the restriction of production, or by the raising of prices, or by any other such expediencies, and therefore the agreement advanced by them would not be conducive to the healthy development of national economy. Further, the law orders that a strict watch be kept over such agreements as would, under the beautiful name of control, inflict damage upon the consumers or those engaging in other industries by the wanton raising of prices, and engages that such evils shall be removed by ordering the alteration or cancellation of such agreements.

In short, the law is so designed with regard to certain specified principal industries as to remove various wastes arising from reckless competition and to secure the benefit of rationalization by causing good articles to be made or sold at small cost. The industries specified by the law, and therefore to which it is applicable are as follows :— cotton spinning, silk spinning and the manufacturing of artificial silk, foreign paper, cardboard, carbide, sulphuric acid, bleaching-powder, oxygen, hardened oil, cement, wheat flour, pig-iron, bar-steel, angle-steel, steel plate, wire, copper or brass plates, carbon disulphide, refined sugar and the manufacture and sale of volatile oils. There are altogether more than twenty kinds of such industries, and more than thirty controlling bodies, while the firms associated number about 260.

Control of Medium to Small-scale Manufacturing Industries The law relating to the control of principal industries applies, from the very nature of the law, to the so-called large-scale industries, but there is still a large number of industries which may be classified as domestic and which are, of necessity, of medium to small scale. Not a few of this latter class of industries still occupy an important place from a national economic view-point, both in the amount of their production and in the number of persons employed in them. At present, conditions in these numerous small undertakings are far from being satisfactory. They are generally crowded together without order, with no control worthy of the name, and are ruining themselves through careless manufacture and selling below cost. Nothing would be so important, therefore, as to give them order and control, and in addition to provide them with proper financial facilities so that both their production and sales may be properly regulated. It was thought that the proper way to do this was to cause those of the same trade and with common interests to combine into associations, and through these organized bodies, to control the members and act in concert for their common interest. For this reason the technical association system now in force was instituted. To trace its history, the Technical Association was originally organized through the Law relating to the Technical Association for Principal Exports published and put into force in March, 1925, the application of which was confined to industries producing the principal goods for export. In 1931 the law underwent a partial revision, and its application was extended to all the principal manufactures irrespective of whether they were for export or not and the title of the law itself was changed to the "Technical Association Law." Simultaneously, the sphere of activities of the association was so extended that it came to cover all manufacturing undertakings of medium to small scale in its attempt to effect a thorough-going control over all. The work of the association is divided into two parts, one for the remedying and prevention of evils by the appointing of inspecting officers of various kinds, the other part is of a more active nature and promotes joint purchasing, the provision of common equipment, accommodation of funds, guidance of its members, etc., but no less important is its function to exercise control over the undertakings of its members. The Government, may order, when necessary, any technical association which has not joined the "control" to join it, or in case there is some individual undertaking which has joined neither association nor "control", and the control of the whole is disturbed on that account, to order the owner of such undertaking to subject himself to the rules or restrictions imposed by the association. Now the articles of manufacture subject to this law are designated by the Minister of Commerce and Industry, and comprise 38 kinds among which are included cotton fabrics, clocks, umbrellas, matches, and celluloid. Of these 38 kinds of article, 32 kinds have technical associations already organized for them, the number of which has now reached 197 with a total membership of some 12,400. Of the industries over which the Rationalization Bureau has so far tried to exercise control by causing those engaged in them to organize committees, the principal ones are :

Striped figured-silk for export; cotton crêpe, cotton flannels, habutaé for export, enamelled iron-ware, porcelain for export, rubber shoes for export, superphosphate fertilizer and bicycles.

In any of these cases, the technical associations already existing in the industry concerned are made the basis, and the federation of those associations the organ for control, while the means of control consist generally in allotment of production, joint sales, enforcement of inspection and the like.

The result of these instances of control has generally been satisfactory, and controlled industries have been better able to withstand the unprecedented depression that has prevailed since the year before last than other industries which have not been so controlled.

