conduct of State administra-

tion, the Government had appealed to the Throne for the dissolution of the House of Representative with a view to carrying out its policy in a clearer political atmosphere created by a general election conducted in a strictly fair manner.

#### GENERAL ELECTION

The Imperial Edict ordering the holding of the General Election on February 20 was issued on January 22nd following the dissolution of the Diet. "Reform" was the war cry in this General Election, which was the fourth since the inauguration of the universal suffrage. The number of candidates was 878 as against 466 seats in the Diet and that of eligible voters 14,479,553.

As will be noted from the results of the election tabulated elsewhere under this Chapter, the Seiyukai, the Opposition, was seriously defeated and the Minseito, the party in power won. Another noticeable feature is a great advance made by the Shakai Taishuto, or the Social Masses Party, in winning eighteen seats as against only three on the former occasion.

#### FEBRUARY 26 INCIDENT

A most serious incident occurred in Tokyo early on the morning of February 26, 1936 when a murderous coup was carried out by junior officers of the Army.

At about 5 o'clock twenty young officers and men numbering about 1,500 attacked the official residence of Premier Okada, the private residences of Viscount Makoto Saito, Lord Keeper of Privy Seal, Mr. Korekiyo Takahashi, the Minister of Finance, Gen. Jotaro Watanabe, Director-General of Military Education, and Adm. Kantaro Sudzuki, Grand Chamberlain. They believed that they had killed Premier Okada, succeeded in killing Viscount Saito and Gen. Watanabe and inflicting fatal injuries on Mr. Takahashi. Adm. Sudzuki, Grand Chamberlain, received serious wounds but has miraculously recovered. The victims were all roused from their beds and shot. Not until a few days after was it known that Premier Okada had escaped death, and that the assassins had killed the Premier's brother-in-law, Colonel Matsuo (retired), who happened to be staying with him. The Prime Minister was concealed by servants and escaped. Count Shinken Makino, who was succeeded by Viscount Saito as Lord Keeper of Privy Seal towards the end of 1935 as mentioned elsewhere in this issue, was also attacked at a hotel at Yugawara spa near Hakone, but he

narrowly escaped death.

The rebels at first established themselves in the Metropolitan Police Office and later removed to the unfinished Houses of Parliament and the Prime Minister's official residence opposite. The same day Mr. Goto, Home Minister, was appointed acting Prime Minister. The martial law was promulgated on the 27th. The insurgents were urged by members of the Supreme War Council to submit in the interests of the nation, but at first refused. It was, of course, possible for the authorities to take strong action in suppressing the rebels, as was explained by Gen. Count Terauchi, Minister for War, at the extra-session of the Diet in May, but they were chary of resorting to such drastic measures because it would have led to bloodshed and fighting between Japanese brethren, and because owing to the presence of many Government offices, foreign Embassies and Legations, and many residences in the affected districts it would have entailed danger to many lives, to say nothing of causing widespread anxiety to the public mind. The authorities exercised great patience in the circumstances and during the following three days did their best to persuade the rebels to surrender.

That the action of those who participated was rebellious and therefore could not be tolerated

was clear from the time the men left the barracks. This, notwithstanding, the authorities specifically avoided calling them rebels for form's sake, under the officers in command of their regiments. Those expedients were solely for the purpose of securing submission without stimulating the rebel leaders' excitement. In spite of all the pains taken by the authorities, however, the object in view could not be attained and on February 29th the decision was finally reached to suppress the rebellion by armed force. Luckily, however, the situation was settled without an exchange of fire. The aim of the rebels was, according to their written statement, to protect and uphold the cause of the national policy by eliminating the Elder Statesmen, capitalists, military clique, bureaucrats and politicians, who, they believed, were the cankers of the national polity.

The twenty officers of the insurgents who surrendered on the 29th were dismissed from the service by Cabinet Order the same day. They comprised four Captains, six lieutenants, and

ten sub-lieutenants. Capt. Nonaka, leader of the rebels, shot himself to death on the 29th by holding himself responsible for the affair. Capt. Ando, who led the insurgents attacking Count Makino at Yugawara, also committed suicide.

As a result of a trial by the Court Martial, on July 5 fourteen of the officers and three civilian participants were sentenced to death and five officers simultaneously sentenced to life imprisonment without hard labour. Later a few other young officers, who had been court martialled on a charge of complicity, were sentenced to imprisonment without hard labour. Fifteen of the accused, who were sentenced to death, were executed on July 12.

#### Change in Presidency of Privy Council

On March 11 Dr. Kitokuro Ikki, president of the Privy Council, was relieved of office at his own request. Simultaneously, Dr. Baron Kichiro Hiranuma, Vice-President, was promoted to be President.

#### SPECIAL SESSION OF THE DIET

The Sixty-ninth Extra-session of the Imperial Diet was convened on May 4, 1936. The opening ceremony was held in the House of Peers in the presence of H.I.M. the Emperor. The Imperial Rescript then read by his Majesty runs as follows:

"We hereby perform the opening ceremony of the Imperial Diet and tell all members of both Houses.

"The intercourse between Japan and her treaty Powers is growing in intimacy, which gives us genuine satisfaction.

"We regret the incident which occurred in Tokyo recently. Let our loyal subjects in and out of Office, civilian and military, act in harmony and close co-operation to advance the national destiny.

"We have directed the Cabinet Ministers to introduce the urgent Supplementary Budget and Bills in the Imperial Diet, which we hope you will examine in harmonious co-operation in the discharge of your duties, in accordance with our wishes."

All members of the Diet were deeply impressed by the special reference made by the Emperor to the February 26 incident in the Imperial Rescript.

The most important subjects of discussion in the special session of the Diet concerned the reform of the Army discipline accompanying the February 26 incident. Besides explaining the

outline of the incident in the plenary session of the Diet, Gen. Count Terauchi, the Minister for War, gave its particulars in secret sessions in both Houses of the Diet. A lengthy interpellation put by Mr. Takao Saito, a Minseito member, in the House of Representatives was most impressive and to the point. On the other hand, Mr. Tsumura of the Kenkyu faction in the House of Peers, seriously bungled in the Chamber in making utterances derogatory to the dignity of the Services in his interpellation. He at last resigned the membership. There is no precedence of the sort in the House.

During the brief session of the Diet (May 4-27) 45 out of 46 bills introduced by the Government were carried. The more important of the bills, which are mostly related to industrial administration are as follows:—

Bill relating to the control of sea routes.

Bill providing for the Taiwan Colonization Company.

Bill relating to reserve fund for retiring and to retiring allowance.

Bill for self-governing control of rice.

Bill for the revision of the rice control law.

Bill relating to promotion of the co-operating storage of rice unhulled.

Bill relating to the control of the disposal of cocoons.

Bills relating to control of staple fertilizers.



Bill relating to the Central Cash Office for Commerce and Industry.

Bill for Tohoku (North-Eastern) Industrial Co. and Tohoku (North-Eastern) Promotion Electric Power Co.

Bill relating to the control of the automobile industry (see Chap. XXXI Manufacturing Industries, Japan-Manchoukuo Year Book, 1936 Issue).

#### Abolition of Cabinet Inquiry Council

The Cabinet Inquiry Council was established in May, 1935 as a permanent organ for deliberation of national policies by the Okada Cabinet. But it increasingly served more to supplement the weakness of the Cabinet than do anything else, proving that the real function was shifting to its subordinate office, or the Cabinet Investigation Bureau. This tendency became swiftly manifest after the February 26 incident with the growing opinion that the Cabinet Investigation Bureau be strengthened in function. These views were recommended to the Premier by Mr. Yoshida, chief of the Cabinet Investigation Bureau, and strongly supported by the Services. At last the views were agreed to by the Cabinet from the viewpoint that any national policies which might be decided upon should be readily executed by the Cabinet by taking the responsibility of doing so. Apart from this, the abolition of the Cabinet Inquiry Council was rendered easy by the death of Mr. Takahashi, former Finance Minister and Viscount Saito, former Lord Keeper of Privy Seal, who were both prominent members of the council. As a result, the Council was abolished on April 28 on which the last general meeting was held.

#### Former Lieut.-Col. Aizawa Executed

Aizawa-Saburo, former Lieut.-Col., who assassinated Lieut.-Gen. Nagata-Tetsuzan on August 13, 1935 as referred to in the previous issue of the Year-Book, was sentenced to death by the Court Martial on May 7, 1936. Immediately he demanded revision, but on June 30 his demand was quashed. He was executed on July 3.

#### Lifting of the Martial Law

The Martial Law, which was promulgated for the Capital on February 27 on account of the rebellion, was lifted on July 18 after being kept in force for 143 days.

#### Intelligence Commission

At the Cabinet Council on June 26, 1936 the draft regulations governing the constitution of

an "Intelligence Commission" were approved. The Commission was formally set up on July 1. The purpose and function of the Intelligence Commission will be noted from the Premier's address given at the first general meeting of the Commission on the 2nd July, which is summarised as follows:—

"Needless to say, all the national policies which the present Government proposes to put into effect in the face of the current international situation must be based on sound and competent information, gathered by a reliable organ. Present complications confronting the Administration make it almost impossible to achieve its objectives unless a responsible central intelligence organ be set up for this special purpose. It was solely with this end in view that the Government created the Intelligence Commission. "The main function of the new intelligence organ will be to gather information both at home and abroad and so harmonize it that the facts thus amassed will not conflict, to the detriment of the ultimate interests of Japan. The new organ must also supply sound information for the nation in general in order to foster a healthy public opinion on every important issue, both domestic and foreign.

"Stress must be laid in this connection on the remarkable progress that has been achieved in the field of the press, accompanied by great strides in radio communications. The important influence of the press on the life of the people need not be reiterated, while at the same time it may be said that the press sometimes poses as representative of the public opinion of the nation. Special attention must be paid therefore to the way in which the nation's public opinion is conveyed to other nations, through whatever means, to prevent unnecessary misunderstanding which would greatly harm the national interests in various ways.

"The principal reason why the Government has set up the present intelligence organ lies in this point, and the Government cannot but desire that all the members do their best for the achievement of the aim in accordance with this fundamental principle.

"It is especially desired by the Government that all the members bear always in mind that for the satisfactory operation of the commission, wholehearted co-operation of all the Ministries and other organs concerned is one of the first prerequisites. If this end be achieved, it is certain that the establishment of the commission will mean much for the Government in its proposed execution of all its national policies for the sake of the national interests of

Japan in one of the most critical moments of its history. The Government authorities are conscious that all the members of the new commission are now well informed of the functions of the organ and the principles upon which those functions are to be based. We again elicit the co-operation of all concerned."

#### Important National Policies

The following are Japan's new national policies, amended and reclassified under seven headings, which were approved by the Cabinet Council on August 25, 1936 and immediately made public:

1. Replacement of national defence.
2. Readjustment of the national and local tax systems.
3. Reform and improvement of education.
4. Stabilization of the national livelihood, including measures for promotion of public health, prevention of natural calamities, rehabilitation of rural communities and encouragement of business and industry of moderate means.
5. Promotion of industry and trade, including "rigorous control" of the electric power industry, self-sufficiency in liquid fuel, iron and steel, acquisition of adequate raw materials for the fiber industry, encouragement and control of trade, shipping and aviation, and encouragement of overseas expansion.
6. Establishment of important policies toward Manchoukuo, including promotion of emigration and investment.
7. Reform of the administrative machinery.

1. Replenishment of national defence. The present Cabinet has been committed to this measure since it came into office. The greatest new policy proposed by the Government, the measure comprises the replenishment of military defences on a six-year programme at a total expenditure of more than ¥3,000,000,000, and the replenishment of naval armaments on a five-year plan at a total expenditure of ¥2,000,000. The Cabinet is so firmly committed to the measure that it was adopted with little debate.

2. Adjustment of the taxation system, national and prefectural. The income tax and business profits tax are to receive the most attention. This means that there will be a departure from the original policy which was for a general reform of the tax system.

3. Reform and improvement of education. Reform will be by extension of the term of compulsory education by two years, as called for by Education Minister Hachisaburo Hirao's plan. There is opposition to the extension of compulsory education from the Finance Minis-

try, the Cabinet Inquiry Bureau, and the Seiyukai, but few object to the "principle" of the extension. Opinion is divided as to whether it is advisable to extend compulsory education at once, without reference to the question of improvement of the instruction given in the primary schools. In the budget for the next fiscal year will be included an allotment to cover the cost of preparing for the extension of the school term which will be carried out in later years.

4. Stabilization of national life (prevention of natural disasters, extension of facilities for the preservation of health, economic regeneration of agricultural, for forestry, and fishing communities, and assistance for the undertakings of merchants and industrialists of small and moderate means). All these measures, with the exception of improvement of health facilities and the promotion of the undertakings of small and medium-size merchants and industrialists, were worked out by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Mr. Shimada, originally planned five measures, including reform of the farm land system and adjustment of debts in agrarian districts. He incorporated these measures in the plan for the economic regeneration of rural communities after the Finance Minister had objected to the idea of embodying them in separate national policies. The Cabinet Inquiry Bureau now is working out plans for the execution of the health policy. The measure for aiding small merchants and industrialists differs from that originally proposed by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, which gave the impression that it was an industrial policy devised to indirectly promote national defence.

5. Promotion of industry and trade, rigorous control of the electric power industry, attainment of self-sufficiency in liquid fuel, iron, and steel, acquisition of an adequate supply of materials for the fiber industry, promotion and control of trade, encouragement of aviation and shipping, and promotion of overseas expansion. Mr. Tanomogi, Minister of Communications, at first upheld the nationalization of the power industry but finally accepted the view that there should be rigorous control instead of nationalization, after the plan was not supported by his Cabinet colleagues. The attainment of self-sufficiency in liquid fuel, iron, and steel, it has a close bearing on the question of national defence, and the measure is one adoption of which was considered imperative from the point of view of national defence in broad zones. As for the securing of adequate supply of materials for the fiber industry, there has been an increase in its urgency since the mobilization of the



trade protection law against Australia. In the promotion and control of trade, one point is unification of the machinery for trade administration. Encouragement of aviation no longer is a matter about which the defence authorities are solely concerned. It has come to acquire importance from the industrial point of view. Promotion of shipping is regarded as essential if industry is to be promoted. Measures for the execution of these policies are being worked out by the Communications Ministry.

6. Manchurian Policies (Establishment of important policies toward Manchuria on a firm basis, emigration and encouragement of investments). Failure to recognize emigration to Manchuria as a national policy adversely affected the agricultural policy of the Manchoukuo Govern-

ment. To assist in the establishment of a permanent policy of emigration, the Overseas Ministry has worked out a plan under which 5,000,000 Japanese will be settled in Manchuria in 20 years, and a plan for increase of the capitalization of the Manchuria Colonization Company.

7. Reform of the administrative machinery. At the time of its assumption of office, the Hirota Government expressed great concern for the reform of the administrative machinery. Subsequently it began to be less enthusiastic over the idea of reform. The army leaders have from the first been insisting on drastic reforms in the administrative system, which influenced the Cabinet to include reform of the administrative machinery among measures to be carried out as national policies in the next fiscal year.

## CHAPTER VIII

### DIPLOMACY

#### INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

As a consequence of economic nationalism mounting on all sides as barriers against her expanding overseas trade it is inevitable that Japan's diplomacy should have presented in recent years such economic features as were never seen in the career of the nation. Her diplomacy has been directed, and is being directed, to the end of adjusting her commercial relations with nations whose economic structures are in a state of transition. Commercial conventions have been altered or modified to meet the new situation. Where difficulties have not been smoothed out diplomacy is at work to evolve some new formula.

Apart from the matter of international economic relations, Japanese diplomacy has been concerned in good measure with Soviet Russia, especially with regard to her relations with the new state of Manchoukuo. These two countries were brought in contact with each other along the Sungari and Amur, giving rise to the issues of extremely delicate nature. The whole world has been looking on those north Manchurian regions embraced within the basins of the two named rivers with the deepest interest. War talks reverberating from the other side the Urals no doubt reflected the opinion prevailing in the west. This was rather in contrary to the attitude of mind prevailing in Japan. While the Soviet military preparations pushed on with feverish haste in eastern Siberia were pointed out with a warning finger, the general public seemed to take a dispassionate view of the situation.

At this moment, however, one predominant fact, at least, cannot be overlooked in regard to Japanese diplomacy. A new spirit has been projected into it since Mr. Koki Hirota, the present Premier, assumed the portfolio of Foreign Affairs in the summer of 1934. For some time until his coming Japanese diplomacy had been regarded in many quarters as a shadow of militarism, as a gesture to cloak the mind bent on pursuing its end by crude methods. Whatever truth there was in such view, it is not to be denied that the Japanese people now have a feeling that the diplomatic machinery is in the hands of a true diplomat. True, there have been unmistakable signs of efforts being made to settle international questions by diplomacy.

In September, 1934, or about a month after the present Foreign Minister took office what has been known since then as the Five Ministers' Conference took place, when the Prime Minister met in council with the Ministers of Army, Navy, Finance and Foreign Affairs. They decided that the Government should adhere (1) to the policy of peaceful diplomacy, with special regard to the peace structure of the world; (2) to the principle of keeping national armament on a basis commensurate with the actual strength of the nation so that Japan should neither fear outside pressure nor be "held in contempt by any other nation." Japan's diplomacy has since been conducted strictly in accordance with the policy and principles laid down on that occasion.

#### FOREIGN MINISTER'S SPEECH BEFORE PARLIAMENT

The following is the gist of a speech on the country's diplomacy delivered by Mr. Koki Hirota, Foreign Minister, on January 21, 1936 in the Diet:—

I have the honor to report and state my views on the latest developments in Japan's foreign relations.

With the further advance of this country's international position in the recent years the greater have grown its responsibilities. Fortunately the world is being brought, though gradually, to recognize Japan's sincere desire to

contribute toward the establishment of world peace and more particularly our whole-hearted endeavours towards the stabilization of East Asia, while our friendly relations with the neighbouring countries are being by degrees put on a solid basis.

In view, of the most gratifying progress of Manchoukuo, it has been decided to abolish by stages Japan's extraterritorial rights in that country and concurrently to readjust our administrative rights in the railway zone and to contribute thereby toward her development as an

References. Tables 1, 9, 10, 11, 12—Nippon Teikoku Tokai Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual), 1935. Tables 2, 7, 8—Jiji Nenkan (Jiji Year Book) published by the Jiji Shimbun-sha, 1937. Table 3—Researches of the Cabinet. Table 4—Shokuin-roku (List of the Government Officers), 1936. Table 5—Kokumin Nenkan (Kokumin Year Book), published by the Kokumin Shimbun-sha, 1937. Table 6—Researches of the Diet.



independent nation. Whereas the close and inseparable relationship between our two countries is rooted in the fundamental fact of the alliance for common defence concluded at the time of the establishment of Manchoukuo, the natural circumstance of our mutual interdependence in the economic field has led to the establishment of the Japan-Manchoukuo Joint Economic Commission. The unchallenged independence of Manchoukuo and her healthy growth now actually constitute an indispensable postulate for the stability of East Asia. It is most desirable that she should continue to enhance her international prestige and promote her friendly relations with her neighbors. In other words, best efforts must be put forth for the readjustment of the relationships between Japan, Manchoukuo and China on the one hand and for the proper adjustment of the relations between Japan, Manchoukuo and the Soviet Union on the other.

As for the relations between Japan, Manchoukuo and China, though some improvements have been effected, an urgent necessity is felt to regulate further the tripartite relations and put them upon a normal footing so as to strengthen the foundations of the peace of East Asia. The Japanese Government, have, therefore, formulated after careful deliberations a definite programme for their policy toward China. This programme consists mainly of the three following points:

The first point is concerned with the basic readjustment of the Sino-Japanese relations, by which we aim to bring about the cessation by China of all unfriendly acts and measures, such as have been hitherto adopted. In fact, what we want is not only such a negative attitude on the part of China but her active and effective collaboration with Japan. Antagonism between disadvantage of both, is a thing intolerable from Japan and China, which obviously works to the larger viewpoint of East Asia. It would be most regrettable should China resort to unfriendly actions or to her habitual policy of playing off a third Power against this country, thus undermining the stability of East Asia. On the other hand, if she should come to a full realization of this point we would, of course, be ready to extend to her our moral and material support for her advancement. Taking a long view of the situation we have remained patient and forbearing, inviting China's self-reflection and her realization of her own responsibilities in East Asia and waiting for a change in her policy toward our country. It is within the past year or so that China has shown her willingness to

improve the Sino-Japanese relations. At the last session of the Diet we declared our policy of non-aggression and non-menace toward the neighboring countries, and set out to regularize the relations between Japan and China and to readjust the mutual interests of the countries. Nevertheless, I am sorry that our endeavours in this direction have not brought forth fully satisfactory results so far.

The rehabilitation of the Sino-Japanese relations must necessarily be attended by the regularization of the relations between Manchoukuo and China, because in North China particularly the interests of these two countries and of Japan are directly and closely bound up. Owing to the fact that the Chinese Government has not recognized Manchoukuo which is contiguous to North China, and also to the singular local circumstances that have prevailed in North China itself for long years, a situation arose in that region last year, which appeared disquieting for some time. More recently, however, the tension has been considerably relaxed through the establishment of the Hopei-Chahar Political Council. At any rate, it is plain that no stability can ever be attained without the adjustment of the relations between Japan, Manchoukuo and China. In the fulfilment of this purpose lies the second point of our programme. We are convinced that as the first step to a complete and final adjustment of the relations between Japan, Manchoukuo and China, the Chinese Government should recognize Manchoukuo, and the two countries should open diplomatic intercourse and harmonize their interests. It is hoped that the day will soon arrive when this is done. In the meantime we believe a temporary measure should be devised in order to prevent any untoward eventuality in the relations between the three countries.

The greatest of all difficulties confronting China today is, I believe, Communism, which has found a ready soil for propagation in the unsettled conditions of East Asia, and which has affected China most seriously, endangering not only her border regions but her internal social order itself. The rampancy of Communism in China seems to surpass all our knowledge. The red menace is, of course, not confined to East Asia, which has been selected as a field of action just at this time. The suppression of the communist activities in our part of the globe and the liberation of China from the Red menace is, therefore, a matter of vital importance not only for China but for the stabilization of East Asia and of the world. Herein lies the third point. It is the desire of the Japanese Govern-

ment to cooperate with China in various ways for the eradication of Communism.

These, then, are the three points of our programme. They involve no new or startling principles. In fact they are nothing but the most obvious and elemental concepts that must underlie the great undertaking of insuring the stability of East Asia, and as such they should, I do not hesitate to say, constitute a common cause of all nations in East Asia. The Chinese Government not only has indicated its concurrence with our views, but has proposed recently to open negotiations on Sino-Japanese rapprochement along these lines stated above. Although, much to our regret, there are at this moment student agitations in China which contravene the very spirit of our programme, it is expected that the present situation will soon be rectified by the Chinese authorities and an auspicious atmosphere for the opening of the said negotiations will prevail. The Japanese Government have communicated their acceptance of the Chinese proposal, and are awaiting the notice from the Chinese Government of the completion of its preparations. With the progress of these negotiations we shall be able, I am confident, to lay the foundation for a thorough readjustment of Sino-Japanese relations.

Turning next to the relations between Japan, Manchoukuo and the Soviet Union, I must say that the Japanese Government have always done their best to secure the peace and friendship among them. We have succeeded in eliminating long-standing obstacle to that purpose through the conclusion of the agreement for the transference of the North Manchuria Railway. In the light of the fact that Japan, being committed to the common defence of Manchoukuo, is automatically and directly affected by the political and military relations of that country with its neighbor states, we are obliged to pay special attention to the tri-partite relations of our country and Manchoukuo and the Soviet Union. Along the extended common frontier between the two latter countries, there are spots where the border line is not clear, giving rise to frequent troubles. With a view to settling such frontier disputes, there is now the question of setting up a mixed commission while the Manchoukuo Government insists upon clarifying first the obscure points in the border line. With regard to the relations between the three countries, what we are most concerned about is the excessive military works which the Soviet Union is erecting in her out-lying possession—namely in East Siberia, arousing thereby the public feeling strongly not only in Manchoukuo but also

in this country. We are calling the attention of the Soviet authorities to this matter whenever we have an opportunity to do so.