In particular, striped figured-silk was the first article of trade for which any attempt at control by means of a committee was made by the Rationalization Bureau, and as such, has come into prominence as the first actual example of nation-wide control of a small industry. The result of control was on the whole satisfactory, though many difficult questions had to be met during the process of putting control into effect.

Control of Medium to Small-scale Commercial Undertakings Owing to an inordinately large number of persons engaging in commerce there is much useless competition, and control in one form or another is a necessity. In this respect the position of the medium to small-scale commercial undertakings is exactly the same as that of the same class in the manufacturing industry. The appearance of the department stores has made the plight of the small merchants which was already sad enough, even sadder.

In the 63rd extraordinary session of the Diet convened in June, 1932, the Commercial Association Law, which, in its object and operation, is practically the same as the Technical Association Law, was passed and was put into force on and after the 1st of October of that year. When commercial associations according to this law come to be established and working effectively, their control over small merchants should be very beneficial.

The Export Association Law,

which is closely allied with the Technical Association Law mentioned above was enacted and put into force in 1925. It was revised in 1931. The provisions of this law are practically the same as those of the Technical or Commercial Association Law and it has done much for the control of exporters. At present the associations formed under this law number 29, with a membership of some 2,800. The cases of control so far exercised by these associations include fishing nets for Asiatic Russia, knitted goods for the Philippines and Japanese oranges for North America, and as their efforts have been fairly well rewarded in each case, further control with respect to cement, lily bulbs, artificial pearls, tea, etc., is contemplated.

Acceleration of the Control Movement It cannot be denied that the enactment of these laws, with their application to the various industries and coupled with industrial conditions at home and abroad, has increased considerably the tendency to control. Nor are instances lacking where control is exercised by private undertakings themselves without any help from the Government. The combination of undertakings is also taking place from time to time, the latest example being the amalgamation of the three big paper mills, the Oji, the Fuji and the Karafuto Industrial. The merging of iron works, automobile factories, etc., is also in progress

Encouragement of the Use of Native Products

In the foregoing pages we have outlined the rationalization movement in this country as centralized in the work of the Temporary Rationalization Bureau. Parallel with its effort for rationalization, the Rationalization Bureau has been employed in encouraging the use of native products. For this purpose, the Bureau organized a committee within itself, and in co-operation with Government offices and private bodies has been engaged in a nation-wide movement to encourage the use of native products through lecture meetings, etc. Among the methods employed for this purpose, a comparative exhibition of native and foreign goods appears to have done much in the way of enlightening the general public as to home products. With regard to this exhibition, the committee formed for encouraging the use of native products selected such home-made articles as would compare favourably in value and quality with the same kind of foreign-made articles, and exhibited the two side by side, and in this manner called attention to the native products hitherto neglected. The result of the attempt seemed fairly satisfactory, as not a few home-made articles have since come to be used in place of the foreign ones. Cloth for foreign clothes, hats, balls, roller bearings, clocks, cash registers and counting machines are among the articles which seem to have increased in sales though the exhibition.

CHAPTER XXV

COMMUNICATIONS

The Postal Service

Historical Survey

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

Foreign Mail Opens In March, 1872, a foreign mail service was opened at the same time as the establishment of official postal regulations. In those days, foreign mail matter in Japan was handled with the aid of the British, American, and French post offices in Yokohama, Kobé and Nagasaki. Soon after the conclusion of the America-Japan Mail Service Treaty in 1873, the American post offices were withdrawn from this country, and Japan was thus placed on an equal footing with the U. S. A. as regards the mail service between the two countries. In 1877, an arrangement was made with twenty-five countries participating in the International Mail Service Treaty. Thereupon, the British and the French post offices were also withdrawn from this country.