The Japanese Government attached a great importance to the developments of the Naval Conference at London which was opened on December 9 last year, and from which our delegation has now been withdrawn. The fundamental policy of the Japanese Government at the conference was the same as at the time of the Preliminary Conversations held at London two years ago. Last October when the British Government, engaged in the preparations for the conference, sought the views of our government regarding the plan for the declaration of building programmes and the question of qualitative limitation, we took occasion to make clear our stand by stating: "The true key to the maintenance and the promotion of world peace can be discovered only when the Powers mutually give full consideration to one another's vital needs and natural requirements and when they carry out a thorough limitation of armaments in such a way as to make a state of non-aggression and non-menace prevail among them and that the Great Powers, therefore, should be the first to strive unremittingly in these directions in order to forward the cause of peace. The fundamental policy of the Japanese Government regarding naval disarmament, has no other object than the realization of such a thorough-going limitation."

It is in this spirit that the Japanese delegation proposed at the present conference a plan for setting up a common upper limit at the lowest possible level and for the abolition or a drastic reduction in such vessels of offensive type as capital ships, aircraft carriers and A class cruisers. Despite the earnest efforts of our delegation, this just and fair proposal of Japan was not accepted by the Powers. Moreover, since it became evident that the proposals submitted by the other delegations did not meet our fundamental policy, our delegation proposed as the last resort to terminate the conference in an amicable manner after settling such question as could be settled and concluding agreements thereon. That proposal was also rejected, whereupon our delegation had no other alternative than to withdraw from the conference.

A survey of the present world situation reveals the existence of much unrest and friction in many quarters and a tendency on the part of the Powers to expand rather than to curtail their armaments—which is so detrimental to the cause of disarmament. Therein lies, perhaps, one of the reasons why Japan's proposal for a sweeping



reduction has not been accepted. However, it is scarcely necessary to say that, regardless of whether or not there is a disarmament treaty, the Japanese Government, devoted to the principle of non-aggression and non-menace, have no intention of doing anything to stimulate a naval competition, or of altering their policy of cooperation with the Powers in arms reduction for the cause of world peace.

Whatever may be the outcome of the present conference, the friendly policy of this country toward the great naval Powers will undergo no change, especially toward Great Britain and the United States with which we have enjoyed a historic friendship for many past decades. Since Japan and America are geographically so situated that they possess each a special sphere of activity of her own, it is impossible that the two nations should ever be brought to a collision. With Great Britain, we would most naturally seek to adjust our interests in various parts of the globe, and to further our traditional amity. Out intercourse with the British Dominion States is steadily growing in intimacy with corresponding increase in trade. To Australia we sent last year Ambassador Debuchi as a goodwill envoy who went there to return the visit of Sir John Latham on a similar mission, and who also made a tour of New Zealand to promote Japan's friendly intercourse with that nation. In the South Seas countries we are endeavoring to cultivate peace and friendships for the sole purpose of the development of trade and economic relations. It is with this purpose in view that we sincerely hope for a smooth progress of the newly inaugurated Commonwealth of the Philippines.

The uninterrupted expansion of our foreign trade from year to year coupled with the steady growth of the productive power of our industries, is a most encouraging aspect of these times. Our trade, expanding both in exports and in imports, may be said to exemplify the principle of mutual benefits in international commerce. It goes without saying that the healthy development of trade among nations is indispensable to the promotion of international goodwill and the economic well-being of the world. In spite of this evident truth, many countries are still, I regret to say, continuing their restrictive measures of various kinds which obstruct the freedom of trade. To a modern nation, particularly such as our own with a vast population but meagre natural resources, the assurance of the source of raw material and of the market of finished products is the condition of prime necessity to its economic existence. I really believe that such assurance also can render possible the maintenance of the

political stability among nations. To cramp up the world by the reckless erection of high trade barriers will only serve to invite complications and conflicts, and mean a retrogress of civilization. On the other hand, the freedom of the movement of men and goods throughout the world and the open door and equal opportunity to natural resources, if that should be realized, would automatically create an atmosphere of freedom and mutual confidence, and no doubt contribute vastly toward the furtherance of universal peace and brotherhood.

The Japanese Government are carrying on friendly negotiations with the Governments of other countries for the purpose of adjusting our mutual interest and promoting trade and commerce as much as possible. During the past year we were unfortunately forced to invoke the Trade Protection Law against Canadian imports for some months, but I am happy to state that the application of that law has since been stopped as a result of the amicable agreement concluded between the two countries.

It is to be regretted that there are abroad statesmen of repute who seem determined to impose upon others their private convictions as to how the world should be ordered, and who are apt to denounce those who oppose their dictates as if they were disturbers of peace. No one is qualified to talk world peace unless he not only knows the national aspirations and obligations of his country but also understands and appreciates the standpoints of other countries. The understanding and appreciation of another country's standpoint is often attainable through the understanding and appreciation of that country's culture and civilization. We have succeeded in building up our national strength and prestige by adding and adapting to our civilization Occidental arts and science which we have imported during the past years. Now it is time for us, I believe, to try to introduce our arts and culture to other lands, and thus contribute toward international good understanding and to the enrichment of the world civilization and the promotion of the peace and happiness of mankind.

In conclusion, let me say that the future of our foreign relations is, as I have stated, extremely complicated and complex, while at the same time our country's international position continues to rise. It behooves us well that, in conformance to the Imperial Rescript issued on this country's withdrawal from the League of Nations, we should strive to cultivate abroad good faith among nations and perform at home

each his appointed task and go forth together with courage and determination to meet the world situation of today.

#### Fundamental Policy Vis-à-vis China

In view of a considerable change coming over the political situation in China through the North China and the Chahar incident, it was found necessary to cause some change to Japan's policy vis-à-vis China. So the authorities of the Departments of War, the Navy, Foreign Affairs and Finance met in conference. As a result, the following fundamental policy towards China was decided upon at the Cabinet Council on September 27, 1935:—

- (1) In regard to the fundamental readjustment of the Sino-Japanese relations, the realization of active co-operation among Japan, China and Manchoukuo in political and economic affairs in the Orient should be aimed at.
- (2) As for North China which is contiguous to Manchoukuo, efforts should be exerted to ensure its special position by offering resistance jointly by Japan, China and Manchoukuo against Communism, while speeding up the materialization of their active economic co-operation.
- (3) In regard to Central and South China, all sorts of anti-Japonism should be eradicated so as to prepare the ground for the realization of active co-operation between Japan and China.
- (4) As regards intrigues for disturbing the peace and order of not only North China but the whole land of China, be they internal or external in origin, efforts should be made by Japan jointly with China to eliminate them so as to ensure the foundation of the peace of the Orient, and that with the national conviction that Japan should be the vital force for the security of the Orient.

#### Trade With Canada

A settlement was reached in the tariff dispute between Japan and Canada, which had culminated in the summer of 1935 in the imposition of both countries, when the terms of agreement were set forth in Notes exchanged under the date of December 26, 1935 between Mr. Kato, the Japanese Minister in Ottawa and Mr. Mackenzie King, the Prime Minister of Canada. As a result, Canada cancelled the surtax of 33½ per cent. ad valorem levied on all imports from Japan since August 5. Simultaneously, Japan abolished as from January 1, 1936 the

surtax of 50 per cent. ad valorem imposed on wheat, flour, lumber, pulp, wrapping paper and other Canadian articles under the Trade Protection Law imposed on July 20, 1935.

#### Japan's Withdrawal From London Disarmament Conference

The first plenary session of the Five-Power Naval Conference was opened on December 9, 1935 in London at the invitation of the British Government and in accordance with the terms of the Washington and London Treaties. The Japanese Government was represented at the conference by Adm. Osami Nagano and Mr. Matsuzo Nagai, the Ambassador.

Adm. Nagano, on behalf of the Japanese, said that the Japanese desired to achieve a just and fair agreement which would secure for each country adequate national defence and reduce the financial burdens weighing upon the people. The new treaty should be based upon the fundamental idea of setting up among the Naval Powers a common limit of naval armaments, fixed as low as possible, which they shall not be allowed to exceed. Simultaneously, offensive forces should be drastically reduced and ample defensive forces provided, so as to bring about a substantial measure of disarmament. This would secure a state of non-menace and non-aggression among the Powers. The principal Naval Powers did not support Japan's proposal for a common upper limit. The representatives of the British Empire and the United States so uncompromisingly insisted upon the maintenance of the general policy of ratios as established at the Washington and London Conferences that at last on January 15 Japan was compelled to withdraw from the Conference.

The note indicating the withdrawal addressed to Lord Monsell, First Lord of the Admiralty, by Adm. Nagano under date of January 15 read as follows:—

"I have the honour to notify your Lordship that as it has become sufficiently clear at to-day's session of the first committee that the pacific principle embodied in our proposal for the comprehensive limitation and reduction of naval armaments cannot secure general support, the Japanese delegation has come to the conclusion that we can no longer usefully continue participation in the deliberations of the present Conference.

"We remain nevertheless firmly convinced that the Japanese proposal is the one best calculated to attain effective disarmament, and we regret to state that we cannot subscribe for reasons we have repeatedly set forth, to the plans of



qualitative limitation submitted by the other delegations. I desire to assure you on this occasion that we very sincerely appreciate the cordial manner in which you have been good enough to conduct the Conference.

"At the same time we should like to tender our deepest thanks on behalf of the Japanese delegation, for the hearty co-operation of all the delegations of the nations represented at the Conference."

**Japanese-Egyptian Negotiations at Deadlock**

The negotiations, which had been dragging on between Japan and Egypt in regard to trade questions, came to a deadlock in the middle of April, 1936. On the 15th of the same month the Egyptian Government proposed to abolish the forty per cent. surtax on Japanese goods on condition that Japan agree to the Egyptian proposal to allow Egypt a Japanese share of cotton light piece goods equalling the Japanese share of cotton purchases from Egypt on a sliding scale. Mr. Kasama, the Japanese delegate, made a counter-proposal saying that Japan was prepared to reduce the exports of cotton goods to Egypt to the value of Japan's cotton import from Egypt. As it became apparent from this that the views of the two parties vary from each other, and that it was difficult to expect early developments of the negotiations, the Japanese Foreign Office sent an order of recall to the delegate. That does not, however, mean the break-down of the negotiations. It is the intention of the Japanese Government to make every possible effort to come to agreement through Mr. Amagi, the Charge d'Affaires. Mr. Kasama and other members of the Japanese delegation left Cairo on June 16.

**Extension of the Term of Japanese-Soviet Fishery Treaty**

The protocol for the prolongation of the term specified in the Japan-Soviet Fishery Treaty was signed on May 25, 1936 at Moscow by Mr. Tamekichi Ota, the Japanese Ambassador, and M. Stomoniakov acting for M. Maxim Litvinoff. The full text of the protocol is as follows:—

"The Imperial Government of Japan has intimated to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, in accordance with the provisions of Article 15 of the Fishery Treaty concluded between Japan and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics signed on the 23rd of January, 1928, their desire for the revision of that treaty. A new treaty for the revision of the beforementioned treaty should be concluded before the termination of the existing treaty.

"When the full power delegates of Japan and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics signed the said existing treaty, they expressed their agreed opinion that, when negotiations for the revision of the beforementioned treaty had not ended within the period stipulated in Article 15 of that treaty, a provisional agreement should as a matter of course be concluded. In accordance therewith, the Imperial Government of Japan and the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics have arranged that the said existing treaty and its appendix, which were signed on the 23rd January, 1928, shall remain in force up to the 31st December, 1936.

"In witness thereof the undersigned have, under power duly entrusted by their respective Governments, affixed their signature to the present protocol."

"May 25th, 1936, the Eleventh Year of Showa."

"Ambassador Plenipotentiary. Tamekichi Ota." (Signed).

"Acting People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs. Stomoniakov." (Signed).

**Japan Signs Treaty for Partial Abolition of Extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo**

On June 10, 1936 the Japan-Manchoukuo treaty governing the residence of Japanese in Manchoukuo and the imposition of Manchoukuo taxes upon Japanese nationals was signed between the representatives of the two countries at Hsinking. The new treaty went into effect on July 1. (For the full text of the treaty see Chapt. XXX Manchoukuo Section).

**Important Statement By Japanese Foreign Office Authority.**—On July 1, Mr. Eiji Amai, Director of the Information Bureau of the Foreign Office, Tokyo issued an important statement in reply to queries put by foreign correspondents regarding Manchoukuo's decision, which was announced the same day by its foreign minister Mr. Chang Yen-ching (See Chapt. VIII on Diplomacy Manchoukuo Section). Mr. Amai fully justified the Manchoukuo Government's decision and emphasized that the only way left for foreign Powers was to conclude new agreements with Manchoukuo on the principle of equality. The statement substantially runs as follows:—

"In its identic note addressed to 17 Powers on March 12, 1932, the Manchoukuo Government declared that it "will take over those obligations incurred by the Republic of China by virtue of stipulations with foreign countries, in the true light of the law of nations, and discharge these obligations with good faith.

"There is no doubt that in the light of international law, all Powers excepting those like Japan which have already concluded new treaties with Manchoukuo and which have extended recognition to that State, have not from the outset possessed extraterritorial rights in that State.

"To explain the matter theoretically, first, the Powers in accordance with the fundamental principles of international law do not possess extraterritorial rights in Manchoukuo and secondly, it is a commonly recognized idea in international law that any new State, which has become independent of an old State, does not succeed to the political obligations of the latter.

"In the diplomatic history of the world there have been not a few such instances including the cases of Estonia and Finland freeing themselves from Russia and becoming independent during the Great War.

"The statement issued by Mr. Chang Yen-ching, Foreign Minister of Manchoukuo, is fully justifiable. It seems that Britain, the United States and other Powers, which have not recognized Manchoukuo are obsessed with mistaken ideas wholly ignoring the facts. In the 19th century when Greece and Rumania became independent of Turkey they did not succeed to any obligations relating to extraterritoriality. It does not stand to reason that the Powers which failed to reply and which ignored the communications sent by Manchoukuo in 1932, should become excited now.

"The only way left is for the Powers to conclude new agreements with Manchoukuo on the principle of equality. Manchoukuo has hitherto manifested an attitude of generosity towards the Powers regarding taxation, etc., as a favour. What attitude the Powers will show is unknown, but I believe that they will in the near future have to accept the statement of Manchoukuo."

**Trade Protection Law Against Australia**

In order to meet a prohibitive tariff imposed on Japanese rayon, cotton and other goods by Australia, Japan at last invoked the Trade Protection Law as a retaliatory measure on June 25, 1936. Imperial sanction was granted on the 24th for the decision of the Cabinet Council to invoke the Law. The following day an Imperial Ordinance therefor was issued through the Official Gazette and went into force immediately. The full text of the Imperial Ordinance runs as follows:—

Article 1. In case a country from which Japan imported merchandise greatly more than it exported each year after 1921 and with which

no treaty of commerce and navigation has been concluded, takes unfair measures to restrict importation of goods produced or manufactured in Japan, goods produced or manufactured in such a country shall not be imported into Japan in accordance with the provisions of Article 1 of Law No. 45 of 1934 (Law Concerning Adjustment of Trade and Protection of Commerce) unless permission be given by the competent Minister of State, for a period of one year from the enforcement of this ordinance.

Goods which are mentioned in the foregoing paragraph are limited to those listed in the accompanying table No. 1.

A country mentioned in Paragraph I shall be named by the competent Minister of State.

Article 2. Goods produced or manufactured in a country named in accordance with paragraph No. 3 of the preceding article shall be subject to an import duty of 50 per cent. ad valorem, in addition to the rates imposed under the existing Tariff Schedule for a period of one year from the enforcement of this foregoing paragraph are limited to those given in the accompanying table No. 2.

Article 3. Articles listed in the existing Tariff Schedule and given in the accompanying table No. 3, shall not be exported from Japan for a period of one year from the enforcement of this ordinance, in accordance with the provisions of Article 1 of Law No. 5 of 1934, unless permission is given by the competent Minister of State.

Article 4. A person who has received permission under Article 1 of this decree is required to import the goods involved within three months after the receipt of the permission.

The competent Minister of State may extend the period in case he finds reasonable causes.

In case a person who has received permission under Article 1 fails to import the goods involved within the period stipulated in the foregoing two paragraphs, such permission shall be invalid.

Article 5. A person who wishes to import those articles given in the accompany tables No. 1 or No. 2, shall submit a certificate of origin to the Customs House. This provision does not apply to goods sent by parcel post or under the primary value of \$100.

The certificate of origin mentioned in the foregoing paragraph is required to bear mark and number, name, number of packages, volume, and place of production or manufacture, and should be certified by an Imperial Consulate of Japan at the place where the articles are produced, manufactured or bought; or by a Customs House,



other public offices or Chamber of Commerce, in case there is no Japanese Consul. Stipulations otherwise in commercial treaties shall supercede this provision.

Article 6. Whenever the competent Minister of State deems it necessary he may order, in accordance with the provisions of Article 2 of Law No. 45 of 1934, importers, exporters, dealers and warehouses and other owners of articles listed in the existing tariff schedule and accompanying Table No. 1 and 3 to report the volume and value of exportation and importation of the articles involved, the volume of their available stocks and regarding other necessary matters. The Minister is authorized to order his subordinate officials to inspect the business offices, warehouses and other places, books and other things of the above-mentioned persons.

The competent Government officials shall bear identification cards showing their position when they conduct inspections provided in the foregoing paragraph.

Article 7. The duty and authority of the competent Minister stipulated in this ordinance shall be executed by the Governor-Generals of Chosen and Taiwan and by the Governor of Karafuto.

#### Supplementary Rules

This ordinance shall be effective on the day of promulgation.

Goods in transit toward Japan or in storage in the bonded zones at the time of this ordinance shall be exempt from this ordinance.

#### Tables

No. 1:	
16	Wheat
22	Grain flours and starches
282	Wool
295	Waste or old fibre, waste yarns, waste threads and waste raw wool
No. 2:	
52	Meats, poultry, game, fresh beef
53	Butter
55	Condensed milk
71	Hides and skins, not otherwise provided for
108	Animal fats 1. Beef tallow
217	Casein
No. 3:	
282	Sheep's wool, goat's hair and camel's hair, including those carded or combed
295	Waste or old fibres, waste yarns and waste threads containing wool
341	Rags containing wool.

**Foreign Office Statement**—In regard to the invocation of the Trade Protection Law against

Australia the Foreign Office issued on June 24 a statement an unofficial translation of which is as follows:—

"Japan's trade with Australia has always been marked by an excess of imports on our side, which since 1933, has grown enormously, averaging ¥140,000,000 a year. On the other hand, our export trade with Australia has been placed in a state of extreme uncertainty owing to the industrial conditions and the changes of trade policy of that Commonwealth.

"The visit to this country in May, 1934, of Sir John Latham, the Australian Minister for External Affairs, gave us an opportunity of proposing to negotiate a treaty of commerce, which we had long desired to conclude in order to put the Japanese-Australian trade upon a stable basis. Our proposal was accepted. With the completion of preparations, negotiations were opened formally in Australia in February, 1935, at which we submitted a draft treaty covering a customs convention, the questions of exchange compensation tax, import prohibition and restriction, and other general matters of trade. But soon the negotiations had to be suspended on account of the sudden departure for England of the Australian Minister of Commercial treaties, the principal negotiator for the Commonwealth.

"The said Minister having returned in December, the negotiations were resumed in January of this year, and appeared to make fair progress on the questions of tariff rates, import prohibition and restriction, and exchange compensation tax.

"However, on February 20, the Australian chief representative abruptly told our representative, the Consul-General at Sydney, that his Government would put high specific duties on cotton and artificial silk piecegoods because, owing to the too low prices of Japanese goods, the customs revenues from the existing ad valorem duties were decreasing.

"Later, on March 10, the Australian Government requested us to limit voluntarily our annual export of cotton and artificial silk goods to 30,000,000 square yards and 25,000,000 square yards respectively, upon which condition, it informed us, Australia would modify the imposition of high specific duties. From the broader viewpoint of the trade between the two countries, we considered it advisable to take some sort of action relative to the sudden fall in price of artificial silk piecegoods, which seemed to be the main point of the Australian complaint.

"Accordingly, as an expedient we raised the

price of artificial silk by imposing a high export control fee on goods shipped to Australia; and, furthermore, in accordance with the Australian wish, we stopped taking new orders for some time to prevent speculative importation. Nevertheless, despite all such efforts on our part toward co-operation, the Australian Government, insisting upon the absolute necessity of quantitative restriction of cotton and artificial silk goods, demanded on April 4 to hear our definite views on the question within a fixed time, intimating that, if we refused to discuss quantitative restrictions, it would impose such duties as would be high enough to restrict the import quantities of these goods.

"We invited the Australian Government to reconsider the matter, stating that we could not agree to any quantitative restriction on cotton piecegoods in the absence of any grounds for it such as a fall in price affecting the market, while on artificial silk we were prepared to discuss price control, but not quantitative restriction in view of the present condition of the trade between the two countries which is so greatly adverse to Japan.

"On April 27 the Australian Government replied that, after careful consideration, it had found it impossible to accept as a basis of negotiations our proposition limited to the price control of artificial silk piecegoods alone. At the same time, it hastily submitted to the Parliament just before its adjournment—namely, on May 22—a bill for tariff revision, and put a new tariff into force on the next day, May 23, together with an import license system on 86 articles including piecegoods and artificial silk piecegoods. The tariff, which puts practically prohibitive duties on Japan's principal articles of export to Australia—100 to 140 per cent ad valorem on cotton piecegoods, and 100 to 400 per cent on artificial silk piecegoods—means a fatal blow to our export trade with that Commonwealth.

#### Warning Sounded

It is a matter for profound regret that, in spite of the conciliatory attitude we have maintained from the beginning and our earnest endeavours to arrive at an agreement, the negotiations for a commercial treaty have been brought to a standstill by the action of Australia in preventing the importation of our goods by not only imposing prohibitively high customs duties but adopting an import licence system, an action extremely unreasonable in view of the present state of the Japanese-Australian trade.

"Anxious to avoid taking retaliatory steps against the unreasonable action of the Australian

Government and to induce it through diplomatic means to reconsider its policy, we have up to this time made repeated protests through our Consul-General, and continued to urge it to drop speedily the new tariff, making it clear to it that if it adhered to the new tariff and the Import licence system, we would be compelled to adopt the necessary measures for the safeguarding of our trade.

"The Australian Government, while only suggesting to accord special treatment to the goods already under contract, has persisted upon the maintenance of the tariff and the license system, rejecting our fundamental demand. It has communicated its intention to continue negotiations on the condition that we refrain from invoking our Trade Protection Law, while it maintains its new tariff and import license system. It is obviously impossible for Japan to carry on negotiations under such intolerable conditions, with prohibitive duties imposed on the principal articles of export, to say nothing of our overwhelming adverse trade balance that has continued for these many years past. The Trade Protection Law has now been invoked upon the rejection by the Australian Government of our final appeal for reconsideration.

#### Rumor Denied

"The invocation of the Trade Protection Law has been necessitated, as above set forth, in order to counteract the unreasonable measures adopted by the Australian Government and to place the parties to the negotiations on an equal footing. Needless to say, the Japanese Government earnestly desires that the question be solved satisfactorily through negotiations as soon as possible.

Of late, we hear reports allegedly emanating from certain quarters in Australia that the Japanese Government has presented demands interfering with the domestic policies of the Commonwealth Government or intruding upon the the commercial relations between Great Britain and Australia. However, nothing is farther removed from our intention.

"We wish to take this opportunity to declare that our sole desire, as everybody knows well, is to ensure and enhance the smooth development of our trade relations with the Australian Government."

#### Japan-Netherlands Shipping Agreement

The long drawn out shipping war between the Japanese and Netherlands interests was brought to an end on June 8, 1936 when an agreement



was concluded between Mr. H. Terai, Managing Director of the Nanyo Kaiun Kaisha (the South Sea Shipping Company) and Mr. A. L. W. Van Dobben, representative of the Java-China-Japan Line regarding shipping business between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies. The agreement took effect on July 1.

Under the agreement, the Japanese Company is to carry 64.25 per cent. of all available cargo from Japan to the Netherlands Indies and 60 per cent. of such cargo from the Netherlands Indies to Japan, leaving to the Netherlands Indies interests 35 per cent. and 40 per cent. respectively.

**Japanese Economic Mission to Siam**

The Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry, which invited to these shores a Siamese Economic Mission in co-operation with the Siamese Society in 1934 for the purpose of introducing the actual conditions of industry and culture of Japan to them and promoting the friendship of the two countries, sent a Japanese economic mission to Siam in the spring of 1936 under the support of the Foreign Office and the Department of Overseas Affairs. The Mission was composed of the following:—

- Mr. Yunosuke Yasukawa (Chairman),  
President, Toyo Rayon Co., Ltd.
- Mr. Ryozo Asano (Vice-Chairman),  
Vice-President, Asano Cement Co., Ltd.
- Mr. Yuji Nagashima,  
Director, Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, Ltd.
- Dr. Shintaro Motora,  
Managing Director, Mitsubishi Jyukogyo  
Kabushiki-Kaisha
- Mr. Hisao Tomoda,  
Director, Fuji Gas Spinning Co., Ltd.
- Mr. Kozo Shirotozaki,  
Auditor, Taiwan Sugar Mfg. Co., Ltd.
- Mr. Takeshi Yamaguchi (Adviser),  
President, Siamese Society.
- Mr. Yoshio Iwata (Adviser),  
Managing Director, Sumatra Industrial Co.,  
Ltd.
- Dr. Giichi Nakayama (Physician).

The Mission left Tokyo Station on March 14 for Moji whence they sailed by the Mitsui Line ship Akashi Maru and returned home on May 14.

In the course of his speech on the results of the visit to Siam of the Economic Mission given at a dinner at the Bankers' Club, Tokyo Mr. Yasukawa, the head of the Mission, said that the first mission of his party had been to promote the friendship between the two countries. He and his party had done their best to fulfill this important mission by issuing a statement to the newspapers, giving the fullest

possible explanations at various functions, and in interviews with the Princes Regent and various ministers of state and by displaying films for industries, sports, sceneries, manners and customs of Japan. The Mission also had made contributions, though not large in amount, to such institutions, as the Japan-Siam Society, schools, hospitals, the Red Cross Society, etc. The second mission had been the regulation of the one-sidedness of the trade between the two countries. Japan's trade with Siam for 1935 was ¥40,000,000 in exports and ¥5,000,000 in imports, the former exceeding the latter to the absurd extent of ¥35,000,000. On examination on the spot it had been discovered that the limping state of trade was not so serious in substance as had been thought. Imports from Japan, which had amounted to roughly ¥40,000,000 last year as already mentioned, were not all consumed within the country. Some part of them were re-exported to Burma, British India and China. The amount of this transit trade was said to be about ¥15-16,000,000. Japan yearly imported rubber and tin to the value of ¥65-66,000,000, of which amount about ¥11,000,000 was said to be Siamese in origin. So, the real balance of trade was about ¥14-15,000,000. But, Japanese traders were by no means satisfied with the present extent of exports, or about ¥40,000,000. On the contrary, they desired to increase them more and more. The value of our exports was about 21 per cent. of the total value of Siamese imports. There was, therefore, still a considerable room left for the entry of Japanese goods. As for the import trade, it was virtually at a standstill owing to the invocation of the Rice Act. It was thought as of urgent necessity to revise that law so as to open the way for Siamese rice to find its way into the Japanese market. If not, it was to be feared that a country like Great Britain, which took about 80 per cent. of Siamese exports but which did not sell so much might not instigate Siam to adopt the quota or barter system against Japan in order to better her own position. The third mission had been to investigate whether there was room for Japan's investment in and economic co-operation with Siam. As a result of investigation, it had been found that cotton cultivation and the sugar industry were very hopeful fields for those purposes.

**Visit of Brazilian Economic Mission to Japan**

Japan extended a warm welcome to its State Guests from South America, members of the Brazilian Economic Mission, which arrived in Yokohama on September 19, 1936 aboard the

Buenos Aires Maru, under the leadership of Dr. Joaquim Pedro Salgado Filho, former Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour. By special train prepared by the Government, the Mission came to Tokyo. At Tokyo Station they were given an enthusiastic welcome by Mr. Hachisaburo Hirao, Minister of Education, who led the Japanese Economic Mission to Brazil last year, Mr. Harinouchi, Vice-Foreign Minister and chairman of the Reception Committee and nearly a hundred prominent officials and business leaders.

The purpose of the Brazilian Mission in visiting Japan was three-fold, as was told to the press by Dr. Salgado, the leader of the Mission. The first was to repay the visit of the Japanese Mission to Brazil last year; second, to investigate the possibilities of furthering Japanese-Brazilian trade, and third, to make still closer the traditional friendship existing between the two countries since the first treaty of amity and commerce signed forty years ago. During their ten day's sojourn in the Capital the members of the Mission were guests of honour at various functions both official and private. On the 21st Dr. Salgado and other official members of the Mission were received in audience by H.I.M. the Emperor at the Chiyoda Palace. The same day Dr. Salgado and his entire party were guests of

Princess Takamatsu at a formal tea party at the Takanawa Mansion of Her Highness.

Satisfied with the series of talks on trade matters with Japanese Government officials and business leaders and with what they had observed of Japanese industrial developments and encouraged by the prospects for trade, Dr. Joaquim Pedro Salgado Filho and other members of the Brazilian Economic Mission left Tokyo on the 29th on a tour of the Kwansai district. On the 16th October the party sailed for home from Kobe by the Buenos Aires Maru.

On the eve of his departure from Tokyo the First Class Order of the Sacred Treasure was presented to Dr. Salgado, the leader of the Mission, through Mr. Hachiro Arita, the Foreign Minister.

**List of Treaties Between Japan and Foreign Countries**

In the following list are given only principal bilateral treaties between Japan and foreign countries. Those marked with asterisks are treaties whose term has already expired and those marked with daggers have had no fixed term from the beginning but can be abrogated by notification by one of the contracting parties.

**List of Treaties Between Japan and Foreign Countries**

Contracting States	Name of Treaty	Date of Signature	Ratification exchanged
Afghanistan.....	Treaty of Amity.....	Apr. 2, 1928	July 17, 1931
Albania.....	Treaty of Amity, Commerce.....	June 20, 1930	June 11, 1931
Argentina.....	†Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation.....	Feb. 3, 1898	Sept. 18, 1801
Austria.....	Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.....	Aug. 16, 1930	Dec. 2, 1931
Belgium.....	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.....	June 27, 1924	May 3, 1925
Bolivia.....	*Treaty of Commerce.....	Apr. 13, 1914	Mar. 15, 1916
Brazil.....	Treaty of Amity and Commerce.....	Nov. 5, 1895	Feb. 12, 1897
Chile.....	†Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation.....	Sept. 25, 1897	Sept. 24, 1906
	Additional Articles to the Aforementioned Treaty.....	Oct. 16, 1899	Sept. 24, 1906
	Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.....	July 21, 1896	Oct. 20, 1895
	Supplementary Convention to the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.....	Oct. 8, 1903	Jan. 11, 1904 (Promulgated)
China.....	Customs Tariff Convention.....	May 6, 1930	May 7, 1930 (Promulgated)
	Agreement concerning the Exchange of Postal Matters.....	Dec. 8, 1922	Jan. 1, 1923
Colombia.....	†Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation.....	May 25, 1908	Dec. 10, 1908
Czecho-Slovakia.....	†Treaty of Commerce.....	Oct. 30, 1925	Oct. 20, 1926
Denmark.....	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.....	Feb. 12, 1912	May 6, 1912
	†Special Reciprocal Customs Convention...	Feb. 12, 1912	May 6, 1912
	†Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation.....	Aug. 26, 1918	Mar. 31, 1919
Finland.....	†Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.....	June 7, 1924	Oct. 22, 1925



Contracting States	Name of Treaty	Date of Signature	Ratification exchanged
	Convention between Japan and France . . . . .	June 10, 1907	June 10, 1907
France . . . . .	Agreement concerning Commercial Relations between Japan and French Indo-China . . . . .	May 13, 1932	Aug. 17, 1932
	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Aug. 19, 1911	Apr. 22, 1912
	Declaration concerning French Indo-China . . . . .	Aug. 19, 1911	Aug. 26, 1911
Free City of Danzig . . . . .	Note relating to the Application to Free City of Danzig of the Treaty of Commerce & Navigation between Japan and Poland . . . . .		(Promulgated) Apr. 16, 1927
	*Treaty of Commerce . . . . .	Apr. 11, 1927	Apr. 2, 1928
Germany . . . . .	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	July 2, 1927	Apr. 2, 1928
	Supplementary Convention to the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Apr. 3, 1911	May 5, 1911
Great Britain . . . . .	Treaty of Commerce between Japan and India . . . . .	July 30, 1925	July 29, 1927
	Treaty of Commerce between Japan and India . . . . .	July 12, 1934	—
Greece . . . . .	†Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	June 1, 1899	Sept. 21, 1899
	Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	July 6, 1912	Oct. 8, 1913
Netherlands . . . . .	Treaty of Judicial Settlement, Arbitration and Conciliation . . . . .	Apr. 19, 1933	Aug. 13, 1935
	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Nov. 25, 1912	June 17, 1913
Italy . . . . .	†Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Nov. 16, 1923	Jan. 13, 1925
Jugoslavia . . . . .	†Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	July 4, 1925	Aug. 25, 1928
Latvia . . . . .	†Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	May 2, 1930	Nov. 30, 1931
Lithuania . . . . .	†Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Dec. 22, 1905	Jan. 23, 1906
	Treaty concerning Manchuria . . . . .		(Promulgated) May 4, 1907
Marchoukuo . . . . .	Convention concerning Hsinmintun-Mukden and Kirin-Chungchun Railways . . . . .	Apr. 15, 1907	(Promulgated) Nov. 27, 1908
	Ditto (Supplementary Articles) . . . . .	Nov. 12, 1908	(Promulgated) Sept. 8, 1909
	Sino-Japanese Convention . . . . .	Sept. 4, 1909	Sept. 8, 1909
	Treaty concerning South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia . . . . .	May 25, 1915	June 7, 1915
	Protocol between Japan and Marchoukuo . . . . .	Sept. 15, 1932	Sept. 15, 1932
	Convention Concerning Establishment of Commission . . . . .	Sept. 15, 1935	Sept. 15, 1935
	Treaty for Partial Abolition of Extraterritoriality . . . . .	June 10, 1936	June 10, 1936
	Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Oct. 8, 1924	May 5, 1925
Mexico . . . . .	Exchange of Notes relating to the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Mar. 9, 1934	Mar. 16, 1934
	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	June 16, 1911	July 15, 1911
Norway . . . . .	†Special Reciprocal Customs Convention . . . . .	June 16, 1911	July 15, 1911
	†Treaty of Commerce . . . . .	Nov. 17, 1919	Aug. 25, 1921
Paraguay . . . . .	Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Sept. 30, 1924	Feb. 19, 1930
	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Nov. 7, 1922	Jan. 8, 1925
Peru . . . . .	†Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Mar. 10, 1924	Dec. 22, 1924
	Convention embodying Basic Rules of Relations between Japan and Russia . . . . .	Jan. 20, 1925	Feb. 27, 1925
Poland . . . . .	Fishery Convention . . . . .	Jan. 23, 1928	May 25, 1928
	Agreement Concerning the Exchange of Postal Parcels . . . . .	Nov. 23, 1931	July 23, 1932
Siam . . . . .	*Treaty of Amity and General Relations . . . . .	May 15, 1911	July 10, 1915
	*Special Commercial Convention . . . . .	Mar. 28, 1900	Mar. 30, 1901
Soviet Russia . . . . .	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	May 19, 1911	July 12, 1911
	†Special Reciprocal Customs Convention . . . . .	May 19, 1911	July 12, 1911
Spain . . . . .	*Treaty of Residence and Commerce . . . . .	June 21, 1911	Dec. 20, 1911
	*Treaty of Judicial Settlement . . . . .	Dec. 26, 1924	Dec. 20, 1925
Sweden . . . . .	Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Oct. 11, 1930	Mar. 20, 1934
	*Treaty of Commerce and Navigation . . . . .	Feb. 21, 1911	Apr. 4, 1911
Switzerland . . . . .	†Convention regarding the Protection of Copyright . . . . .	Nov. 10, 1905	May 10, 1906
	Treaty concerning the Island of Yap and other mandated Islands situated in the Pacific Ocean and lying north of the Equator . . . . .	Feb. 11, 1922	July 13, 1922

## CHAPTER IX NATIONAL DEFENCE

### INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

#### Relative Position of Army and Navy

Till the time of the Russo-Japanese War (1904-05) the Army was dominant and the Navy secondary in the scheme of national defence. In the organization of the Imperial Headquarters on the occasion of the Japan-China War, for instance, the Chief of the General Staff, a General in the Army, controlled for strategic reasons the two wings of national defence, though they had been distinctly separated in 1893. In the Imperial Headquarters organized at the time of the Russo-Japanese war, the Chiefs of the two services were for the first time placed on equal status as to power, and were placed under the direct control of the Emperor. Since then, so far as expansion is concerned, the Navy has surpassed the Army in the amount voted by the Imperial Diet.

#### National Defence Programme

Subsequent to the Russo-Japanese War Prince Yamagata memorialized the Throne, suggesting that the Army should be increased to twenty-five Divisions in the future, namely in the first term to nineteen Divisions and in the second term to twenty-five Divisions, while the Navy should be expanded to two Squadrons, each consisting of at least eight superior battleships, and of some cruiser squadrons. The project was sanctioned by the Emperor Meiji, and then Satonji Cabinet promised that the scheme would be carried out as far as the State finances allowed. The national defence programme has, however, been modified as the result of the Washington Conference as described elsewhere in the present chapter.

#### Board of Marshals and Fleet Admirals

The Board of Marshals and Fleet Admirals was created in 1898 as the highest advisory body

on military and naval matters to the Emperor. The present members are:—

H.I.H. Marshal Prince Kan-in; H.I.H. Fleet Admiral Prince Fushimi; H.I.H. Marshal Prince Nasimcto.

#### The Supreme War Council

This is a special war office created in 1887 and may be regarded as the Emperor's advisers and staff officers on all important matters pertaining to war. The members consist of Marshals, Fleet Admirals, Ministers of the Army and the Navy, Chiefs of the General Staff Office and the Naval Staff Board, all as ex-officio members, and also those specially nominated by the Emperor. At present the specially nominated members of the Council are:—

Adm. H. Yamamoto; Adm. S. Kobayashi; Adm. K. Nomura; Adm. R. Nakamura; Adm. N. Suettsugu; Gen. G. Nishi; Lieut.-Gen. Prince Yasuhiko (Asaka-no-Miya); Lieut.-Gen. Prince Naruhiko (Higashi Kuni-no-Miya); Adm. Mineo Osumi.

#### The Court-Martial Law

The Court-Martial Law revised in 1921 and in force since April, 1922, provides that (1) all offences committed by officers and men to be tried in public, (2) and the accused allowed benefit of counsel in their defence. A way is open for appeal.

There are in the Army eight court-martials, i.e. the High, the Divisional and six other temporary ones, while the Navy has the High, the Tokyo, the Admiralty and four other temporary ones. In both services the court-martial is composed of judges (military or naval officers), law officers (civil) and clerks, the number of these varying according to the nature of the court.

Table 1. The Army Expenditure

Year	Ordinary (¥1,000)	Extraordinary (¥1,000)	Total (¥1,000)	%
1893 (Before Sino-Japanese War) . . . . .	12,420	2,301	14,721	17.40
1896 (After Sino-Japanese War) . . . . .	32,614	30,629	63,243	32.02
1903 (Before Russo-Japanese War) . . . . .	39,355	7,529	46,884	18.78



Year	Ordinary (Y1,000)	Extraordinary (Y1,000)	Total (Y1,000)	%
1906 (After Russo-Japanese War).....	37,835	30,045	67,870	14.65
1912 .....	80,175	23,950	104,125	17.52
1917 .....	88,344	35,093	123,437	16.78
1923 .....	176,224	47,704	223,927	14.89
1924 .....	179,331	27,403	206,735	12.72
1925 .....	170,761	44,044	214,805	14.09
1926 .....	167,561	29,380	196,941	12.47
1927 .....	174,190	43,913	218,104	12.35
1928 .....	167,626	81,486	249,106	13.73
1929 .....	178,899	48,356	227,255	13.09
1930 .....	174,546	26,278	200,824	12.89
1931 .....	163,680	63,808	227,488	15.40
1932 .....	148,266	225,309	373,575	19.16
1933 .....	166,471	296,173	462,645	20.52
1934 .....	168,656	284,569	453,225	20.48
1935 .....	179,804	313,155	492,959	22.47
1936 .....	190,508	317,409	508,317	22.03

N.B.—Figures for 1934, 1935 and 1936 are budget estimates, others being settled account.

Table 2. The Navy Expenditure

Year	Ordinary (Y1,000)	Extraordinary (Y1,000)	Total (Y1,000)	%
1893 (Before Sino-Japanese War).....	5,141	2,960	8,101	9.58
1896 (After Sino-Japanese War).....	7,351	12,655	20,006	10.73
1903 (Before Russo-Japanese War).....	21,991	14,588	36,118	14.47
1906 (After Russo-Japanese War).....	27,991	33,885	61,876	13.36
1912 .....	41,534	53,052	95,486	10.68
1917 .....	48,528	113,906	162,434	22.10
1925 .....	122,242	106,761	229,003	15.02
1926 .....	127,428	109,879	237,307	15.03
1927 .....	136,545	136,992	273,537	15.49
1928 .....	143,026	125,106	268,132	14.77
1929 .....	147,649	120,017	267,665	15.41
1930 .....	146,888	95,147	242,035	15.54
1931 .....	138,914	88,215	227,129	15.38
1932 .....	140,740	172,069	312,809	16.04
1933 .....	179,027	230,948	409,975	18.18
1934 .....	199,337	289,172	488,509	22.07
1935 .....	215,918	313,766	529,683	24.15
1936 .....	236,752	314,714	551,466	23.89

N.B.—Figures for 1934, 1935 and 1936 are budget estimates, others being settled account.

SECTION I. THE ARMY

Prefatory Remarks

For about seven centuries till the abolition of feudalism in 1868, military service was an exclusive privilege of samurai class, but with the advent of the resuscitated Imperial regime (1868) it was converted into a system of conscription service to which sons and brothers of all classes of people are liable on reaching majority. Japan thus adopted the Western system, namely that of a nation in arms. Of the generals who rendered distinguished service in the task of thus organizing the military system of Japan, the names of the late Marshals Yamagata and Oyama and the late General Prince Katsura stand out prominent. Marshal Yamagata carried out in 1884 minute investigations into the military systems of the leading Powers of Europe. As a result of his memorable tour of inspection of

Europe, the military organization of the country was remodelled on the Prussian system. The Marshal's suite contained the best talents of the time so far as military affairs were concerned and included the late General Kawakami, Chief of the General Staff, and the late Prince Katsura. It was by General Kawakami, who by the way died soon after the close of the Japan-China war in which he played the most distinguished part, that the staff service of the country was laid on the present basis of perfection and efficiency. On the other hand General Katsura did much to improve the administrative side of the service. In adopting the German method Japan owed much to the late General Meckel of the Prussian army who came to this country in 1885 as adviser to the Japanese army and took under his tutelage most of our distinguished Generals.

1. CONSCRIPTION

The conscription system, first elaborated in 1873 and lastly revised in 1927, requires all able-bodied Japanese males, of from full 17 to 40 years old to respond to the nation's call. In practice, that fundamental principle has never been put in force, and even on such an extraordinary occasion as that of the 1904-5 War the call was limited to a portion of those on the second reserve.

The service is divided as follows:—**Jobi hei-eki** (standing army) consisting of **gen-eki** (active service) and **yobi-eki** (1st reserve service); **kobi hei-eki** (2nd reserve service); **hoju hei-eki** (territorial army service); **kokumin hei-eki** (national army service). The youths at full 20 years of age are subject to examination for conscription. Those who pass it as Class I are enrolled by lottery in the active service which extends 2 years (3 years in the navy) or 1st or 2nd territorial army service. Lads who finish the active service are placed on the 1st reserve list for 5 years and 4 months (4 years in the navy) at the end of which they are transferred to the 2nd reserve for 10 years (5 years in the navy), and finally, after 17 years and 4 months (12 years in the navy) of service, on the national army. Those who have gone through the period of territorial army service also pass into the national army. Youths who are classed as II are not recruited, but placed on the national army service.

**Exemption and Postponement.**—Those who are classed as III are exempted from service, while Class IV lads are to be examined again the following year and, if they remain in the same class after repeated examinations, are exempted. Criminals and the only supporters of the family have their enlistment put off. The postponement of enlistment is allowed in favour of lads studying at schools, Government or private, which are recognized to be of a status at least equal to that of Middle Schools till they reach 27 years of age according to the length of the term of schools they attend. Such boys are subject to conscription examination when they cease to attend schools. This postponement is also applicable to those staying

abroad except in near Asiatic countries, to the age of 37. On the other hand, a student living within the eligible limit is enrolled at once in the service without the favour of chance of exemption from active service incidental to the drawing of lots, as soon as he leaves a school placed under the postponement clause, or when he reaches the above ages.

**Short Term Active Service.**—Under the new conscription law in force since Dec. 1927, the term of active service of those conscripts who finished the course of the Seinen Kunren-sho or Young Men's Training Institutes (also see under Chapter on Education) has been reduced to 18 months, while that of the graduates of normal schools has been shortened to 5 months. The system of this short term active service has also been adopted in the Navy with the object of spreading and popularizing the maritime knowledge. The term of active service for the students of middle schools and higher grade schools who underwent the course of military training at schools has been reduced to 12 months for the graduates of middle grade schools and 10 months for those higher grade schools. The former system of one year volunteers was discontinued after Nov. 30, 1927.

While, under the old system the students matriculating in schools were exempted from occasional calls merely, the conscription examination of those students is to be postponed under the new measure till they reach the age of full 27 years.

**Examination for Conscription.**—Lads of conscript age are classified into six grades as regards their physical examination, as, A, B1, B2, C, D, and E, the respective figures in the 1932, 1933 and 1934 examinations being as follows:—

Table 3. Statistics of Conscript Examinations

(a) Lads of Conscript Age of Various Grades	1932	1933	1934
	Total Number . . . . .	621,844	631,099
A Grade . . . . .	174,282	178,994	185,432
B-1 Grade . . . . .	71,556	72,796	72,979
B-2 Grade . . . . .	125,938	132,681	135,275
C Grade . . . . .	207,401	205,777	206,810
D Grade . . . . .	41,951	40,141	40,822
E Grade . . . . .	716	710	651

(b) Stature

Year	Over 1.75	Over 1.70	Over 1.65	Over 1.60	Over 1.55	Over 1.50	Over 1.45	Under 1.40	Dis-qualified	Aver. stature (metre)
1930 . . . . .	2,474	19,969	84,311	184,612	185,879	89,629	21,232	3,917	3,344	1.598
1931 . . . . .	2,709	21,762	90,109	192,904	190,725	92,283	21,206	3,585	3,673	1.600
1932 . . . . .	2,883	22,751	92,463	194,375	189,109	91,845	20,924	3,731	3,570	1.600
1933 . . . . .	3,123	24,451	97,069	197,812	190,697	89,706	20,611	3,525	3,876	1.602
1934 . . . . .	3,766	25,886	100,125	202,304	192,486	89,640	20,041	3,587	4,134	1.603



(c) Average Weight (Kg.)

Year	Over 75 Kg.	Over 70	Over 65	Over 60	Over 55	Over 50	Over 45	Over 40	Under 40	Average
1930....	63,585	60,048	57,221	54,371	51,409	48,283	44,661	41,237	36,111	52,727
1931....	63,695	60,238	57,443	54,574	51,620	48,476	45,210	41,536	36,391	53,007
1932....	63,672	59,980	57,221	54,365	51,408	48,310	45,047	41,441	35,691	52,841
1933....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	52,816
1934....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	52,994

The ratio of illiteracy, which stood at 4.28 per cent. in 1910, fell to 2.17 in '15, 0.88 in '25 0.48 in '34, further dropping to 0.38 in 1934.

#### Conscripts and Leave of Absence

In order to meet the convenience of the families of conscripts the military authorities adopted in 1919 a new measure, according to which conscripts may return home to assist in the business of their families at a convenient period, staying for the number of days representing their leave, but in no case for more than a fortnight.

#### 2. PERSONNEL OF ACTIVE SERVICE

**Officers.**—Infantry, cavalry, artillery, engineer, commissariat and aviation officers are appointed from among cadets trained at the Military Cadets' School, or non-commissioned officers. Technical officers, surgeons and veterinary surgeons are promoted from among probational officers who must be graduates of universities and technical or medical schools, while paymasters are trained at the Paymasters' School. Officers can also volunteer for the gendarmerie when they are put to training at the Gendarmerie Training Institute.

**Warrant officers.**—These are special sergent-majors.

**Non-Commissioned officers.**—These comprise sergent-majors, sergeants and corporals, all to be promoted from the ranks of the privates.

**Privates.**—These are classified into senior (jotohei), 1st (ittohei) and 2nd (nitohei) classes.

#### Promotion and Age-Limit of Officers

Rules for promotion of military officers in service in time of peace are as follows: (this limit being reduced to ½ in time of war).

1 year from Sub-Lieutenant to Lieutenant, 2 years from Lieutenant to Captain, 4 years to Major, 2 years to Lieutenant-Colonel, 2 years each to Colonel and next to Major-General, 3 years to Lieutenant-General. The promotion to full General and next to Marshal is left to the will of the Emperor.

Age-limit in the active service is—45 for Sub-Lieutenant and Lieutenant, 48 for Captain, 50 for Major, 53 for Lieutenant-Colonel, 55 for

Colonel, 58 for Major-General, 62 for Lieutenant-General, 65 for General and no limit for Marshal.

#### Opens the Door of the Service

To induce non-commissioned officers to remain in the service, the military authorities devised in 1920 a special system by which the warrant officer of capability may be promoted to a special lieutenant after a short education, to be elevated according to merit to a higher post, even to the supreme Marshalship. On the other hand, to reinforce the Army with erudite officers, the graduates of universities in science or engineering can now be appointed by the Appointment Regulations of Technical Officers gazetted in August 1919, to Engineer of Artillery Lieutenants after 6 months' cadetship, while those graduated from the medical and agricultural colleges are likewise qualified to become Surgeon and Veterinary Lieutenants respectively.

Table 4. No. of Officers on Active List

Year	Gen. to Maj.-Gen. & ranking officers	Col. to Maj. & ranking officers	Capt. to Sub-Lieut. & ranking officers	Non-commissioned officers	Total
1930..	220	3,747	9,823	3,531	17,321
1931..	221	3,747	9,797	—	—
1932..	233	3,939	9,729	—	13,901
1933..	233	4,260	10,374	—	14,867
1934..	231	4,661	10,063	—	14,955

#### 3. ARMY EDUCATION

Military education is under the control of the Military Training Department. The principal institutions for military education are:—(1) The Military Preparatory School located at Tokyo (2) The Military Cadets' School (Military Academy) situated at Tokyo receives the graduates of the Preparatory School and other candidates; (3) The Military Staff College gives the finishing polish to lieutenants and captains of promising ability and gives necessary training so as to qualify them to become staff officers. The third is under direct control of the General Staff Office. For benefit of those aspiring to become non-commissioned officers, Military Training Schools were established at Sendai, Toyohashi and Kumamoto in 1927.

Besides the above there are various schools to give special education connected with Army. These are:—(1) the Artillery and Engineering School for 2nd lieutenants of the respective corps to receive necessary training; (2) the Infantry School to instruct captains and lieutenants in tactics, etc.; (3) the Toyama Military School to give officers and non-commissioned officers from two to seven months' training in gymnastics, and fencing, and also to train the Military Band; (4) the Cavalry School to give eleven months' training to officers and non-commissioned officers of cavalry; (5) the Heavy Artillery School; (6) the Field Artillery School; (7) the Gunnery Mechanic School; (8) the Paymasters School; (9) the Surgery School; (10) the Veterinary Surgery School; (11) the Engineering School for training officers and non-commissioned officers in military engineering; (12) the Military Communication School; (13) the Military Motor Car School; (14) the Military Aviation School; (15) the Gendarmerie Training Institute.

Table 5. Latest Statistics of Military Schools (At the end of Sept. 1934)

	Staff	Enrolments	*Graduates
Staff College .....	97	150	50
Cadets' School (Military Academy) ...	61	1,973	393
Gunnery Mechanic School .....	54	138	—
Infantry School .....	30	175	—
Toyama School .....	50	300	130
Cavalry School .....	54	56	—
Field Art. School .....	—	56	—
Heavy Art. School .....	37	22	—
Army Eng. School .....	20	20	—
Mil. Aviation Schools (3) .....	95	—	—
Mil. Motor Car School .....	45	83	—
Mil. Communications School .....	27	60	—
Mil. Preparatory School .....	39	343	50
Mil. Mechanical School .....	64	223	110
Paymasters School .....	—	—	—
Surgery School .....	50	150	—
Vet. Surgery School .....	16	78	—
Mil. Training Schools (3) .....	172	1,739	1,207
Gendarmerie Training Institute .....	29	79	75
Narashino Military School (established 1933) .....	—	—	—

\* At the end of March, 1933.

#### 4. DEVELOPMENT & REORGANIZATION OF SPECIAL CORPS

As a result of actual experience learned in the Russo-Japanese War (1904-05) and the World War (1914-18), special corps has been expanded or reorganized. The development is especially conspicuous in (1) Heavy Artillery, (2) Field and Mountain Artillery, (3) Machine Gun Companies, (4) Communication Corps, (5). Flying Corps, etc.

**Heavy Artillery.**—This is the new term adopt-

ed for the Fortress Artillery in the old system, stationed at the forts existing at various strategic points, as the Bay of Tokyo, Shimonoseki, and others. The system of the former Fortress Artillery having been exclusively defensive and therefore unsuited for aggressive operations, to bring it up to date, the strength of the artillery corps stationed at various places being unified at the same time. Further to strengthen the efficiency and mobile power of the Heavy Artillery Corps, lighter guns were attached, to be made use of when quick work is required. The Heavy Artillery Corps are distributed as follows:—

**Regiments.**—Yokosuka; Miyama; Shimonoseki.

**Battalions.**—Hakodate; Maizuru; Keichi; Sasebo; Masan; Ryojun; Keelung; Mako.

**Field Artillery and Mountain Artillery.**—(A) A field artillery regiment, composed of three battalions, is attached to each Army Division with the exception of the 9th, 11th and 19th Divisions, for each of which a mountain artillery regiment is provided.

(B) Besides there are four brigades of field heavy artillery, each of two regiments strength, distributed as follows:—

Brigade headquarters	Regiments
1st (Mishima) .....	{ 2nd 3rd
2nd (Kokura) .....	{ 5th 6th
3rd (Konodai) .....	{ 1st 7th
4th (Tokyo) .....	{ 4th 8th

(C) Two independent mountain artillery regiments, each two battalions strong, are stationed at Takata (1st reg.) and Kurume (3rd. reg.)

**Mounted Artillery.**—A mounted artillery battalion is stationed at Konodai, Chiba prefecture.

**Mounted Machine Guns.**—A Battery of mounted machine guns is attached to each infantry regiment.

**Telegraph Regiments.**—There are two telegraph regiments, the 1st regiment being stationed in Tokyo, and the 2nd in Hiroshima.

**Railway Regiments.**—Two railway regiments (both belonging to the Guard Division) are stationed at Narashino and Chiba, both in Chiba prefecture.

**Tank Regiments.**—Two tank Regiments (created in 1925) are stationed at Kurume and Narashino.

**Anti-Aircraft Artillery.**—Four anti-aircraft artillery regiments (created in 1925) are stationed at Hamamatsu, Konodai, Otsu and Saga.



Two battalions are stationed at Rashin and Heijo. **Balloon Corps.**—A balloon corps is stationed at Tsugamura, Chiba prefecture.

**Army Air Force.**—At present there are eight flying regiments each consisting of 3 or 4 companies. The force was made an independent service in June 1925, the former term "flying battalions" having been changed into "flying regiments" at the same time. (For further details vide Aviation Section of this Chapter.)

**Fortresses.**—There are 17 fortresses at points of strategic importance, in different parts of the country and dependencies. A heavy artillery regiment or battalion is stationed at each of these fortresses as stated before. They are as follows:—

Yokosuka, Chichijima (Bonin Is.), Yura, Shimonoseki, Maizuru, Sasebo, Tsushima, Nagasaki, Iki, Hakodate, Saganoseki (Oita), Amami-Oshima, Keelung, Mako, Chinkai, Gensan and Ryojun (Port Arthur).

5. THE MILITARY LIMITATION

The general situation of the defence scheme the world over, after the Washington Conference, has induced the Army authorities to act up to what the signs of the times demand in the problem of armament limitation. The public opinion that had been chafing long under what it considered the exacting demands of the militarists in their appropriations now began to insist that the Army should follow the example set by the Navy and be subjected to thorough process of curtailment. The cry became universal and finally took concrete shape as a representation of the House of Representatives. It passed undivided in the 1921-22 session of the Diet, and was to the effect that the army budget should be cut down by at least ¥40 millions a year and that the term of service of conscripts be reduced from two years to 1 year 4 months. The representation was received with good grace by the Army, and as the result of readjustment effected between 1922 and 1924, 1,800 officers (spread over two years for administrative convenience), 56,000 rank and file and 13,000 horses were eliminated, this corresponding to a reduction of about five Divisions on peace strength. Other important items on the readjustment programmes were the curtailment by 40 days of the term of service in barracks and by 47 days in calls of reservists of foot-soldiers, 87 days in all; reduction of the barrack service from 3 months to 2 months for commissariats; the abolition of the independent garrisons, the elimination of the higher officers' complement in Chosen, etc. Thus at the end of 1924 the total number of the rank and file had been reduced to

about 236,000. The retrenchment amounted to ¥313 millions on ordinary account and ¥41 millions on extraordinary account, totalling ¥354 millions approximately.

**2nd Curtailment.**—The second reduction carried out in May 1925 consisted in the abolition of 4 Divisions (13th, 15th, 17th and 18th), this affecting 16 infantry regiments, 4 cavalry regiments, 4 field artillery regiments, 4 engineer battalions and 4 commissariat battalions, and 1 motor-car battalion. Approximately 37,000 officers, non-commissioned officers and private were eliminated. Besides, about 300 officers were relieved of their duties during the previous year as preparatory step to the Division reduction, and by the end of March 1926 more were discharged.

6. THE REORGANIZED ARMY SYSTEM

The new army system as enforced in the summer of 1925 was based on the principle of quality rather than quantity, the authorities adopting a new equipment programme to compensate for what was lost in the man-power. This new equipment includes the establishment of 10 air companies, 6 anti-air-craft corps with 24 anti-craft guns, and 2 regiments of tank corps with 40 tanks. Poison gas and other chemical methods are receiving similar attention.

Of the two new tank regiments, each with 20 tanks, one (1st tank corps) organized in 1927, is stationed at Kurume and the other (2nd) is attached to the Infantry School, Chiba prefecture. A regiment of the anti-aircraft corps organized in 1927, is stationed at Hamamatsu, other three regiments at Konodai, Otsu, and Saga. Two battalions are stationed at Rashin and Heijo, Chosen. Two additional air regiments, also organized in 1927, are stationed at Hamamatsu and Koshun (Taiwan). An army communications school and an army motor-car school were created in Tokyo. The Manchurian independent garrison and the high (maximum) complement of the Chosen army, which were to be discontinued in 1925 according to the previously determined programme, are to be maintained for the present in view of the situation obtaining in Manchuria and Chosen.

The proposal to reduce the period of active service of infantry men from 24 months to 18 months has caused the authorities to enforce a compulsory system of military training of the rising generation and especially boys in middle and higher schools. The education authorities introduced the particular item into the curriculum of those schools, commencing April 1925, training being given by army officers in active

service specially detailed by the Minister of War. Over 1,000 army officers were selected from among all army Divisions for this purposes and appointed instructors of military training in universities, colleges, other higher schools, middle schools, etc.

At the same time, the term of the active service for graduates of normal and other schools has been reduced. As the result thereof the former system of one-year volunteer service was discontinued after 1927.

7. ARMS DEPOTS AND MILITARY ARSENALS

The Arms Depot has its headquarters in Tokyo, and branches at Tokyo, Chiba, Nagoya, Osaka, Hiroshima and Kokura. They conduct the purchase, storing, maintenance, repairs, distribution, replacement, etc. of arms and ordnance, mounting of guns and similar work. The Military Arsenals exist at Kokura, Osaka, Nagoya and Koishikawa (Tokyo), each having a number of branch factories and powder magazines, with the headquarters at Kokura (Kyushu). They undertake the designing, planning and manufacture of arms, ordnance, munitions of war and powder required in the army, their repairs and inspection, and also undertake the manufacture of powder and arms for the Navy and the public at their request. Besides there are ordnance manufactories at Jujo (Tokyo), Tadaumi, Atsuta, Kokura and Heijo (Chosen).

8. ARMY ON PEACE STANDING

A Division is generally composed of 2 brigades of infantry, 1 regiment each of cavalry and artillery, 1 battalion each of engineers and army

service corps. A regiment of infantry consists of 3 battalions, each 600 men, while a regiment of cavalry is composed of 3 or 4 squadrons, each 100 sabres. A regiment of field artillery consists of 6 batteries, each of 4 guns, while a battalion of engineers consists of 3 companies, each of 150 men, and that of army service corps of 300 men. There are also independent corps, as shown in the table of army distribution given later.

Strength of the Standing Force

As the result of the army adjustment and reorganization effected twice, in 1922 and 1925, the strength of standing force has considerably decreased, it now consisting of 17 Divisions with approximately 230,000 officers and men as against 290,000 in 1900. Classified according to kinds, the figure is tabulated as follows:—

Table 6. Strength of Standing Force

Kind	No. of Regiments (or battalions)
Infantry	68 regiments
Cavalry	25 regiments
Field artillery	15 regiments
Mountain artillery	5 regiments
Mounted artillery	1 regiment
Field heavy artillery	8 regiments
Heavy artillery	3 regiments
Sappers (Engineers)	17 battalions
Railway corps	2 regiments
Telegraph corps	2 regiments
Air force	8 regiments
Balloon corps	1 regiment
Commissariat	15 regiments
Tank corps	2 regiments
Anti-aircraft artillery	6 regiments

The above force is divided and organized into 17 Divisions (34 brigades), as shown below:—

Table 7. Statistics of Divisions

(As in July, 1936)

Divisional Headquarters	Brigade, Regiment, Battalion, etc. of Various Corps and Headquarters	Garrison or corps
Imperial Guard Division (Tokyo)	Infantry... { Guard Brig. 1: Tokyo..... Guard Regs. 1 & 2..... Guard Brig. 2: Tokyo..... Guard Regs. 3 & 4.....	Tokyo
	Cavalry Brig. 1: Narashino..... { Guard Cavalry Reg. .... Regs. 13 & 14 .....	Narashino
	Field Heavy Art. Brig. 4: Tokyo..... { Guard F.A. Reg. .... Reg. 8 .....	Tokyo
	Guard Engineer Reg.; Guard Commissariat Reg.; Telegraph Reg. 1.....	Shimoshizu
	Railway Reg. { 1 .....	Tokyo
	{ 2 .....	Chiba
	Air. Reg. 5 .....	Nagashino
	Balloon Corps.....	Tachikawa
	Anti-aircraft Art. Reg. 2 .....	Chiba
		Konodai



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Divisional Headquarters	Brigade, Regiment, Battalion, etc. of Various Corps and Headquarters	Garrison or corps	
10th Division (Himeji)	Infantry... { Brig. 8: Himeji	{ Reg. 39 Reg. 40	Himeji Tottori
	{ Brig. 33; Okayama	{ Reg. 10 Reg. 63	Okayama Matsuye
	Cavalry Reg. 10; Field Art. Reg. 10		Himeji
	Eng. Reg. 10 Comt. Reg. 10		Okayama Himeji
11th Division (Zentsuji)	Infantry... { Brig. 10: Zentsuji	{ Reg. 12 Reg. 22	Zentsuji Matsuyama
	{ Brig. 22: Tokushima	{ Reg. 43 Reg. 44	Tokushima Kochi
	Cavalry Reg. 11; Mount. Art. Reg. 11; Eng. Reg. 11; Comt. Reg. 11		Zentsuji.
12th Division (Kurume)	Infantry... { Brig. 12; Fukuoka	{ Reg. 14 Reg. 24	Kokura Fukuoka
	{ Brig. 24: Kurume	{ Reg. 46 Reg. 48	Omura Kurume
	Field Heavy Art. Brig. 2; Kokura	Reg. 5 & 6	Kokura
	Field Art. Reg. 24; Independent Mountain Art. Reg. 3 Shimonoseki Heavy Art. Reg. Sasebo Heavy Art. Reg. Keichi Heavy Art. Reg. Air Reg. 4 Cavalry Reg. 12; Eng. Reg. 18; Comt. Reg. 18; Tank Regiment 1 Anti-aircraft Art. Reg. 4		Kurume Shimonoseki Sasebo Keichi Tachiarai Kurume Saga
14th Division (Utsunomiya)	Infantry... { Brig. 27; Utsunomiya	{ Reg. 2 Reg. 59	Mito Utsunomiya
	{ Brig. 28: Takasaki	{ Reg. 15 Reg. 50	Takasaki Matsumoto
	Cavalry Reg. 18; Field Art. Reg. 20; Comt. Reg. 14 Eng. Reg. 14		Utsunomiya Mito
16th Division (Kyoto)	Infantry... { Brig. 19; Kyoto	{ Reg. 9 Reg. 20	Kyoto Fukuchiyama
	{ Brig. 30; Tsu	{ Reg. 33 Reg. 38	Tsu Nara
	Cavalry Reg. 20; Field Art. Reg. 22; Eng. Reg. 16; Comt. Reg. 16 Air Reg. 3 Maizuru Heavy Art. Battalion Anti-aircraft Art. Reg. 3		Kyoto Yokkaichi Maizuru Otsu
19th Division (Kanan, Chosen)	Infantry... { Brig. 37: Kanko	{ Reg. 73 Reg. 74	Ranan Kanko
	{ Brig. 38: Ranan	{ Reg. 75 Reg. 76	Kainei Ranan
	Cavalry Reg. 27; Mount. Art. Reg. 25 Eng. Reg. 19 Anti-aircraft Art. Reg. 5 Air Reg. 9		Ranan Kainei Rashin Kainei
20th Division (Ryusan, ūhosen)	Infantry... { Brig. 39; Heijo	{ Reg. 77 Reg. 78	Heijo Ryusan
	{ Brig. 40: Ryusan	{ Reg. 79 Reg. 80, Bats. 1 & 2 Reg. 80, Bat. 3	Taikyu Taiden
	Cavalry Reg. 28; Field Art. Reg. 26; Eng. Reg. 20 Air Reg. 6 Masan Heavy Art. Regiment Anti-aircraft Art. Reg. 6		Ryusan Heijo Mssan Heijo

Note 1.—The standing armies stationed in Taiwan, Kwantung Province and Manchoukuo are excluded. Figures show number (No.) of brigades, regiments, etc.; locations of headquarters are given either after colon or dot.

2.—The 13th Division at Takata, the 15th Division at Toyohashi, the 17th Division at Okayama and the 18th Division at Kurume were abolished and disbanded in April, 1925.

SECTION II. THE NAVY

Prefactory Remarks

Absence of stimulus at first, and next the enforcement of a seclusion policy during the Tokugawa period, caused the maritime and naval

activities of Japan to remain comparatively insignificant. The only noteworthy instance of naval operations witnessed in early days were a sea fight at Dan-no-ura (Inland Sea) between the Genji and the Heike clans in the 12th cen-

NATIONAL DEFENCE

Divisional Headquarters	Brigade, Regiment, Battalion, etc. of Various Corps and Headquarters	Garrison or corps	
1st Division (Tokyo)	Infantry... { Brig. 1: Tokyo	{ Reg. 49 Reg. 1	Kofu Tokyo
	{ Brig. 2: Tokyo	{ Reg. 3 Reg. 57	Sakura Narashino
	Cavalry Brig. 2: Narashino	Reg. 15 & 16	Tokyo
	Field Heavy Art. Brig. 3: Konodai	Field Art. 1 Field Heavy Art. Regs. 1 & 7 Mounted Art. Reg. Tank Regiment 2	Konodai Narashino Yokosuka Tokyo
	Yokosuka Heavy Artillery Reg. Eng. Reg. 1; Commissariat Reg. 1		
2nd Division (Sendai)	Infantry... { Brig. 3: Sendai	{ Reg. 4 Reg. 29	Sendai Wakamatsu
	{ Brig. 15: Takata	{ Reg. 16, Bats. 1 & 2 Reg. 16, Bat. 3 Reg. 30	Shibata Muramatsu Takata
	Cavalry Reg. 2; Field Art. Reg. 2; Eng. Reg. 2; Comt. Reg. 2 Independent Mountain Art. Reg. 1		Sendai Takata
3rd Division (Nagoya)	Infantry... { Brig. 5: Nagoya	{ Reg. 6 Reg. 68	Nagoya Gifu
	{ Brig. 29: Shizuoka	{ Reg. 18 Reg. 34	Toyohashi Shizuoka
	Cavalry Brig. 4: Toyohashi	Reg. 3	Nagoya
	Field Heavy Art. Brig. 1: Mishima Comt. Reg. 3 Anti-aircraft Art. Reg. 1 Eng. Reg. 3 1st Air Corps... { Air Regs. 1 & 2 Air Reg. 7	{ Regs. 25 & 26 Field Art. Reg. 3 Field Heavy Art. Regs. 2 & 3	Toyohashi Nagoya Mishima Nagoya Hamamatsu Toyohashi Kagamigahara Hamamatsu
4th Division (Osaka)	Infantry... { Brig. 7: Osaka	{ Reg. 8 Reg. 70	Osaka Shinoyama
	{ Brig. 32: Wakayama	{ Reg. 37 Reg. 61	Osaka Wakayama
	Cavalry Regiment 4 Field Artillery Regiment 4 Commissariat Regiment 4 Miyama Heavy Artillery Engineer Reg. 4		Osaka Shinodayama Osaka Miyama Takatsuki
	5th Division (Hiroshima)	Infantry... { Brig. 9: Hiroshima	{ Reg. 11 Reg. 41
{ Brig. 21: Yamaguchi		{ Reg. 21 Reg. 42	Hamada Yamaguchi
Cavalry Reg. 5; Field Art. Reg. 5; Eng. Reg. 5; Comt. Reg. 5; Teleg. Reg. 2			Hiroshima
6th Division (Kumamoto)	Infantry... { Brig. 11: Kumamoto	{ Reg. 13 Reg. 47	Kumamoto Oita
	{ Brig. 36: Kagoshima	{ Reg. 23 Reg. 45	Miyakonojo Kagoshima
	Cavalry Reg. 6; Field Art. Reg. 6; Eng. Reg. 6; Comt. Reg. 6		Kumamoto
7th Division (Asahikawa)	Infantry... { Brig. 13: Asahikawa	{ Reg. 25 Reg. 26	Sapporo Asahikawa
	{ Brig. 14: Asahikawa	Reg. 27 & 28	Asahikawa
	Cavalry Reg. 7; Field Art. Reg. 7; Eng. Reg. 7; Comt. Reg. 7 Hakodate Heavy Art. Reg.		Hakodate
8th Division (Hirosaki)	Infantry... { Brig. 4: Hirosaki	{ Reg. 5 Reg. 31	Aomori Hirosaki
	{ Brig. 16: Akita	{ Reg. 17 Reg. 32	Akita Yamagata
	Field Art. Reg. 8; Comt. Reg. 8 Cavalry Brig. 3; Morioka Eng. Reg. 8	{ Reg. 8 Regs. 23 & 24	Hirosaki Morioka
9th Division (Kanazawa)	Infantry... { Brig. 6: Kanazawa	{ Reg. 7 Reg. 35	Kanazawa Toyama
	{ Brig. 18; Tsuruga	{ Reg. 19 Reg. 36	Tsuruga Sabaye
	Cavalry Reg. 9; Mount. Art. Reg. 9; Eng. Reg. 9; Comt. Reg. 9		Kanazawa



tury, and the encounters at the time of Hideyoshi between Japanese and Korean fleets off the Korean coast, when the former was rather hard pressed by a Korean Admiral. So far as bold maritime adventurers are concerned, the predatory visits of Japanese piratical junks to the coast of South China about the beginning of the 17th century may have been far more important in the maritime history of the country. It was about that time too that Japanese junks used to sail for commercial purposes to Korea, China, Java, the Philippines, Siam and India.

Because of the isolation policy pursued by the Tokugawa Shogunate, Japan possessed not a single warship fit for service when European and American ships visited her shores in the middle of the 19th century to persuade her to open the country to foreign trade. The sight of these huge foreign men-of-war strongly impressed the whole nation with the necessity of sea armament. The Shogunate and some of the more powerful feudal lords, such as the Lords of Satsuma and Tosa, purchased or ordered war vessels. At the time of the Restoration (1868) Japan possessed not more than 10 such warships, of which eight that belonged to the Shogunate were sunk or destroyed in the battle off the port of Hakodate. When in 1870 a War Department was created by the new Government, the puny "fleet" in existence was made subordinate to it, though two years later the two services were divided into the Army and Navy Departments, the latter having acquired in that short period 17 warships with an aggregate tonnage of 14,000 tons. This formed the nucleus of the Japanese Navy.

Gradually expanded in tonnage it had grown to 59,000 by the time of the Sino-Japanese War (1894-95) and to 260,000 on the occasion of the more formidable Russo-Japanese War (1904-05). The expansion subsequently made was so rapid that when the Washington Conference was held in 1921 the Imperial fleet comprised 15 battleships, 7 battle-cruisers, about 50 cruisers, coast-defence ships, and gun-boats, including other auxiliary ships, 130 torpedo-boat destroyers and torpedo-boats, and about 30 submarines, representing an aggregate tonnage of approximately 770,000 tons.

1. THE NAVAL PROGRAMME

At the time of the Washington Conference the Japanese Navy had on hand a programme for the construction of the first 8-8 unit fleet as approved at the 41st (1920) session of the Diet. The programme, scheduled to be complet-

ed in 1927, consisted of a main force of 8 battleships armed with 16-inch guns (Nagato and later ships), and 8 battle-cruisers (the Akagi and later ships), and auxiliaries of 26 cruisers, 94 destroyers, and 93 submarines. This scheme, however, had to be abandoned, in conformity with the Naval Treaty agreed upon at the Washington Conference, only the Mutsu and the Nagato on the list being retained. The construction of 6 other battleships and 8 battle-cruisers was either suspended or given up with the exception of battle-cruisers Akagi and Amagi, which were retained for conversion as aeroplane tenders. As the Conference did not come to any definite agreement in regard to cruisers and other auxiliary ships, excepting aeroplane carriers, the Japanese Navy decided to follow the prescribed programme in this respect, though with some reduction. The programme, to be completed by 1927 as originally scheduled, was completed in March, 1929 as follows:—

Kind of Ships	No. of Ships	Tonnage
Cruisers (Tenryu built in 1919, and later ships).....	25	150,000
Destroyers (Built in 1918 and later).....	81	89,600
Submarines .....	67	68,536

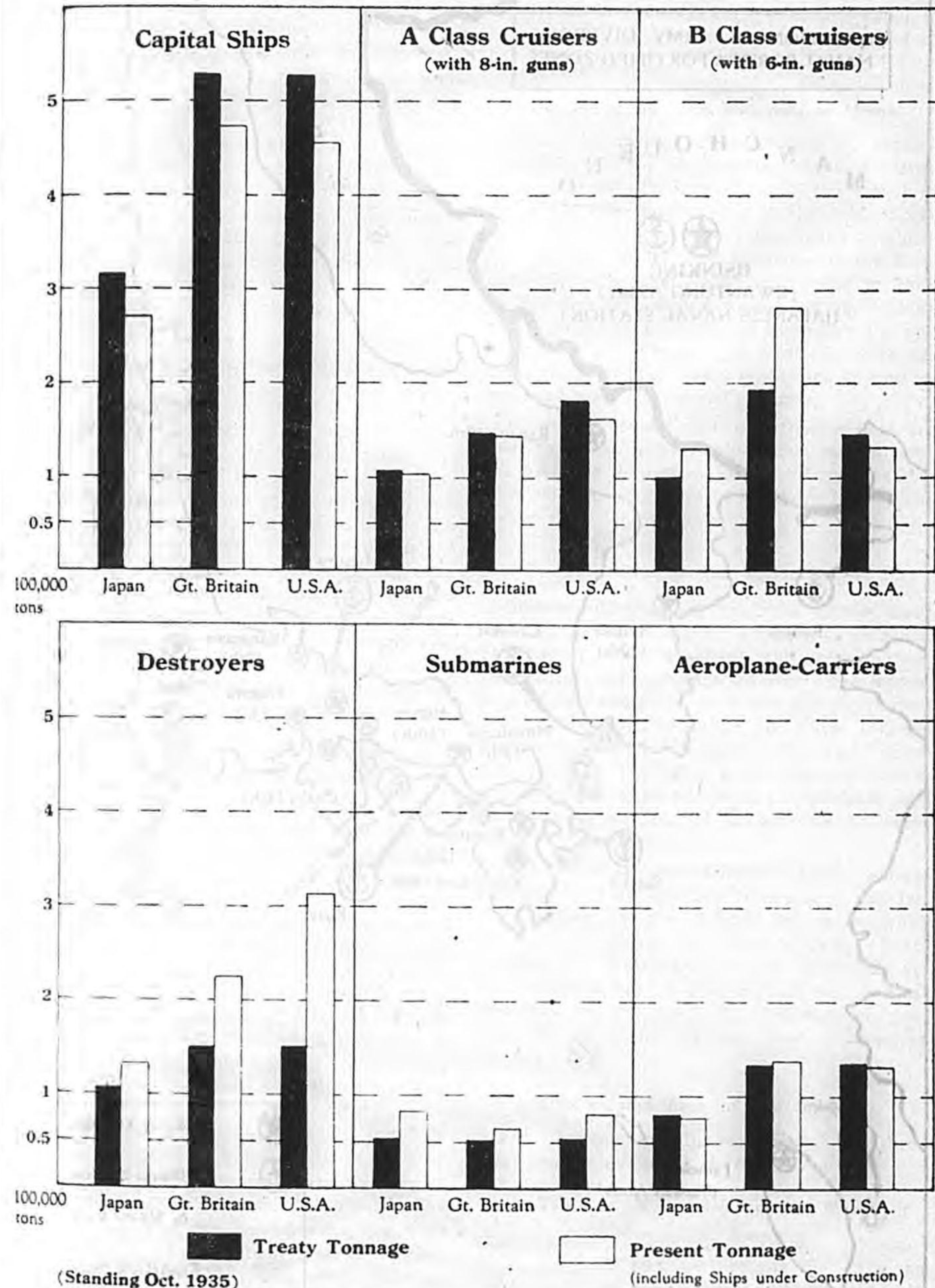
On the completion of the aforementioned programme the strength of the Japanese Navy stood as follows:—

Kind of Ships	No. of Ships	Tonnage
Capital ships .....	10	304,320
Battleships (Mutsu, Nagato, Hyuga, Ise, Yamashiro, Fuso).....	6	191,320
Battle-cruisers (Kongo, Hiei, Kirishima, Haruna).....	4	113,000
Auxiliary ships .....	173	315,236
Cruisers .....	25	157,700
Destroyers .....	81	89,000
Submarines .....	71	68,536

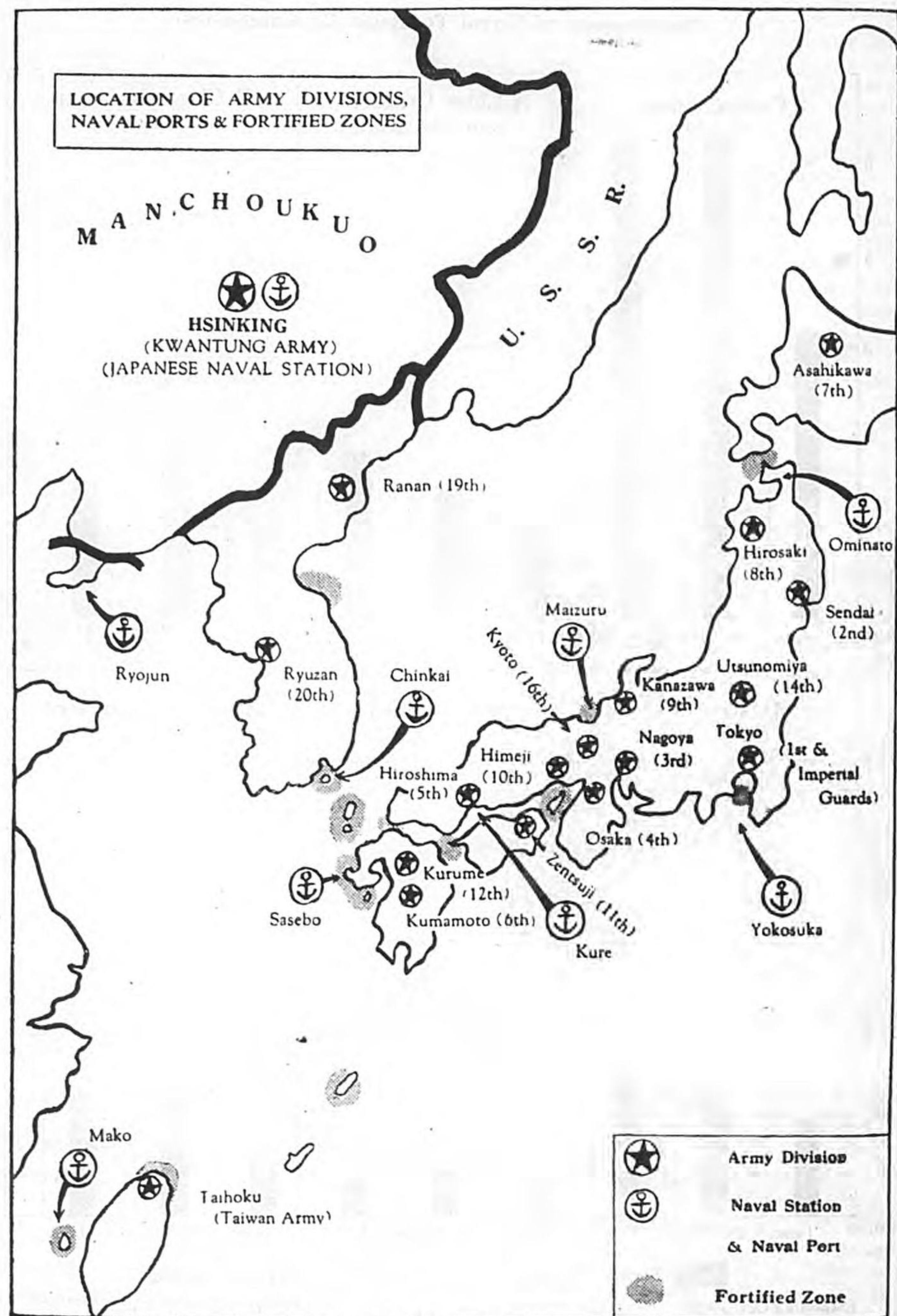
Besides the above there were at the time of the Washington Conference about 40 cruisers, coast defence ships, gunboats, etc., of older type representing a tonnage of 150,000, and about 100 destroyers and torpedo boats, also of older type, aggregating 27,000 tons.

The lesson taught by the World War has persuaded Japan to slightly modify, strictly within the limit of the Washington Conference, the original 8-8 programme, and to supersede the plan of building light cruisers of 5,500-ton class with that of building those of 7,000 tons, and moreover to construct four 10,000 ton high-speed cruisers equipped with 8-inch guns. This preference of larger vessels is also seen as regards destroyers and submarines, as Japan has to follow as far as possible the example set by other Naval powers.

Comparison of Naval Tonnage (By Categories)







Apart from the ten capital ships (298,400 tons), the existing strength of the Imperial fleet consists of 283 warships (of which 12 ships are unfinished as yet) with the aggregate tonnage of 1,129,963 tons, comprising 33 cruisers (198,055 tons), 4 aircraft carriers (68,870 tons), 4 submarine tender ships (21,015 tons), 5 mine layers (15,230 tons), 8 coast defence ships (62,530 tons), 13 gunboats (5,300 tons), 104 destroyers (120,295 tons), 64 submarines (71,379 tons), 12 mine sweepers (7,290 tons), 24 special commissionships (261,617 tons) and 2 torpedo boats. The above is the minimum strength of the auxiliary warships that Japan considers as absolutely necessary for ensuring her national defence.

## 2. NAVAL DISTRICTS AND BASES

The coast of Japan is divided into three naval districts, each having its base or naval stations, i.e. Yokosuka, Sasebo, and Kure. At each of these stations there is an Admiralty, with an arsenal, a marine corps, air force, and other provisions necessary for a naval base. Besides there are Strategic Ports or secondary naval stations at Maizuru, Ominato, Ryojun (Port Aruthur), Mako (Taiwan) and Chinkai (Chosen). The coast and adjacent seas of Kwantung province are termed the Kwantung naval district, and those of the South Sea mandatory isles the South Sea naval district, and are respectively under control of the Sasebo and Yokosuka Admiralties.

### Naval Asenals and Shipbuilding

Each Admiralty has an arsenal with a shipbuilding yard and possesses a dry dock for accommodating large warships. The Yokosuka and Kure Arsenals have each two cradles, capable of taking in superdreadnoughts of over 40,000 tons, but the Sasebo and Maizuru Arsenals have each only one cradle for building cruisers and lesser ships. Besides the above there are private establishments approved by the Navy. They are the Mitsubishi Shipyard at Nagasaki, Kawasaki Shipyard at Kobe, Fujinagata Shipyard at Kobe, Ishikawajima Shipyard at Tokyo and others. The first two have capacity of building superdreadnoughts.

The first warships built in Japan was the Seiki (870 tons) launched at Yokosuka in 1875. The cruiser Hashidate (4,228 tons) was the largest warship constructed at home till 1903. The progress attained in this respect since that time is demonstrated by the building of the battle-ships Kurama (14,600 tons) and Satsuma (19,300 tons) in 1909. The launching in Octo-

ber 1910 at Yokosuka of the Kawachi (20,800 tons), the first dreadnought ever attempted at home, marks another stage in the progress of naval architecture in Japan.

### Supply of Building Materials at Home

Japan is almost self-dependent as regards materials for war implements. Armour plates, rails, etc., are now turned out to the extent of about 190,000 tons a year at the Iron Works at Yawata (Kyushu), the plates being also produced at the Naval Yard belonging to the Kure Admiralty. A steel works established in 1908 at Muroran (Hokkaido), as a joint undertaking of the Hokkaido Colliery and Steamship Co. and Armstrong and Vickers (of England), with the countenance of the Navy, is devoted to casting guns and some commercial products.

In wood, Siamese teak and Oregon pine are used for deck, while foreign oaks, maples, etc., are used for decorative parts. "Keyaki" (*Obelicen serrata*), a species of "Zelkova" oaks, also serves the latter purpose.

## 3. PERSONNEL OF THE SERVICE

**Officers.**—Besides the executive officers there are in the civil branch engineers, surgeons, pharmacists, hydrographers and construction, mechanical and ordnance officers. The executive officers, engineers, surgeons and paymasters are trained respectively at the Naval College, Engineering College, Surgery School and Intendants School. The other non-combatant officers are appointed from among the candidates who should be graduates of universities or other schools of similar grade.

**Petty and Warrant Officers.**—Petty officers are appointed by selection from among the 1st-class seamen, and are of 1st to 3rd classes, while for warrant officers the last class petty officers are eligible. Warrant officers of meritorious active service of not less than 5 years may be commissioned and gradually promoted as special service officers to the rank of Lieut.-Commander or even higher.

### Officers and Men of the Service

The personnel of the service for the three years ending 1933 was as follows:—

Table 8. No. of Officers and Men

Year	Active service	Reserve (1st and 2nd)	Total
1931.....	85,552	53,203	138,755
1932.....	88,886	54,662	143,548
1933.....	89,626	—	—



Those on the active service list at the end of 1933 numbered as follows:—

**Table 9. No. of Officers and Men on Active Service**

Adm. to Rear-Adm. and ranking officers..	136
Captains to Lieut.-Commanders and ranking officers .....	2,272
Lieutenants to 2nd-class Sub-Lieutenants and ranking officers .....	2,502
Special service officers .....	1,450
Warrant officers .....	1,806
Midshipmen .....	348
Cadets at schools .....	620
Total .....	9,134
Do. for 1932.....	8,184
Do. for 1931.....	8,096

**Elimination of Officers.**—The elimination of officers in accordance with the Limitation of Armaments, begun in August 1922, was completed in March 1924. The total eliminated was as follows:—

**Table 10. Elimination of Officers in Connexion With Armament Limitation**

Full Admirals .....	8
Vice-Admirals .....	52
Rear-Admirals .....	99
Captains .....	290
Commanders .....	262
Lieut.-Commanders .....	171
Lieutenants .....	115
Sub-Lieutenants .....	43
Total .....	1,043

At the same time warrant and ranking officers were reduced by over 700 and petty officers and seamen by over 13,000.

#### Volunteers and Conscripts

In the Navy the volunteers service is supplemented by conscription. The age-limit for volunteers is fixed at over 15 and below 21 years, that for aerial service being 15 to 17. The annual enlistment of men makes the following record for the five years ending 1933:—

**Table 11. Annual Enlistment of Men**

Year	Conscripts	Volunteers
1930.....	7,525	4,937
1931.....	9,780	4,676
1932.....	—	4,668
1933.....	—	7,526
1934.....	—	7,042

#### Naval Officers' Promotion

Promotion by selection is the rule in the Japanese Navy. Candidates for special pro-

motion are selected at the conference of the Admirals' Council. The time-limit for promotion is reduced to one half in time of war. The regular course of promotion for junior officers is as follows:—Midshipmen, over one year's service in a training ship; 2nd Sub-Lts. over one year's service; 1st Sub-Lts. over 18 months of which six months in Torpedo or Gunnery School; Lts. of over 4 years in the service are promoted to Lieut.-Commanders.

Special service 1st Sub-Lts. over two years' service; Special service 2nd Sub-Lts. over (combatants, engineers and Intendants) may be promoted to Lieut.-Commander by special appointment.

**Commanders.**—Lieut.-Commanders of over two years' service are promoted to Commander.

**Captains.**—Commanders of over two years' service are promoted to Captain.

**Rear Admirals.**—Captains of over two years' service are promoted to Rear-Admiral.

**Vice-Admirals.**—Rear-Admirals of over three years' service are promoted to Vice-Admiral.

**Admirals.**—Vice-Admirals, who have seen much actual service or are of special merits are promoted by Imperial order.

**N.B.**—1st-class warrant or ranking officer of over 6 years in the service may be promoted to 1st Lieutenant or ranking officer.

**Table 12. Age-Limit of Officers in Active Service**

Fleet Admiral .....	No limit
Admiral .....	65
Non-Combatant Vice-Admiral .....	62
Vice-Admiral .....	60
Rear-Admiral & Non-Combatant	
Rear-Admiral .....	58
Non-Combatant Captain .....	54
Captain & Engineer Captain .....	52
Non-Combatant Commander .....	50
Commander & Engineer Commander... ..	48
Non-Combatant Lieut.-Commander....	47
Lieut.-Comdr. & Engineer Lieut.-Comdr.	45
Non-Combatant Lieutenant .....	44
Lieutenant and Engineer Lieutenant... ..	43
Sub-Lieut. (Non-Combatant, 1st & 2nd)	40
Sub-Lieut. & Eng. Sub-Lieut.	
(1st & 2nd) .....	38

#### 4. NAVAL EDUCATION

There are ten educational institutions, namely, the Naval Staff College, Naval College (or Cadets School), Engineering College, Torpedo School, Gunnery School, Intendants School, Surgery School, Artificers School, and Submarine School (all thoroughly recast after the World War), and Naval Communications School (created in 1930).

**Table 13. Latest Statistics of Naval Schools**  
(At end of Sept. 1934)

	Staff	Students	*Grades
Naval Staff College (Tokyo)	—	—	—
Naval College (Etsujima)...	—	461	141
Naval Engineering College (Maizuru) .....	160	1,011	1,000
Intendants School (Tokyo)...	74	88	50
Surgery School (Tokyo)...	17	71	87
Torpedo School (Yokosuka)	170	700	—
Submarine School (Kure)...	—	—	—
Artificers School (Yokosuka)	224	1,281	2,043
Communications School (Yokosuka) .....	105	435	596

\* End of March, 1933.

#### 5. THE IMPERIAL FLEETS

##### The Standing Fleets for 1934-35

**Table 14. Standing Fleets as Reorganized**

##### First Squadron:

1st Battle Squadron: Haruna (Flagship), Fuso, Yamashiro and Ise;  
3th Battle Squadron: Nagara (Flagship), Natori and Isuzu;  
1st Torpedo Battle Squadron: Abukuma (Flagship), 21st, 22nd and 29th destroyer flotillas;  
1st Submarine Squadron: Tendership Tama, 7th and 8th submarine flotillas;  
1st Air Battle Squadron: Hoshio (Flagship), Ryujo and 5th destroyer flotilla.

##### Second Squadron:

4th Battle Squadron: Takao (Flagship), Chokai, Maya and Atago;  
6th Battle Squadron: Furutaka (Flagship), Kinukasa and Aoba;  
2nd Torpedo Battle Squadron: Jintsu (Flag-

ship), 6th, 10th, 19th and 20th destroyer flotillas;

##### Third Squadron:

10th Battle Squadron: Kuma and Izumo;  
11th Battle Squadron: Tsushima, Ataka, Uji, Toba, Seta, Katada, Hira, Hozu, Atami, Futami, Urakaze, Kuri and Tsuga.  
5th Torpedo Battle Squadron: Tatsuta (Flagship), 16th and 28th destroyer flotillas.

##### Training Squadron:

Yakumo and Asama.  
Attached to the Combined Fleet are four special service ships (Mamiya, Naruto, Tsurumi and Notoro).

#### Classification of the Ships

Under the new classification the ships are subdivided into:—(1) battleships; (2) 1st-class cruisers (displacement over 7,000 tons); (3) 2nd-class cruisers (displacement under 7,000 tons); (4) air-craft carriers; (5) submarine tender ships; (6) mine-layers; (7) coast defence ships; (8) gunboats; (9) 1st-class destroyers (displacement over 1,000 tons); (10) 2nd-class destroyers (displacement 600-1,000 tons); (11) 1st-class submarines (displacement over 1,000 tons); (12) 2nd-class submarines (displacement 600-1,000 tons); (13) Torpedo boats; (14) Mine sweepers; (15) Special service ships etc.

As existing in June, 1935, the Imperial navy possessed 284 war vessels, large and small, with a total tonnage aggregating 1,129,914 tons. The detailed figures at the end of 1922, 1923, 1930, 1932, 1933 and 1935 are shown as follows:—

**Table 15. No. of War Vessels**

	Warships		Destroyers		Other craft	
	No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage
1922.....	69	795,582	107	85,361	2	1,420
1923.....	64	613,307	112	90,361	—	—
1930.....	74	642,295	107	115,295	92	334,154
1932.....	75	661,920	103	122,493	86	332,978
1933.....	76	672,070	102	122,869	83	330,411
1936 (Sept.).....	76	704,245	96	116,943	79	297,656

**Table 16. List of Warships (Sept. 1935)**

	Displacement (tons)	Length (meter)	When launched	Nominal speed (knots)	Torpedo tubes	Main armaments (centimeter)		High angle guns
Nagato .....	32,720	201.35	1919	23.0	6	40 (8); 14 (20)	12.7 cm. (8)	
Mutsu .....	32,720	201.35	1920	23.0	6	40 (8); 14 (20)	12.7 cm. (8)	
Fuso .....	29,330	192.02	1914	22.5	2	36 (12); 15 (16)	17.7 cm. (8)	
Yamashiro ..	29,330	192.02	1915	22.5	2	36 (12); 15 (16)	17.7 cm. (8)	
Ise .....	29,990	195.07	1916	23.0	4	36 (12); 14 (18)	12.7 cm. (8)	
Hyuga .....	29,990	195.07	1917	23.0	4	36 (12); 14 (18)	12.7 cm. (8)	
Kongo .....	29,330	199.21	1912	26.0	4	36 (8); 15 (16)	12.7 cm. (8)	
*Hiyei .....	19,500	199.19	1912	18.0	4	36 (6); 16 (16)	12.7 cm. (4)	
Haruna .....	29,330	199.21	1913	26.0	4	36 (8); 15 (16)	12.7 cm. (8)	
Kirishima ..	29,330	199.21	1913	26.0	4	36 (8); 15 (16)	12.7 cm. (8)	

\* Training battleship.



1st-Class Cruisers

	Displacement (tons)	Length (meter)	When launched	Nominal speed (knots)	Torpedo tubes	Main armaments (centimeter)	High angle guns
Myoko	10,000	192.07	1927	33.0	12	20(10)	12 cm.(6)
Nachi	10,000	192.07	1927	33.0	12	20(10)	12 cm.(6)
Ashigara	10,000	192.07	1928	33.0	12	20(10)	12 cm.(6)
Haguro	10,000	192.07	1928	33.0	12	20(10)	12 cm.(6)
Takao	9,850	198.00	1930	33.0	8	20(10)	12 cm.(4)
Atago	9,850	198.00	1930	33.0	8	20(10)	12 cm.(4)
Chokai	9,850	198.00	1931	33.0	8	20(10)	12 cm.(4)
Maya	9,850	198.00	1930	33.0	8	20(10)	12 cm.(4)
Kako	7,100	176.78	1925	33.0	12	20(6)	8 cm.(4)
Furutaka	7,100	176.78	1925	33.0	12	20(6)	8 cm.(4)
Kinukasa	7,100	176.78	1926	33.0	12	20(6)	12 cm.(4)
Aoba	7,100	176.78	1926	33.0	12	20(6)	12 cm.(4)

2nd-Class Cruisers

Hirado	4,400	134.11	1911	26.0	3	15 (8); 8(2)	8 cm.(2)
Yahagi	4,400	134.11	1911	26.0	3	15 (8); 8(2)	8 cm.(2)
Tatsuta	3,230	134.11	1918	31.0	6	14 (4)	8 cm.(1)
Tenryu	3,230	134.11	1918	31.0	6	14 (4)	8 cm.(1)
Kuma	5,100	152.40	1919	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Tama	5,100	152.40	1920	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Kitakami	5,100	152.40	1920	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
O-i	5,100	152.40	1920	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Kiso	5,100	152.40	1920	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Nagara	5,170	152.40	1921	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Isuzu	5,170	152.40	1921	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Natori	5,170	152.40	1922	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Yura	5,170	152.40	1922	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Kinu	5,170	152.40	1922	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Abukuma	5,170	152.40	1923	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Sendai	5,195	152.40	1923	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Jintsu	5,195	152.40	1923	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Naka	5,195	152.40	1925	33.0	8	14 (7)	8 cm.(2)
Yubari	2,890	132.59	1926	33.0	8	14 (6)	8 cm.(1)
Mogami	8,500	190.50	1934	33.0	4	14 (6)	8 cm.(1)
Mikuma	8,500	190.50	1934	33.0	12	15½(15)	12.7 cm.(8)
Suzuya	8,500	190.50	1934	33.0	12	15½(15)	12.7 cm.(8)
Kumano	8,500 (under construction)			33.0	12	15½(15)	12.7 cm.(8)
Tone	8,500 ( " )			33.0	12	15½(15)	12.7 cm.(8)

Coast Defence Ships

	Displacement (tons)	Length (meter)	When launched	Nominal speed (knots)	Torpedo tubes	Main armaments (centimeter)
Asama	9,240	124.36	1898	21.25	4	20(4); 15(12); 8(4); *8(1)
Yakumo	9,010	124.65	1899	16.00	2	20(4); 15(12); 8(4); *8(1)
Azuma	8,640	135.89	1899	16.00	4	20(4); 15(12); 8(4); *8(1)
Iwate	9,180	127.92	1900	16.00	4	20(4); 15(14); 8(1)
Izumo	9,180	121.92	1899	20.75	2	20(4); 15(14); 8(1)
Kasuga	7,080	104.88	1904	20.00	4	25(1); 15(14); 20(2); 8(4)
Tsushima	3,120	102.01	1904	20.00	—	15(6); 8(8); *8(1)

\* High angle guns.

Aircraft Carriers

	Displacement (tons)	When launched	Speed (knots)	Armaments (cm)	High angle (cm.)
Akagi	26,900	1925	28.5	20(10)	12 (12)
Kaga	26,900	1921	23.0	20(10)	12 (12)
Hosho	7,470	1921	25.0	14 (4)	8 (2)
Ryujo	7,100	1931	25.0	—	12.7(12)
Soryu	(Under construction)				

Submarine Tender Ships

	Dis't. (tons)	When launched	Speed (knots)	Armaments (cm.)	High angle (cm.)
Jungci	5,160	1923	16.0	14 (4)	8 (2)
Chogei	5,160	1924	16.0	14 (4)	8 (2)
Kanzaki	9,570	—	12.6	8 (1)	8 (1)
Komahashi	1,125	1914	13.9	8 (2)	8 (1)
Taigei	10,000	1934	20.0	—	12.7 (4)

Sea Plane Tender Ships

Notoro	14,050	1920	12.0	12 (2)	8 (2)
Kamui	17,000	1922	15.0	14 (2)	8 (2)
Chitose	(Under construction)				

Gunboats (11 in all)

Yodo	1,320	1908	22	8 (2)	—
Futami	170	1930	16	—	8 (1)
Atami	170	1929	16	—	8 (1)
Uji	540	1903	13	8 (4)	—
Ataka	725	1922	16	12 (2)	8 (2)
Toba	215	1911	15	—	8 (2)
Saga	685	1912	15	12 (1)	8 (3)
Hira	305	1923	16	—	8 (2)
Hozu	305	1923	16	—	8 (2)
Seta	305	1922	16	—	8 (2)
Katada	305	1923	16	—	8 (2)

1st-Class Destroyers

Name	Displacement (tons)	When launched	Name	Displacement (tons)	When launched
Urakaze	810	1915	Shirayuki	"	1928
Minakaze	1,215	1919	Hatsuyuki	"	"
Sawakaze	"	"	Murakumo	"	"
Okikaze	"	"	Shinonome	"	1927
Shimakaze	"	1920	Usugumo	"	"
Nadakaze	"	"	Shirakumo	"	"
Yakaze	"	"	Isonami	"	"
Hakaze	"	"	Uranami	"	"
Shiokaze	"	"	Ayanami	"	1929
Akikaze	"	"	Shikinami	"	"
Yukaze	"	1921	Amagiri	"	1930
Tachikaze	"	"	Asagiri	"	1929
Hokaze	"	"	Sagiri	"	"
Nokaze	"	"	Yugiri	"	1930
Namikaze	"	1922	Oboro	"	"
Numakaze	"	"	Akebono	"	"
Kamikaze	1,270	1922	Sazanami	"	1931
Asakaze	"	"	Ushio	"	1930
Harukaze	"	"	Akatsuki	"	1932
Matsukaze	"	1923	Hibiki	"	"
Hatakaze	"	1924	Ikazuchi	"	1932
Oikaze	"	"	Inazuma	"	1931
Hayate	"	1925	Nenohi	1,368	1932
Asanagi	"	1924	Hatsuharu	1,378	1934
Yunagi	"	"	Ariake	"	1934
Mutsuki	1,315	1925	Yugure	"	1934
Kisaragi	"	"	Hatsushimo	"	1933
Yayoi	"	"	Wakaba	"	1933
Uzuki	"	"	Shiratsuyu	"	—
Satsuki	"	"	Shigure	"	—
Minazuki	"	1926	Murasame	"	—
Fomizuki	"	"	Yudachi	"	(Under const.)
Nagatsuki	"	"	Harusame	"	"
Kikuzuki	"	"	Samidare	1,368	"
Mikazuki	"	"	Kaifu	"	"
Mochizuki	"	1927	Sanpu	"	"
Yuzuki	"	"	Kcfu	"	"
Fubuki	1,700	"	Ryofu	"	"



## 2nd-Class Destroyers

Name	Displacement (tons)	When launched	Name	Displacement (tons)	When launched
Momo	775	1916	Fuji	770	1920
Kashi	"	"	Tsuta	"	1921
Hinoki	755	"	Ashi	"	"
Yanagi	"	1917	Hishi	"	"
Kaya	"	"	Hachisu	"	"
Nire	"	"	Sumire	"	"
Kuri	"	1920	Yomogi	"	1922
Nashi	"	1919	Tade	"	"
Take	"	"	Wakatake	820	"
Kaki	"	"	Kuretake	"	"
Tsuga	"	1920	Sanaye	"	1923
Kiku	"	"	Asagao	"	1922
Aoi	"	"	Yugao	"	1923
Hagi	"	"	Fuyo	"	1922
Susuki	"	1921	Karukaya	"	1923

## Mine Layers (5 in all)

Name	Displacement (tons)	Length (meter)	When launched	Nominal Speed (knots)	Main armaments
Tokiwa	9,240	124.36	1899	21.25	{ 20 cm. (2); 15 cm. (8) 8 cm. (2); *8 cm. (1)
Katsuriki	1,540	73.15	1917	13.00	8 cm. (3)
Shirataka	1,345	79.20	1929	16.00	*12 cm. (3)
Itsukushima	1,970	100.00	1929	16.00	14 cm. (3); *8 cm. (2)
Yaeyama	1,135	85.50	1922	20.00	12 cm. (2);
Okinoshima	5,000	(in course of construction).			

\* High angle guns.

## Special Service Ships

Name	Displacement (tons)	Length (meter)	When launched	Nominal Speed (knots)	Main armaments
Shiretoko	14,050	138.68	1920	12	12 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Erimo	"	138.68	1920	12	12 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Sata	"	138.68	1920	12	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Tsurumi	"	138.68	1921	12	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Shiriyu	"	138.68	1921	12	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Iro	"	138.68	1922	12	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Ondo	"	138.68	1922	12	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Hayatomo	"	138.68	1922	12	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Naruto	"	138.68	1923	12	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Muroto	8,215	105.16	1918	12 1/2	12 cm. (2)
Nojima	"	105.16	1919	12	12 cm. (2)
Seito	7,542	73.69	1906	10	8 cm. (2)
Sunosaki	8,800	121.92	1918	14	12 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Mamiya	15,820	144.78	1923	14	14 cm. (2); *8 cm. (2)
Otomari	2,330	60.96	1921	13	8 cm. (1)
Koshu	2,080	76.96	1904	10.3	8 cm. (2)
Fuji	9,179	114.00	1897	18.25	—
Asahi	11,441	122.10	1899	18.20	—
Shikishima	14,275	121.92	1898	18.60	—
Settsu	16,130	152.40	1911	21.00	—
Tsurugizaki	12,000	—	1935	19.00	12.7 cm. (4)
Takasaka	"	(Under construction).			

\* High angle guns.

Besides these, the Imperial navy possesses 63 submarines of which 8 (No. "i" 4th class boats) are the largest destroyers (cruiser-destroyers) in the world; also 5 torpedo-boats and 17 mine sweepers.

## SECTION III. AVIATION

For air mail service vide Chapter on Communications, and for air transportation, also vide Chapter on Transportation.—Editor.

## 1. MILITARY AVIATION

Two Army officers who were trained in France and returned home in 1911 were the first airmen in Japan, followed by two others in 1912 and three in 1913. In 1919, an aviation section was created in the Army Department and the first army aviation school was opened at Tokorozawa (near Tokyo) in 1920 to give training to about 100 students including both commissioned and non-commissioned officers, besides admitting a few civilians. In 1922, two military aviation schools were newly established, one at Shimshizu (Chiba prefecture) and the other at Akeno (Miye prefecture). Since 1917 the Army has yearly bought powerful machines from Europe, at the same time making best efforts to produce them at home, at State and private factories.

Japan sent an aviation mission to the Italian front during the World War in August, 1918, it consisting of 22 officers (1 died there) and over 70 artisans. They returned home in August 1919. Equally noteworthy was the arrival in February, 1919, of some 60 French army aviators headed by Col. Faure, for giving training to Japanese army aviators, and also the participation with marked success of the army and navy aviators in the Tsingtao campaign of 1914.

In June 1925, the Army aviation corps were made independent and on equal footing with infantry, cavalry, field artillery, etc., and at the same time each air battalion was reorgan-

ed into an air regiment. Simultaneously with the independence of the air force two bombing regiments were newly added to the force.

In 1927 a section of Army flight officers received special training in bombing practice at the Akenogahara Aerodrome under a French expert.

**Expansion of Air Force.**—To strengthen the air force to suitable level, the Army authorities drew up in 1925 an expansion programme which was put into execution the following year, the object being to create 1 bombing battalion, 1 reconnoitring battalion and 1 fighting battalion, each consisting of 3 companies, as the first period expansion work. In principle, one air regiment is organized with 3 companies in ordinary time, each company being equipped with 12 machines for a fighting corps and 9 machines for reconnoitring. As provided for in the expansion programme, which was completed by the end of 1932, the 1st, 4th, 5th and 7th regiments were increased to 4 companies each, and 1 company added to the 8th regiment. The balloon corps has had 1 additional company.

**Organization of Air Regiments.**—The Army air force consists at present of 8 air regiments or 26 companies, i.e. 11 reconnoitring, 11 fighting and 4 bombing companies and 2 balloon corps, organized with 6,900 officers and men, equipped with 800 standing machines. The headquarters of these air regiments are located as follows:—

Table 17. Headquarters of Air Regiments

1st Regiment (4 air companies)	Kagamigahara, Gifu prefecture.
2nd Regiment (2 air companies)	Kagamigahara, Gifu prefecture.
3rd Regiment (3 air companies)	Yokkaichi, Shiga prefecture.
4th Regiment (4 air companies)	Tachiarai, Fukuoka prefecture.
5th Regiment (4 air companies)	Tachikawa, Tokyo.
6th Regiment (3 air companies)	Heijo (Pingyang), Chosen.
7th Regiment (3 air companies)	Hamamatsu, Shizuoka prefecture.
8th Regiment (2 air companies)	Heito, Taiwan.
9th Balloon Corps (2 companies)	Tsugamura, Chiba prefecture.

1st Regiment (4 air companies) and 2nd Regiment (2 air companies) at Kagamigahara, Gifu prefecture; 3rd Regiment (4 air companies) at Yokkaichi, Shiga prefecture; 4th Regiment (4 air companies) at Tachiarai, Fukuoka prefecture; 5th Regiment (4 air companies) at Tachikawa, Tokyo 6th Regiment (3 air companies) at Heijo (Pingyang), Chosen; 7th Regiment (4 air companies) at Hamamatsu, Shizuoka prefecture; 8th Regiment (2 air companies) at Heito, Taiwan; Balloon Corps (2 companies) at Tsugamura, Chiba prefecture.

**Air Defence Provisions.**—The defence plan as decided in 1929 provides for the completion

of the defence arrangements against air raids by 1931 in Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya and other important cities at the estimated cost of ¥5½ millions as a work spread over 3 years. The programme for Tokyo consists of the equipments of anti-aircraft guns, anti-aircraft machine guns, search lights and other necessary provisions. The scheme was completed in 1933 and further perfection is being contemplated.

**Home-made Motors for Army Planes.**—The Tokyo Gas & Electric Industrial Co. has succeeded after repeated experiments in turning out aeroplane motors (130 h.p.) made of home materials. The motors passed the official time



test for 50 hours run with a highly satisfactory record in the spring of 1928, and though rather simple in form of mechanism, they require less fuel than the French or German motors (Lorraine and B.M.W.) but are none the less efficient.

**Adoption of Home-made Planes.**—The French aeroplanes (Salmson 230 h.p.) which were formerly employed for reconnoitring purposes in the Army air service were in 1930 replaced by the home-made planes (semi-metallic B.M.W. 450 h.p.) manufactured at the Kawasaki and Ichikawajima aeroplane works. The home-made machines are reputed to develop a speed two times that of the French machines and are far superior to them in other respects.

## 2. NAVAL AVIATION

Naval aviation in Japan dates from 1912 when our officers trained in France and America returned home. It was not long before a training ground was established at Oppama near Yokosuka and an experimental course was started. From 1912 till 1917, the sum yearly disbursed on this account amounted to ¥3,400,000, to increase in 1918 to ¥1 million and to ¥2 millions in 1919, the total aggregating ¥5,800,000 in ten years. From 1921 to 1922 the British air experts headed by Captain Senville gave thorough training at Kasumigaura to our flight officers whose efficiency has in consequence made striking improvement. Thus the Japanese navy aviation is indebted for the marked progress it has attained to the tutoring of British flying officers just as the Army air service to that of French flying officers. An expansion programme completed by March 1923, brought the strength of the naval air force up to 10 fleets, 72 machines, 1 tender squadron and 1 zeppelin corps, these being distributed to Yokosuka, Kasumigaura and Sasebo. In April 1927, an aviation department was created in the Navy following the example set by the Army and in April 1928 a tender squadron was organized as a unit of the standing fleet, it consisting of the Akagi (flagship), Hoshō, and two destroyers.

**Second Expansion Work.**—In view of the trend of the times and the backward situation of the air service, the Navy authorities formed in 1929 a plan to create a few air fleets in the course of three years and to effect diverse improvements of the service, as, for instance, the creation of an air fleet depot at Tateyama outside Tokyo Bay and an aeronautical experiment institute at Yokosuka, etc. The completion of the expansion plan in 1931 has increased the strength of the navy air force to 16½ fleets

consisting of 132 machines, besides 4 tender ships, 10 balloons and 2 airships, these being apportioned as follows:—

Table 18. Air Strength of the Navy

Base	Strength
Kasumigaura .....	7 fleets (56 machines) 1 zeppelin corps (2 ships)
Yokosuka .....	2½ fleets (20 machines) 1 balloon corps (10 balloons)
Tateyama .....	3 fleets (24 machines)
Kure .....	½ fleet (4 machines)
Sasebo .....	1½ fleets (12 machines)
Omura .....	2 fleets (16 machines)

The unit of 1 fleet (which corresponds to 1 flying company of the Army air force) being 8 machines with several reserve machines, the aggregate strength of the Navy air service as it stands now is 646 machines including reserve machines, about 9,800 officers and privates.

By the Navy Department Ordinance issued in October 1933, air defence corps with air fleets have been established at Ominato and Ryojun (Port Arthur) secondary naval ports in November the same year, the similar provisions having been extended to the secondary naval ports at other places and also at Saeki in 1934.

**Further Expansion Programme.**—Further expansion programme decided on later comprises the creation of 14 additional air fleets as the 1st repletion scheme and that of 8 additional fleets as the 2nd repletion scheme, which added to the existing 17 fleets make a total of 39 fleets. Of the 1st repletion programme, the organization of 4 fleets was completed by the end of 1933. Those to be completed in the course of 1934 were 6 fleets to be attached to the newly established air corps at Ominato, Saeki and Tateyama.

The above is the existing status of the air force belonging to the respective naval stations. Besides, there is a certain number of sea-planes carried on board the tender ships Akagi, Kaga, Hoshō and Ryujo, the special service ships Notoro, Nagato, Mutsu and other battleships, battle-cruisers and light cruisers, each carrying a few machines.

The annual allotment for the upkeep of this standing force is on ordinary account ¥16 millions, and 70 per cent. replacement policy is to be pursued.

**Tender Ships.**—Prior to the Washington Conference the Japanese navy had only one tender ship, namely, the Hoshō (7,470 tons; 25 knots). Following the example of the U.S. Navy Japan has converted the battle-cruiser Akagi (26,900 tons) and the battleship Kaga

(also 26,900 tons) into tender ships. The former was completed in 1927 and commissioned in 1928, and the latter completed in 1928 and put to commission the same year. They are the pride of the Japanese navy. The Ryujo (7,600 tons) built at the Yokosuka navy yard (completed and commissioned in May 1933) is the latest addition to the list of tender ships of

the kind.

The Navy aviation department adopted in 1930 the system of youthful aviation, candidates to be selected from among lads of 15 to 17 years old and after going through necessary training to be appointed navy aviators ranking as petty officers. The training institute was opened at Yokosuka in May, 1930.

References: Tables 1 & 2—Okura-sho Nempo (Annual Report of the Finance Department), 1936, and the Official Gazette. Tables 3 & 4—Nippon Teikoku Tokai Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual), 1934. Table 5—Researches of Navy Office. Table 6—Researches of the War Office. Table 7—Kokumin Nenkan (Kokumin Year Book 1937.) published by the Kokumin Shimbun-sha. Tables 8 & 9—Nippon Teikoku Tokai Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual), 1935. Table 10—The War Office. Table 11—Nippon Teikoku Tokai Nenkan (Official Statistical Annual), 1935. Tables 12-16—Researches of the Navy Office. Table 17—The Official Gazette, Aug. 1, 1935. Table 18—Researches of the Navy Office.



## CHAPTER X RELIGION

### Introductory Remarks

In Japan there exists three religions, namely Shintoism, Buddhism, and Christianity, of which the latter two are of alien origin while the first named is a native religion. The State treats these three religions with equal tolerance and perfect fairness, strictly in conformity with the Constitution which guarantees absolute freedom of faith. The State therefore pursues the policy of secular education, though this seems to be less rigid lately, for the authorities, it seems, are now inclined to allow the teaching of religious doctrines in the classroom for the proper guidance of young peoples' thought. At any rate, in administrative control the same principle of indiscriminate fairness is acted upon and no difference is observed in the treatment of the three religions.

**Shintoism.**—Shinto (Way of Gods), the indigenous cult of Japan that has existed from time immemorial, is essentially a system of nature-worship and ancestor-worship, with especial application to the rites and ceremonies performed to do homage to the Imperial ancestors among whom stands foremost the Sun-Goddess, the Great Ancestress of the Imperial House, and also to the spirits of warriors of worthy deeds and loyal subjects of renowned service.

**Buddhism.**—The first image of Buddha and the sacred texts were presented to the Imperial Japanese Court by a Korean King in 552 A.D. in the reign of Kinmei Tennō, and in the reign of the Empress Suiko (593—628 A.D.) Buddhism was elevated to the status of the state religion through the zealous efforts of the Prince Imperial Shōtoku who was a devout convert. What contributed far more to the spread of the Buddhist doctrines was the ingenious adaptation by the great Buddhist reformers Saichō and Kūkai of the transmigration theory of Hinduism to the Shinto tradition. The Shintoist prejudice overcome by this clever conception, the two rival faiths were brought into a state of alliance, and for more than one thousand years till soon after restoration of the Imperial regime, a hybrid form of religion, partaking of both Shintoism and Buddhism, known as Ryōbu-Shinto, was much in evidence throughout the land.

**Christianity.**—This dates with the landing of St. Francis Xavier in 1549 at Kagoshima, and till 1637 when the Shimabara rebellion was sup-

pressed, Christianity had gained a great influence among military commanders in Kyūshū. For more than two centuries thenceforward Christianity was forbidden under penalty of severe punishment till the country was thrown open to foreign intercourse about the middle of the 19th century.

As regards the part which the three religions played in the history of civilization and intellectual development of Japan, Buddhism stands foremost. The rise of Buddhism in Japan is so closely interwoven with the history of her civilization that it is almost impossible to treat the two separately.

The number of the followers of the three religions in Japan Proper for the six years ending 1933 is as follows:—

Table 1. Number of Followers of Three Religions

	Shintoism	Buddhism	Christianity
1928.....	17,253,000	41,176,000	248,000
1929.....	17,485,000	41,334,000	254,000
1930.....	16,526,000	41,082,000	273,000
1931.....	16,772,000	41,803,000	279,000
1932.....	16,960,000	41,374,000	287,299
1933.....	17,193,194	41,393,315	304,602

### SHINTOISM

The ancestor-worship as practised by Shintoist devotees is confined to praying for the welfare of the Emperor, as they implicitly believe that the welfare of the Emperor is entirely identical with theirs. The idea comes from the orthodox tradition that as the Japanese nation is one huge family of homogeneous origin, the praying for its patriarchal chief the Emperor covers the whole people. Hence Shintoism is also called by some Mikadoism.

**Cleanliness and Purity.**—Purity and purification underlie all Shinto services, and hence with true Shinto believers cleanliness in body and heart is a cardinal article of faith. The "Harai" or wind-purification and the other "Misogi" or water-purification are the principal forms of purification ceremonies. Washing of the hands and, if possible, rinsing of the mouth, is thought necessary when one approaches a Shinto shrine for worship. Some zealots even carry this washing practice to the extent of bodily ablution. Death and blood are considered especially contaminating, hence Shinto priests formerly kept

aloof from burial services. In the town of Yamada, the seat of the Grand Shrine of Ise, dead bodies had to be carried stealthily under the cover of darkness.

The same idea of cleanliness also symbolises "Shimenawa," a straw festoon hung in front of Shinto edifices and similar places of worship for averting, according to popular superstition, pestilence. Another common symbol is "Gohei," a rod supporting a tuft of cut paper or other things. The Shinto emblems jealously preserved in the sanctum are a mirror, a sword and curved jewels, after the Sacred Treasures of the Imperial Court. The Shinto votives consist of the soil and the sea, an evergreen, saké and sometimes woven cloth.

Shintoism is treated by religious writers as a cult distinct from Buddhism or Christianity, for the only thing worth mentioning in Shinto theology is that it believes in immortality of soul. However, during the period of its subordination to Buddhism for about one thousand years, Shintoism acquired religious guise, the existence of a number of sects, for instance, being traceable to this fact.

**Two Forms of Shintoism.**—There are two forms of Shintoism, i.e. Shintoism standing aloof from all sects, and next, sectarian Shintoism organized for the convenience of propagation.

The non-sectarian Shinto now forms an essential part of the general system of statecraft, and on all important occasions calling for august rites and ceremonies the service of Shinto priests is requisitioned. Of late Shintoism has grown quite liberal in its practices and it has become customary of late for Shinto priests to officiate in funeral services and also at marriage ceremonies.

### SHINTO SHRINES AND THEIR "KEEPERS"

**Classification of Shrines.**—Shinto shrines are classified into seven grades, viz., the Jingu or the Great Shrine of Ise, "Kampei" or State shrines, "Kokuhei" or National shrines, and "Fu" (prefectural), "Ken" (prefectural), "Go" (communal), "Son" (village) and "Mukaku" (nonrecognized) shrines. The "Kampei" and "Kokuhei" shrines form part of the regular mechanism of State, being maintained at the expense of the Treasury, but shrines of other ranks are under the care of local communities and

parishioners. The offerings made on the occasion of regular festivals come from the Imperial Court in regard to the "Kampei", and from the Treasury for the "Kokuhei." The "Kampei" shrines are subdivided into four classes, and the "Kokuhei" three classes. Of the 54 first class "Kampei" shrines the greater number are dedicated to the major deities of the age of gods and the rest to Emperors who generally figure on the pages of authentic history, while all the special "Kampei" shrines are dedicated to loyal subjects. There is no particular distinction between the Kampei and the other grade shrines as to the deities selected for worship.

**Keepers and Priests.**—The Government use the term "Shinkan" or Shinto officers for these who minister at the Great Shrine and "Shinshoku" or Shinto functionaries for others attending the "Kokuhei" and the lesser shrines. The "Shinkan" are under the Civil Service Regulations, and they and the "Shinshoku" of the "Kokuhei" shrines are appointed by the Government, but for shrines of lower rank the parishioners mark the choice, subject to the approval of the supervising authorities.

It will be seen that those on service at non-sectarian Shinto shrines are quite different in their function from those at sectarian shrines and are more properly ritualists whose business is to see to all matters relative to rites and festivals as the upkeep of their shrines. They keep proudly aloof from preaching and the work of propagation which demand no small attention from the sectarian Shinto priests.

### Shinto Sects

There are thirteen officially recognized sects. They all profess as a cardinal article of faith reverence to deities and observe precepts handed down by the "divine ancestors." The established Shinto sects are: Taisha (revived by Sompuku Senge, 1845—1918); Taisei (founded by Shosai Hiroyama, 1815—90), Jikko (by Hanamori Shibata 1809—90); Kurozumi (by Munetada Kurozumi 1780—1850); Shinseiha (by Kunimatsu Nitta, 1829—1920); Mitake Misogi (by Masakane Inoue, 1790—1849); Konko (by Daijin Konko, 1814—1883); Tenri (by Mrs. Miki Nakayama, 1798—1887).

Table 2. No. of Shinto Shrines and Priests  
(a) Shrines

	Great Shrine	State Shrines	National Shrines	Prefectural Shrines	Communal Shrines	Village Shrines	Ungraded Shrines	Total
1930.....	1	113	85	951	3,557	44,875	62,157	111,739
1931.....	1	113	85	977	3,580	44,875	61,712	111,343
1932.....	1	113	85	998	3,596	44,860	61,500	111,153
1933.....	1	113	85	1,016	3,607	44,864	61,351	111,037



## (b) Priests

	Great Shrine	State Shrines	National Shrines	Prefec-tural Shrines	Communal Shrines	Village Shrines	Ungraded Shrines	Total
1930.....	73	507	297	1,032	3,323	8,621	946	15,069
1931.....	68	514	301	1,337	3,391	8,680	908	15,199
1932.....	68	517	304	1,382	3,436	8,711	957	15,375
1933.....	68	528	312	1,459	3,499	8,777	943	15,586

## BUDDHISM

**Buddhism and Civilization.**—The debt Japan owes to Buddhism, especially in early days, in the development of her civilization must be said to be incalculable. The study of the masterly specimens of sculpture, painting and architecture, as preserved in Nara and Kyoto, the treasures kept in the Horyu-ji Temple, itself a splendid Buddhist structure, classical works of ancient writers, and so forth make one doubt whether without the help of Buddhism, accompanied as it was by the introduction of the material civilization prevailing in India, China and Korea, which were more advanced than Japan in those days, it would have been possible for Japan to attain such a high stage of refinement as she presented when she opened her doors to foreign intercourse. Further, Buddhism which was a foster mother and guardian of learning when the country was torn by civil strife in the Kamakura and Ashikaga periods, supplied an inspiring factor in moulding the samurais' code of honour universally known as Bushido and has also deeply tinged our art and literature. The high priests of ancient days guided the people and furnished them with models in matters of social welfare, taught them how to build roads and bridges, and introduced useful plants from China and Korea. Driven by their fervent desire to study the doctrine they dared even to face the perils of the sea by going over to China in frail craft.

**Buddhism and the Imperial Court.**—During the period of its ascendancy Buddhism stood in high favour with the Court, reducing Shintoism and Confucianism to comparatively insignificant positions. Such close relations bound it with the Court prior to the Meiji Restoration (1868), that the Princes of the Blood were customarily installed as head priests of noted monasteries. At the Restoration, the Prince-abbot (afterward Prince Komatsu) of the Ninna-ji Temple, Kyoto, was ordered to return to secular life, and as Prince Komatsu, led an Imperial army sent to subjugate the rebellious followers of the fallen Shogunate. The late Prince Kita-Shirakawa (d. 1895) was also a Prince-abbot of the Kan-eiji Temple, Tokyo. It was in consideration of the past relation that the Court conferred titles of nobility on the chief abbots of the three head-

quarters of the Shinshu sect, when the peerage was instituted in 1884.

## Buddhist Sects

The earliest Buddhist sects in Japan were all introduced from China during the Nara period, and these are Sanron, Hosso, Jojitsu, Kusha, Ritsu and Kegon. Of these, only Hosso, Kegon and Ritsu have survived, though more as a relic of historical interest than religious sects of living force. As classical models of our ancient Buddhist architecture introduced from China and Korea, existing temples of these time-honoured sects possess inestimable value, these being, as head-temples of the Hosso sect, the celebrated Horyu-ji near Nara, the Kofuku-ji and Yakushi-ji near Nara, the Todai-ji in Nara for Kegon, and the Toshodai-ji in Nara for Ritsu. The rise of Tendai and Shingon which tried to reconcile the Buddhist doctrine with the Shintoist prejudice marks the development of Buddhism as a popular religion.

For about four hundred years till the rise of military regency in Kamakura, the two sects swayed not only matters of religious belief but even secular affairs. Their headquarters, one on Mt. Hiei near Kyoto and the other on Mt. Koya in Kii, grew so powerful that they even defied the command of the central Government. Corruption and degeneration soon followed and the two sects were reduced to a state of impotence and ineptitude. It was not long before the need for new faith was supplied by the rise of the Zen sect as introduced from China by Yeisai (1140—1215) and Dogen (1199—1253), and especially by the establishment of the Yuzu-Nenbutsu sect by Ryonin in 1117, the Jodo by Honen in 1174, the Shin by Shinran (1173—1262), the Nichiren or Hokke by Nichiren (1222—1281), and the Ji by Ippen (1239—1289). Of the above, the Zen sect stands apart as a doctrine that originated in China. It demands of its followers a certain form of bodily and mental discipline as a means of attaining enlightenment and found many zealous believers in those troubled days among warriors who were weary of a life of bloodshed and worldliness, and hence incidentally contributed to the development of Japanese knighthood commonly called "Bushido." The Zen has three sub-sects, viz., Rinzaï, Sodo

and Obaku, the last of which was introduced by a naturalized Chinese priest Yingen in 1653. The popularizing movement of the abstruse Buddhist tenets started by Saicho and Kukai was carried still further by Honen and his more famous disciple Shinran and by the fiery Nichiren. The latter two so modified the teaching of Sakyamuni to adapt it to Japanese needs that there is hardly any similarity between them and Continental Buddhism. Shinran was really a radical reformer and an arch iconoclast. He discarded all ascetic practices such as celibacy and meat-eating, and also the worship of the Buddhist images, with the exception of his own as an interpreter of Buddhist truths for all his faithful followers, and finally he denounced the current superstitions about days, directions, and so forth. The four sects, Zen, Jodo, Shin, and Nichiren, practically divided the Buddhist world of Japan for about four centuries till about the time of the downfall of the Tokugawa shogunate regime and the restoration of the Imperial Government in 1868, the two other sects being of local importance. The long period of undisputed supremacy which Buddhism exercised over the spiritual and intellectual world sapped its sound growth, while the policy which

the Tokugawa shogunate adopted of encouraging the Confucian cult as a moral guide for the samurai class robbed it of healthy stimulus. Degeneration and decay followed, and when, with the advent of the Imperial restoration, Japan began to introduce with feverish hurry the civilization of the West, Buddhist priests found themselves left behind in the forced march of the times. They lost touch with the general tendency of the new era with its novel requirements and strange culture. It was only when Japan, after some decades of this hurried transformation, called a halt at the biddance of nationalistic reaction, that Buddhism, already roused from its long torpor and now busy to regain self-consciousness, could recover its lost position to some extent. The Zen, Nichiren and Shin sects are most notable in this respect, and they can count among their followers both clergymen and laymen, some of the ablest thinkers of the day.

## Buddhist Temples and Priests

The number of Buddhist temples and priests, classified by sects, throughout the country in recent years, based on the report of the Religion Bureau, is as follows:—

Table 3. No. of Temples and Priests

	(a) Temples						(b) Priests					
	Tendai	Shingon	Jodo	Rinzai	Sodo	Obaku	Tendai	Shingon	Jodo	Rinzai	Sodo	Obaku
1929...	4,504	12,096	8,313	5,977	14,227	523	2,830	7,694	6,541	4,602	11,709	343
1930...	4,494	12,075	8,307	5,976	14,226	522	2,847	7,766	6,523	4,611	12,185	354
1931...	4,508	12,089	8,316	5,976	14,225	523	2,900	7,875	6,472	4,578	12,249	361
1932...	4,504	12,095	8,314	5,977	14,229	523	2,854	7,915	6,534	4,617	12,208	370
1933...	4,425	11,922	8,254	5,979	14,208	500	2,892	7,933	6,588	4,518	12,235	365

	(a) Temples						Total incl. others
	Shin	Nichiren	Ji	Yuzu	Hosso	Kegon	
1929...	19,710	5,028	491	357	41	27	71,392
1930...	19,717	5,028	491	357	41	27	71,310
1931...	19,715	5,026	491	357	41	27	71,343
1932...	19,716	5,028	491	357	41	27	7,3571
1933...	19,809	4,970	494	357	41	27	71,032

## CHRISTIANITY

**Early Christianity.**—As previously indicated, Christianity, having been introduced into Japan by Francis Xavier in 1549, had made rapid progress, and in less than a century, by 1637, when it was suppressed, it had spread with very great rapidity, first throughout Kyushu, among the feudal barons and their retainers, and then in many parts of the main island, especially among the higher circles. It is thought that there were then as many as 300,000 Christian converts, with perhaps 250 organized Churches, all of them, of course, Roman Catholic. This work was led by the Jesuits, many of them Portuguese, and it was perhaps owing to their excess of zeal, as

well as the jealousy of the Dutch traders in Nagasaki, and the widely spread reports that these fathers were too much meddling with political affairs that invited the suppression. At any rate the foreign padres were expelled, and in 1613 an edict was issued, prohibiting any form of Christian worship on pain of death. There are many tales of the heroic martyrs of those days, and the blood of these martyrs proved again to be the seed of the Church, blossoming again after a repression of two and more centuries. The open rebellion at Shimabara in 1637 which was partly religious in nature was the final act leading to the absolute prohibition of the foreign religion. And for long years thereafter the cross-roads of the Empire were marked with the



edict boards which threatened with death any who should introduce the Christian religion again.

**New Beginnings.**—It was inevitable that, when Japan was forced to emerge from her long isolation and enter the fellowship of nations, the Christian gospel should again be introduced. The year after the first treaty between Japan and America was ratified the first missionaries came. This was in 1859, and seven representatives of both Protestant and Catholic Societies reached Japan before the end of that year. Some came from China where they had already served as missionaries, and some directly from America. The first Protestant missionaries were from the American Episcopal and Dutch Reformed Boards. Centers of work were opened in Yokohama and Nagasaki. At first any Japanese who associated with these foreigners was under suspicion. The missionaries engaged in teaching English or in studying the Japanese language; some were physicians and introduced Western science of medicine. Williams in Nagasaki, Verbeck in Nagasaki and Tokyo, Brown and Hepburn in Yokohama were some of the pioneers who helped to reintroduce the forbidden faith into the newly opened Empire.

**Protestant Work.**—The edict boards against Christianity were not taken down until 1872. Previous to that year Christian activities were necessarily restricted and quiet. The two main forms of missionary work were the so-called evangelistic and educational. Schools were early established, at first on a very small scale, but gradually these have developed into large and influential institutions. Among these may be mentioned the Doshisha in Kyoto, an institution of university grade, co-educational, established by Jo Neesima and J.D. Davis of the American Board (Congregational), in 1875, and now taking a leading part in educational work in Central Japan. The Aoyama Gakuin (Tokyo), Rikkyo Dai Gaku (Tokyo), Meiji Gakuin (Tokyo), Tohoku Gakuin (Sendai), Kwansai Gakuin (Kobe), Kwanto Gakuin (Yokohama), all having College or University departments, and a considerable number of other schools of Higher Grade, are part of the large Christian educational system that has grown up through these years. The Christian schools for girls, including the Women's Christian College (Tokyo Joshi Daigaku) in Tokyo, and the Kobe Girls College (Kobe Jogaku-in) in Kobe, and excellent schools in all the larger cities of the Empire, early took a lead in the education of women, and are steadily growing in number and strength. Christian kindergartens also have multiplied very largely.

In the establishing of Christian Churches throughout the Empire, in the earlier days, when all foreigners had to live in certain concessions, there was wide travelling, but not much living in the interior for direct evangelistic work. However, it was during this period that Christianity gave promise of great triumphs, and many people were optimistic as to the early sweep of the country. Soon afterwards there came a reaction. This was partly due to the general change of attitude toward foreign influence after Japan's victorious wars in the Orient and partly to the anti-foreign sentiment caused by the unfair treaties, a suspicion of the cosmopolitan Christianity, a fear in many circles that Christianity was not as intensely loyal to all Japan's national fundamentals as the other faiths. Several of these causes combined to effect a setback in the progress of Christianity about the beginning of the present century. Since that time, however, there has been a slow and steady growth. It is probably true, as has often been stated, that the real Christian population far exceeds the number that the statistics would indicate, and the practical influence of Christianity runs far wider still.

One of the outstanding features of Protestantism to-day is the development of self-government Churches. In the larger bodies the control is in the hands of Japanese leaders, or in the hands of those most capable of leadership, irrespective of nationality. In the Japan Methodist Church there have been Japanese bishops, with exclusive episcopal powers since 1907. In the Episcopal Churches two of the bishops are Japanese, the first having been consecrated eight years ago. Several of the smaller churches are still largely controlled from abroad as Mission Churches, but this is becoming the exception, and the great mass of the Christian bodies of Japan may now be called autonomous, and many of them are in every way self-supporting. There is a body known as The Japan Christian Council, with representatives from most of the Churches and Missions, and this body furnishes the basis upon which many of the Churches and Missions co-operate in various ways. A delegation from this body, comprising four Japanese and three missionary leaders, represented Japanese Christianity at the World Conference in Jerusalem in 1928. Dr. John R. Mot's visit to Japan in 1929 was chiefly in connection with the activities of this Council. The president is Dr. Chiba and the headquarters are at 13, Nishiki-cho 1-chome, Kanda-ku, Tokyo. The Federation of Mission and Christian Council co-operate in conducting the Christian Literature Society (Kyo Bun Kwan) which was reorganized in March

1933 as kabushiki kaisha (joint-stock company) with Hampei Nagao (d. 1936) as Chairman of Board and Dr. S. H. Wabright as Manager. There is a hearty spirit of co-operation among the various churches. Rural evangelism is attracting the attention of many of the leaders at this time. Social evangelism under such leaders as Toyohiko Kagawa has also had marked success in many places.

Medical Missions have never had a very prominent place in Japan, but the St. Luke's Hospital in Tokyo, international in name, but owned and controlled by the American Episcopal Mission, completed a few years ago a successful campaign in America and Japan for raising funds for the reconstruction of its buildings on a large scale, and an exceedingly fine plant was completed in 1933 on the premises of the former structure. There are other hospitals and crèches under special Christian direction in other parts of the Empire.

**Roman Catholic Work.**—After a lapse of two hundred years a Roman Catholic priest again entered the borders of Japan in the person of Fr. Forcade, of the Society of the Foreign Missions of Paris, who was permitted to enter Naha, the Capital of the Luchu Islands, in 1844. Two years later he was appointed Vicar Apostolic of Japan, but no Catholic priest was permitted to enter Japan Proper until 1859, in which year, shortly after the arrival of several Protestant missionaries, several Roman Catholic priests arrived in Nagasaki, Yokohama and Hakodate. The first Church was opened at Yokohama in 1862, and three years later another was opened at Nagasaki. It was on this occasion that a remarkable event in Christian history occurred. About a month after the opening of this Church, some 3,700 villagers living near Nagasaki, who had been secretly professing the Roman Catholic faith as handed down in their families during the past generations, came to the Church and openly declared themselves Christians, much to the surprise of the local officials. For this had been the center of the former persecutions, and the edict boards against Christianity were yet standing, and were not to be taken down yet for some years. This group of zealous Christians really formed the nucleus of the future Roman Catholic Church in Japan.

The work has extended to many parts of the Empire. Most of the missionaries who have come are from France, though there are some also from Germany and other European countries and from America. There is an arch-bishop in Tokyo and there are bishops in Fukuoka and Nagasaki. In 1927, the first Japanese bishop was

consecrated in the person of the Rev. Januarius Hayasaka, Bishop of Nagasaki. Bishop Hayasaka journeyed to Rome on the invitation of Pope Pius XI, and was personally consecrated to the episcopacy by Pope Pius in the Basilica of St. Peter's, Rome. The Apostolic Delegate resides in Tokyo. Although the priesthood is preponderantly foreign in its personnel, the number of Japanese priests is growing. There are about 250 foreign missionaries, and 300 religious men and 700 religious women from abroad, or from Europe and America. Seven different orders of religious men and eleven orders of Sisters are represented in Japan, and are carrying on work of spiritual service, education and benevolence. There are also three distinctly Japanese sisterhoods, Bernadotte Kai in Hakodate, Seishin Aishi Kai in Akita, and Homon Aiku Kai in Omori, Tokyo. There are Leper Asylums, Day Nurseries and Dispensaries of much the same order as those conducted under Protestant Churches. Hospitals and orphanages too are part of the work of the Roman Catholic Missions.

In educational work the Sisters of St. Maur have taken the lead in schools for girls, the first having been opened in Tokyo in 1873, but other organizations, the Sisters of the Infant Jesus, Sisters of St. Paul of Charters, the Sisters of the Sacred Heart, and other similar Sisterhoods have opened schools for girls in many parts of the Empire. The education of boys was begun at a later date than that for girls, the first Middle School having been opened by the Marianists in 1888 in Tokyo. There are also schools for boys in Yokohama, Osaka and Nagasaki. The Jesuits returned to Japan in 1908, and at the instance of Pope Pius X, opened a University in Tokyo. This university follows largely the curriculum authorized by the Government Department of Education, and concludes with the course in Scholastic Philosophy, characteristic of Jesuit universities in Europe and America.

The monastic life is represented by Trappist monasteries in Hakodate and in Kyushu, and that of the Trappistines near Hakodate.

The Catholic population of Japan is estimated at about 90,000, but there are no exact statistics to depend upon. The above is the figure reached by the Roman Catholic authorities themselves.

Roman Catholic work in the Pacific Island subject to the Japanese mandate has in recent years been in the hands of the Spanish Jesuits. These missions have an agent resident at the Roman Catholic University (Jochi Daigaku) in Tokyo, who gives consideration to their temporal affairs and their relation to the Imperial



Government. There are about fifteen thousand members. The work in Taiwan is under the direction of the Spanish Dominicans, where the Roman Catholic population is about five thousand. Chosen has bishops stationed at Keijo, Taiku and Gensan, who oversee a Roman Catholic population of about 87,000.

**Russian Orthodox Church.**—Early in the Meiji period, Nikolai, a Russian priest, came to Hakodate as a missionary of the Russian Orthodox Church. He later came to Tokyo, and built the imposing Russian Cathedral in Tokyo. He sent priests to many centres of Japan, and there were

also many lay workers. Since the World War, this work has considerably waned. Bishop Serge, in Tokyo, has undertaken to reconstruct the cathedral, but religious and political condition in Russia has made the work in Japan very largely self-supporting, and the old system had not prepared the Japan Church for such an emergency, so that the present work of that Church in the Empire is largely quiescent.

**Statistics.**—The number of churches was 1,938 at the end of March 1934, the figures given below being those of principal bodies, Protestant and other churches:—

Table 4. Statistics of Christianity

Name of Church	Representatives	Headquarters	No. of Workers			
			No. of Churches	Japanese	Foreigners	No. of Members
Roman Catholic .....	A. Cambon	Sekiguchi Dai-machi, Koishikawa-ku, Tokyo .....	249	105	182	96,736
Japanese Christian Church ...	M. Kawazoe	3, Shinmachi, 4-chome, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo .....	299	321	31	39,243
Japan Congregational .....	K. Suzuki	Daido Bldg., Tosabori-dori, Nishi-ku, Osaka .....	158	166	28	26,281
Seikokai (Episcopal) .....		8, Sakae-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.	238	279	91	29,091
Nippon Methodist .....	M. Akazawa	23, Midorigaoka-machi, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo .....	242	297	121	32,463
Russian Orthodox .....		Surugadai, Kanda, Tokyo ...	96	108	1	11,957
Japan Baptist .....	Y. Chiba	4, Misaki-cho 1-chome, Kanda-ku, Tokyo .....	76	88	14	6,590
Christian Church .....	Y. Hirai	56, Nakazato, Takinogawa, Tokyo .....	34	29	6	4,198
Salvation Army .....	G. Yamamuro	17, Jimbocho 2-chome, Kanda, Tokyo .....	2	235	5	11,816
Total incl. others .....			1,938	2,150	601	304,602

#### Y.M.C.A.

The Young Men's Christian Association of Japan was established in 1880 in Tokyo. It has since steadily grown until now there are eleven City Associations (inclusive of Korea, Formosa and Manchoukuo) (at the end of December, 1933) with a total membership of 8,232 and one hundred and forty-two Student Associations (inclusive of Korea, Formosa and Manchoukuo) with 3,526 members. All these Associations form themselves into a union styled "The National Committee of the Young Men's Christian Associations of Japan", which celebrated the thirtieth anniversary of its foundation in 1933.

The Associations are organized on lines similar to those in the United States, Canada and other countries. The work is divided into Religious, Education and Employment Departments. The influence of the Associations is well recognized as shown by the support given it by public spirited citizens and by several imperial gifts.

The assets of the National Committee as at the end of 1933 aggregated ¥3,707,285.64 and

Ordinary Expenditure for the year was ¥315,214.03.

The General Secretary of the National Committee is Mr. Soichi Saito.

#### Y.W.C.A.

The Young Women's Christian Association of Japan was first organized in 1905. In 1925 the National Committee was organized with five City Associations of Tokyo, Yokohama, Kyoto, Osaka and Kobe and Student Associations representing 28 schools. At present the National Committee is composed of six City Associations of Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Kyoto, Osaka and Kobe and Student Associations representing 40 schools. Its total membership is 8,000 approximately. The National Committee owns and maintains a hall at the foot of Mt. Fuji, Gotemba, where summer conferences are held in July and August with an approximate registration of 400 (1935) for the conferences and camp. The official organ of the National Committee is a monthly publication called the "Young Women of Japan" (Joshi

Seinen Kai). The activities of the City Associations are, in general, educational classes in English, home economics, commercial subjects and Japanese etiquette, Bible classes and religious work, self-governing clubs among students, and factory shop and office girls, girls of leisure and young married women, physical education, etc. Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Osaka and Kyoto have boarding houses for Japanese girls. Kyoto and Tokyo have also rooms for transients—Japanese and foreign women. The Chairman of the National Committee is Mrs. Matsu Tsuji. The Headquarters are situated at 13, Nishiki-cho 1-chome, Kanda, Tokyo.

#### The Salvation Army

For some years after the Salvation Army's extending of activities to Japan its progress was somewhat slow. Since it did distinguished services in stirring up public opinion in the interests of the women in the licensed quarters of Tokyo and in opening the way for these slave girls to liberate themselves, the Salvation Army has steadily risen in public regard and done inestimable services in the cause of religion and humanity in general. It may be mentioned that the visit to Japan of Gen. William Booth, the founder of this great organization, who was graciously received in audience by the late Emperor Meiji has added considerably to the honour and prestige of the Japanese Salvation Army. Mention must not also be omitted of the fact that Commissioner Yamamuro, who is a man of extraordinary calibre and noble character, has been no small factor in the great development of the Japanese Salvation Army. The Army is now carrying on its work in more than 300 centres of the country.

There were two noteworthy items in the Salvation Army's reconstruction programme following the great earthquake and fire of 1923. One was the reconstruction of the Tokyo Hospital and the other the reconstruction of the National Headquarters and Central Hall. In connexion with the former, very generous help from America, England, the Japanese Government, Prince Tokugawa's Earthquake Committee and other sources enabled an earthquake-proof building to be completed at the former site, or Asakusa Ward, Tokyo. The Hospital, which had cost ¥465,000 and which contained X-ray, dental, gynecological and other special sections was opened in October, 1933 by Commander Evangeline Booth, who happened to be sojourning in Japan. In order to meet the growing number of patients, work was started in June, 1934 at the estimated cost of ¥75,000 for enlarging the

building. In 1934 there were 111,904 out-patients. The Salvation Army also keeps a tuberculosis sanatorium at Wadabori, Sugunami Ward, which is one of the best of the kind in this country. It was opened in 1916. It covers a building area of 1,500 tsubo. In 1934, 330 new patients were admitted into the sanatorium and the number of patients as at the end of the year stood at 218.

The appointment of Commissioner Yamamuro, in 1926, in connexion with the visit of the late Gen. Bramwell Booth, as territorial Commander for the land of his birth marked the consummation of the ideal of the founder in Japan.

Revenue and Expenditure of the Japanese Salvation Army for the year ended September 30, 1934 were each ¥185,505.34. During the year under review the Army was honoured with an Imperial gift for ¥2,000.

The assets and liabilities of the Japanese Salvation Army as at the end of September 30, 1935 were each ¥2,153,169.45. At the end of 1935 there were 562 officers and cadets and 217 other men serving direct the Army.

For some years the Salvation Army has been graciously honoured with recognition by the Imperial family, together with the annual and periodic donations for social work. Grants of money are also regularly received for social and special purposes from the Government and civic authorities.

Commissioner Yamamuro, who resigned as Commander due to ill health in February, 1935, was reappointed to the post on April 9, 1936. Simultaneously with this, Lieutenant-Colonels V. Rolfe and Y. Segawa were relieved of the post of Joint Commander. He is the author of numerous books and pamphlets, the most popular one being the "Common People's Gospel," which has now reached 350 editions. Besides attending to his duties in the Army, Commissioner Yamamuro is devoting himself to his life work of writing "The Bible for the Masses."

#### 1. National Temperance Union of Japan (Nihon Kinshu Domei)

The temperance movement in Japan was first started in 1886 by S. Hayashi in Yokohama and by K. Ito in Sapporo, the latter under the inspiration of Dr. Clark of the Sapporo Agricultural College. For many years Taro Ando (d. 1925) and Shō Nemoto (d. 1932) were leaders in the local and national movement.

The Minor's Prohibition Bill was annually introduced into the Imperial Diet for twenty years, finally becoming a law in 1922.

The present National Temperance Union was



formed in 1920 by a federation of existing societies. The Union now has 1,200 local societies, with a total membership of about 300,000. The league publishes two periodicals, the "Kinshu no Nippon" with a circulation of 25,000 and the "Kinshu Shimbun" with a circulation of about 50,000. The Student Temperance Federation, affiliated with the Union has 56 branches with a membership of 3,000 in colleges and universities. The headquarters of the National Temperance Union is at 10, Omote Sarugaku-cho, Kanda, Tokyo, and Hampei Nagano is its representative.

### 2. Aoki Foundation

The Aoki Foundation was established in Feb., 1923 with a fund given by Shozo Aoki. It carries on special research work on various phases of the alcohol problem, publishing the results in special bulletins, available on request. (Address—Aoki Foundation (Aoki Kyosaijidan), 777 Shinden Nishi-Sugamo, Tokyo).

### 3. Women's Christian Temperance Union of Japan

(Kiristokyo Fujin Kyofukai)

The W.C.T.U. of Japan was formed in 1896. The president and recognized leader for many years was the late Mrs. Kaji Yajima, a well-known educator. There are now 192 branches in the whole country with a total membership of over 8,000. Believing that Licensed Prostitution and the Geisha (Dancing Girls) are the greatest foes of the home life of Japan, the leaders of the W.C.T.U. movement have from the beginning taken an active part in the Purity Movement and in general movements for the education and social uplift of women. The W.C.T.U. maintains a Women's Home at Hyakunin-machi, Yodobashi-ku, Tokyo, for the rescue and reformation of women and girls. Affiliated with the W.C.T.U. are 11 branches of the Young Women's Auxiliary with 500 members, and 147 branches of the Children's Loyal Temperance Legion, with 70,000 members. There is a Foreign Auxiliary (composed of resident American and European women) which cooperates with the National Union. The President of the National W.C.T.U. is Mrs. Chiyo Kozaki. The Headquarters are at 360, Hyakunin-machi 3-chome, Yodobashi-ku, Tokyo.

### 4. Social Purity Federation

(Kakusei Kwai)

The social Purity Federation, founded in 1910 with (late) Saburo Shimada, M.P. as President, has since taken the lead, with the active co-

operation of the Women's Christian Temperance Union in the campaign for the abolition of licenced prostitution in Japan. The strategy of the movement has been to seize special occasion for wide spread and intensive educational campaigns. Influenced by the press and the circulation of petitions, five prefectures soon decided against licenced houses. The Purity Federation publishes a monthly periodical, "Kakusei" (Purification). The Headquarters of the Federation are at 41, Otsuka-nakamachi, Koishikawa-ku, Tokyo.

### TENRIKYO

Tenrikyo, a sect of Shintoism founded by Mrs. Miki Nakayama (1798—1887), is a religion of salvation founded upon Divine Revelation. Its fundamental principle is the salvation of mankind. It is pure and simple doctrine, going forward toward salvation. The members believe that God the Parent descended from universe into the person of the foundress, Miki Nakayama who designated him by the names:—"Tenriō-no-Mikoto", or "God the Parent". Following these revelations, Tenrikyo is endeavouring to help millions of re-born men and women to live a life of happiness by saving them from anguish and pain.

Through its staunch unshaken faith, Tenrikyo has been developed by divine revelation to lead mankind from darkness into the light, realize a world of supreme bliss by purging it of evils, and through these efforts to attain the highest good for the world. The divine revelation was conveyed directly to the foundress, who acted as mediator between God the Parent and mankind.

It was therefore only the foundress who could attain the ideal perfect union with God by direct response to Tenriō-no-mikoto, or God the Parent who created the earth and mankind in the very beginning. She was indeed at once divine and human. This seemingly illogical statement is, however, in the eyes of faith, quite adequate and consistent, when it is understood that the adherents of Tenrikyo take a superrational view of their doctrine. As with the saying, "Gredo quia absurdum" so often quoted with regard to the Christian faith, the commands and messages of the foundress were expressions of the divine will.

The deifying of the foundress, which has been done likewise in other religions, occurred very early in the history of Tenrikyo. Miki herself seems to have acknowledged her divinity, for she was conscious that, in her dwelt the spirit of Tenriō-no-mikoto, through divine command. Her heart was aglow with an increasing sense of her mission to impart the mercy and protec-

tion of "God the Parent" to mankind. Only by doing this, could she hope to attain a joyous life.

In spite of hardships and privations, restraints and persecutions, the foundress knows no other desire but to obey the divine revelation with fortitude. The members of Tenrikyo, therefore, work diligently and with no ulterior motive, for the relief of mankind, and endeavour to follow the example left for them by the foundress.

The life led by great religious leaders is seldom strewn with roses of contentment and happiness. For the most part it is a road of suffering, a road of thorns. Through mountain passes, bramble-strewn paths, stony hillsides, spiked, blazed trails, narrow channels and highways,—the Foundress passed through them all until she reached the realm of complete union with God the Parent. This testimony, the followers of Tenrikyo have in their own words, and these are the very paths that her followers must tread.

The life lived by the foundress is, in the belief of her adherents, also the way of God the parent. In consequence, the messages and deeds recorded by her as she followed that way, constitute the essence of the doctrine of Tenrikyo, the expression of divine revelation. The specific instructions of the religion are to be found in the Mikagura-uta (the Holy Psalms) and the Ofudesaki (Sacred Text).

Believers in Tenrikyo declare that Miki Nakayama was born in this world destined by God the Parent to become the Foundress of this new religion, and that is what constitutes belief in "the Soul of the Foundress." The "Residence" was the centre where God the Parent created the universe, "Jiba" the home of mankind, the cradle of salvation where the "Kanrodai" is to be erected when the reformation both of men's minds and of the world is to be accomplished. Finally, there is the belief that the foundress became divine at the moment appointed by God the

Parent, on the twenty-sixth day of the tenth month, Tenpo era, 1838. That is the interpretation of the "Important Moment."

The adherents of Tenrikyo believe that Tenriō-no-mikoto is "God the Parent" who created man and all else on the earth. He is the "Real God" who protects and helps all human beings to procreate and progress daily without a moment's pause now and for all time. This would explain their seeking after God the Parent and daily offering him their gratitude for his benefits. He has declared "God the Parent is the father of mankind and man is the child of God the Parent."

Furthermore, the doctrine of Tenrikyo declares that the protection and help rendered by God the Parent emanates from his all-pervading grace and all-unifying virtue, which may be considered as "Divine Truth" or "Truth." To be brief, Tenriō-no-mikoto is the great motivating power which exercises Divine Truth in the universe, and God the Parent is the Divine Parent who loves men and sends them salvation as to his children, with boundless mercy.

Tenrikyo, though of comparatively late origin, is one of the popular sects of Shintoism, having a large number of believers and votaries among peoples of almost all classes. Its religious activities and propaganda now embrace nearly all quarters of the world. The foreign mission work was first started in 1904 at Fusan (Chosen), and since the Russo-Japanese War (1904—05) through which Japan gained prestige among the Powers of the world the foreign mission work has gradually and steadily expanded. At present there are 66 churches in Manchoukuo, 25 in China, 35 in America, 14 in Hawaii, and 6 in the South Seas and 1 in Canada. There are 11,390 churches in Japan. There are 64,979 preachers, approximately, 254,000 sub-preachers and 6,000,000 followers at home and abroad. The headquarters of the central church are at Mishima, Tambaichi, Nara prefecture.



# CHAPTER XI

## EDUCATION

### INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

The real educational system in Japan dates only from the beginning of the Meiji era (1868-1912), or strictly speaking from 1872, when the public school system on the Occidental model was adopted in accordance with the Imperial Rescript promulgated in the same year. During the six decades and more that have since elapsed educational work has so much progressed that the number of various schools in Japan Proper (in

1932) is given as roughly 47,000, that of teachers as 340,000 and that of students as 13,000,000, or more than 20 per cent. of the whole population. By far the most important and widespread form of education is elementary education, which is compulsory.

The number of elementary schools in Japan Proper in 1932 as compared with other countries is tabulated below:

Table 1. Number of Elementary Schools Compared With Other Countries

	Population	No. Schools	No. Pupils	No. Teachers
Japan Proper .....	66,296,000	25,697	10,714,196	238,515
England .....	46,037,000	25,659	6,643,025	196,914
France .....	41,834,923	81,153	4,992,807	*139,594
U. S. A. (1930) .....	122,775,046	220,529	22,757,124	644,937
Germany .....	65,306,130	53,620	7,638,326	192,351
Italy .....	41,145,041	122,085	4,716,896	106,425

It is due solely to this compulsory nature of elementary education that illiterates who were considerable in number in pre-Meiji days have greatly decreased. It is surmised that at present they occupy only about 5.6% of males of above ten years of age and 11% of females of the same age. While national education has so much progressed as can rightly claim its great contribution to the present cultural civilization of the country, it is not without shortcomings. Thinking men of the country are at one in

urging the necessity of reforming the present system of education in such a way as to eliminate stereotyped and cramming methods of teaching, which have of late become manifest. Another feature of educational circles is that there are a larger number of schools than are required, and that only 40 per cent. of graduates of colleges and universities get employment. It is remarkable to note that in Tokyo alone there are as many as over 20 universities, most of which are private institutions.

Table 2. General Statistics of Educational Institutions in Japan Proper for the Year ended March 31, 1934

	No. of Schools	Instructors	Students or pupils	Graduates
Elementary Schools .....	25,702	245,723	11,035,278	2,124,755
Government .....	4	94	2,345	457
Public .....	25,596	244,729	11,006,194	2,119,860
Private .....	102	900	26,739	4,438
Blind Schools .....	78	633	4,709	1,133
Government .....	1	49	246	81
Public .....	41	353	3,134	752
Private .....	36	231	1,329	300
D. & D. Schools .....	60	578	4,791	639
Government .....	1	41	224	34
Public .....	38	411	3,644	495
Private .....	21	126	923	112
Normal Schools (Public) .....	103	2,334	32,817	11,669
Higher Normal Schools, Government .....	2	187	1,752	382
Do. for Girls, Government .....	2	105	846	210
Teachers Institutes, Government .....	5	49	420	120
Middle Schools .....	554	13,357	327,260	59,863

### EDUCATION

	No. of Schools	Instructors	Students or pupils	Graduates
Government .....	2	55	974	163
Public .....	434	10,630	272,649	48,859
Private .....	118	2,672	53,638	10,855
Girls' High & Domestic High Schools .....	975	15,305	371,807	84,955
Government .....	3	58	1,271	282
Public .....	730	10,584	278,384	65,328
Private .....	242	4,663	92,152	19,345
High Schools .....	32	1,433	20,300	6,088
Government .....	25	1,080	15,689	4,832
Public .....	3	141	2,262	652
Private .....	4	212	2,349	604
Universities .....	45	6,285	70,893	21,170
Government .....	18	3,084	27,901	7,423
Public .....	2	111	1,432	398
Private .....	25	3,090	41,560	13,349
Special Schools (Collegiate) .....	117	5,322	67,180	16,744
Government .....	8	405	4,448	1,027
Public .....	9	201	2,636	625
Private .....	100	4,716	60,096	15,092
Technical Schools (Collegiate) .....	54	2,146	23,082	7,004
Government .....	42	1,807	18,616	5,863
Public .....	2	39	760	226
Private .....	10	300	3,706	915
Do. (Secondary grade) .....	1,041	16,157	316,846	77,360
Government .....	1	—	169	54
Public .....	748	10,664	222,762	51,834
Private .....	292	5,493	93,915	25,472
Supplementary Technical Schools .....	15,140	21,951	1,271,530	431,853
Government .....	3	—	580	163
Public .....	15,077	21,394	1,263,028	428,451
Private .....	60	557	7,922	3,239
Training Institutes for Technical Schools Teachers .....	43	98	1,014	529
Other Schools .....	1,950	16,901	209,674	102,721
Total .....	45,903	348,564	13,760,200	2,946,719
Do. for 1932-33 .....	45,793	339,868	13,408,971	2,933,002
Do. for 1931-32 .....	45,765	333,779	13,078,854	2,825,260
Do. for 1930-31 .....	45,898	332,841	12,847,730	2,639,337

Note 1.—Teaching at the Training Institutes of Technical School Teachers and at supplementary schools is under-taken by those specified higher schools to which they are generally attached.  
 Note 2.—Schools and Colleges under control of Departments other than the Education, i.e. Fishery Institute, various military and naval schools and colleges, Peers' school, Peeresses school, and Post and Telegraph schools, are excluded.  
 Note 3.—"Other" Schools include various schools and colleges that are not recognized by the Government as such.

### PRIMARY EDUCATION

#### THE "SHO-GAKKO". (ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS)

The Ordinary Elementary & Higher Elementary Grade and School-Years.—Both are generally combined. The Ordinary course which is compulsory receives children of 6 to 14 and extends six years and the Higher course two or three years.

Tuition.—Though in principle elementary edu-

cation is free, a small amount of tuition may be charged under special permission, in a case where English may be included in the curriculum for schools in the urban districts.

Text-books.—These are compiled by the Education Department, to be published and sold by the specified publishers.

Table 3. Statistics of Elementary Schools

End of Mar.	No. of schools			No. of pupils	
	Ordinary	Ord. & Higher	Higher	Ordinary	Higher
1929 .....	7,186	18,271	149	8,350,900	1,324,000
1930 .....	7,121	18,348	157	8,543,000	1,322,000
1931 .....	7,114	18,397	112	8,780,000	1,320,800
1932 .....	7,090	18,414	161	9,067,448	1,316,800
1933 .....	7,097	18,442	158	9,314,107	1,400,089
1934 .....	7,079	18,457	166	9,479,977	1,555,301



Table 4. Number of Children of School Age Under Obligation to Attend Schools

End of Mar.	Receiving the prescribed course of instruction			Not receiving the prescribed course of instruction		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1929	4,911,000	4,751,000	9,663,000	25,000	27,000	53,000
1930	4,993,000	4,839,000	9,832,000	24,000	26,000	50,000
1931	5,101,000	4,955,000	10,056,000	24,000	24,000	49,000
1932	5,245,153	5,099,489	10,344,642	23,935	24,217	48,152
1933	5,430,177	5,278,753	10,708,930	22,937	23,095	46,032
1934	5,566,300	5,412,418	10,978,718	22,875	22,939	45,814

End of Mar.	Total No. of children under obligation			Percentage attending schools		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1929	4,937,647	4,779,410	9,717,657	99.48	99.42	99.45
1930	5,018,163	4,865,622	9,883,725	99.51	99.46	99.48
1931	5,125,852	4,980,089	10,105,941	99.52	99.50	99.51
1932	5,269,088	5,123,706	10,392,794	99.55	99.53	99.54
1933	5,453,114	5,301,848	10,754,962	99.58	99.59	99.57
1934	5,589,175	5,435,357	11,024,532	99.59	99.58	99.58

**THE "YOCHI-EN" (KINDERGARTENS)** one kindergarten, and to 200 in special cases, and children under charge of one conductor should not exceed 40.

Kindergartens that admit children of 3 to 7 years limit the number of enrolment to 120 at

Table 5. Statistics of Kindergartens

End of Mar.	No. of schools	No. of conductors	No. of pupils	Percentage of pupils per 1 school	Percentage of pupils per 1 conductor
1929	1,294	3,919	107,236	82.9	27.4
1930	1,397	4,301	114,749	82.1	26.7
1931	1,512	4,657	121,975	80.8	26.2
1932	1,662	5,012	126,564	78.0	25.3
1933	1,708	5,333	129,001	75.5	24.2
1934	1,786	5,527	133,735	74.9	24.2

**BLIND, DEAF AND DUMB SCHOOLS** Tokyo Blind School and the Tokyo Deaf and Dumb School) are provided with ordinary, professional and normal courses. The latest available data are as follows:—

Number of Schools.—There are the Government institutions and 134 public and private schools, and the two Government schools (The

Table 6. Schools for Blind and Deaf and Dumb

End of Mar.	No. of schools	Blind			Deaf			
		Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	No. of schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates
1929	72	537	3,766	773	47	379	3,464	495
1930	73	545	4,088	912	49	414	3,640	499
1931	74	584	4,306	922	51	443	3,831	578
1932	77	624	4,550	1,029	59	500	4,144	583
1933	78	625	4,613	1,037	59	526	4,376	720
1934	78	633	4,709	1,133	60	578	4,791	641

**Blind, Deaf and Dumb of School Age.**—The number of blind or mute children of school age and their ratio per 10,000 of normal children of the same age are shown below:—

Table 7. Blind and Mute of School Age

End of Mar.	Blind and mute of school age			Receiving instruction at schools			Defectives per 1,000 children	
	Blind	Mute	Total	Blind	Mute	Total	Blind	Mute
1929	2,531	6,107	8,638	432	1,440	1,872	2.24	5.41
1930	2,465	5,990	8,455	498	1,555	2,053	2.14	5.21
1931	2,427	6,285	8,712	520	1,709	2,229	2.07	5.36
1932	2,356	6,611	8,967	646	2,075	2,721	1.94	5.47
1933	2,310	6,619	8,929	784	2,397	3,181	1.85	5.31
1934	2,250	6,137	8,387	814	2,617	3,431	1.77	4.82

**A New D.D. Kindergarten.**—A new kindergarten was established in April, 1928, to receive deaf and dumb children under school age, it being attached to the Tokyo D.D. School.

## SECONDARY EDUCATION

## THE "CHU-GAKKO" (MIDDLE SCHOOLS)

**Number of School-Years.**—5 years, but those who have finished the 4th year course are allowed to enter a Higher School on examination.

**Qualification and Selective Examination.**—In principle, graduates of ordinary elementary school course are qualified, but in practice, owing to the excessive number of applicants, the boys are obliged to undergo selective examinations at most schools of first standing. To modify the evil of the examination a new system has been tentatively passed by the special council to be put in force at the beginning of April, 1930. The main features of the proposed change are to divide the school course into two courses, one for those desirous of entering into active life, one completing the course, and the other for those proceeding to higher grade schools. In the dual-course school some changes will be made in the curriculum. Then it has been decided to recognize night schools of the middle grade and standing, while measure will be taken to give support to private middle schools. For statistics of Middle Schools, see General Statistics.

## THE "KOTO JOGAKKO" (GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOLS)

**Kinds of Schools.**—There are Girls' High Schools, giving ordinary liberal education, and Girls' Domestic High Schools for those desirous of studying such arts as are necessary for females. A higher course of three years may also be provided for the benefit of those who desire to pursue further study after finishing Girls' High Schools.

## THE "KOTO GAKKO" (Higher Schools)

**School-Years and Purposes.**—There are two classes of Koto-Gakko, namely 7-year Schools and 3-year Schools. All the Government Higher Schools (25 in number, except one at Tokyo) belong to the latter, and only three public and four private schools are of seven-year courses, the first four years' course corresponding to the same stage of the Middle School. All private universities have their own 3-year preparatory course. The Koto-Gakko proper is divided into two parts, Literary and Scientific. One foreign language (English, German or French) is compulsory and another, also English, German or French, optional. In April, 1929 another 7-year school, The Tokyo Prefectural Higher School was established.

## UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

As stated before "Private" universities, thanks to the new regulations enacted in 1919, now enjoy the same status as that of the Government Universities. The recognition of a single faculty university, and of establishment of universities by prefectures and cities is another point of the new Regulations.

**Academic Titles.**—The degree of "Gakushi", corresponding to M.A., is conferred by all universities on their graduates. The Presidents of all the Government, public and private universities are equally privileged, subject to the approval of the Minister of Education, to confer the highest academic title "Hakushi" or "Hakase", corresponding to Doctor of Science, Civil Law, etc., as the case may be. The title of "Hakushi" is of twelve kinds, the number of the holders of "Hakushi" (living) being as follows at the end of March, 1936:—

Table 8. Number of Degree Holders (March, 1936)

Law	70
Medicine	7,788
Pharmacy	58
Engineering	357
Literature	119
Science	379
Dendrology	14
Agriculture	226
Veterinary	8
Commerce	18
Economics	46
Pol. Science	2
Total	9,085

## GOVERNMENT UNIVERSITIES

## The Teikoku Daigaku (Imperial Universities)

There are eight Imperial Universities, each consisting of several departments of colleges, and