The post offices were at first classified into five grades, and in March 1886, they were classified into three as at present. In view of the development of telephone and telegraph business, the authorities introduced a revision in the system of the Communications Department in 1903, and divided post offices into post, telegraph, and telephone offices each of them being classified into 1st, 2nd and 3rd, or 1st and 2nd in the case of telephone offices. With the rapid increase in the amount of mail matter and telephone and telegraphic messages, the regulations of the Communications Department as to the number and kind of offices, were extended from time to time, and at present there are offices in warships, steamers, trains, etc., in addition to the network throughout the country.

The Growth The rapid growth of the postal service in the early years is illustrated by the following statistics :

Year	No. of P. O.
1871	180
1872	1,160
1873	1,501
1874	3,245
1882	5,527

Following the introduction of a revision in the postal service regulations in 1883, some of the offices were eliminated, the number being reduced to 4,088 by the end of 1889. But the steady development of postal business necessitated an increasing number of offices as the following figures show :

Year	No. of P. O.
1902	5,485
1907	6,709
1922	8,477
1923	8,546
1924	8,633
1925	8,705
1926	8,916
1927	9,114
1928	9,393
1929	9,630
1930	9,954
1931	10,208

Post offices are classified into three grades, namely 1st, 2nd and 3rd, the 1st being, side by side with 2nd and 3rd offices, in such important places as Tokyo, Osaka, and other leading cities. The 2nd and 3rd are in smaller cities, towns and villages throughout the country. Those of the 1st or 2nd grade are government offices, under direct government management. In post offices of the third class, business is conducted on the contract system.

Its Business

In addition to ordinary matters relating to post and telegrams, the post offices in Japan receive taxes on behalf of the various tax authorities and pay pensions, annuities, etc. on behalf of the Treasury. Since 1906 New Year's greeting cards have been handled separately from ordinary mail matter with a view to relieving congestion. Such mail matter is accepted by all post offices from December 15 until 29 of the same month for delivery on New Year's day.

Ordinary mail matter is delivered 5 or 6 times daily in Tokyo, Osaka, and Kyoto, and 4 or 5 times in other large cities, where there are 1st class offices. In smaller cities, the 2nd class offices deliver 3 or 4 times a day. In towns and villages where they have 3rd class offices, mail matter is delivered twice a day only. The number of collections is the same as that of delivery in most cases.

The parcel post service was started in 1892, the first arrangement as regards foreign connections being made with Hongkong in 1879. The scope of international service was gradually extended, and covers almost all treaty countries at present.

Statistical Tables In the following are shown a number of tables relating to the volume of business, and its growth, handled by the post offices :

NUMBER OF POST OFFICES (September, 1932)

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
1st Class	80	11	5			
2nd Class	221	10		106	51	8
3rd Class	9,271	155	69			
Minor offices	571	—	—	10	151	—
Total	10,143	176	74	116	202	8

QUANTITY OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED (Internal)

		Ordinary mail	Parcel post	Total
1871	Dispatched	565,934	—	565,934
	Received	Unknown	—	—
1892	Dispatched	277,805,743	40,755	277,846,498
	Received	278,598,069	38,000	278,636,069
1897	Dispatched	550,915,742	4,108,488	555,023,230
	Received	539,540,474	4,060,797	543,601,270

		Ordinary mail	Parcel post	Total
1907	Dispatched	1,357,447,195	17,676,745	1,375,123,939
	Received	1,346,523,695	16,567,155	1,363,092,850
1912	Dispatched	1,630,394,998	24,276,991	1,654,671,989
	Received	1,594,850,576	23,008,666	1,617,859,242
1921	Dispatched	3,992,769,865	48,758,863	4,041,528,718
	Received	3,989,309,281	45,890,304	4,035,199,585
1926	Dispatched	3,974,192,623	58,258,644	4,032,451,267
	Received	3,906,474,525	55,852,079	3,962,326,604
1929	Dispatched	5,096,611,368	63,650,583	5,160,261,951
	Received	5,046,099,425	60,654,644	5,106,754,069
1930	Dispatched	4,409,551,651	60,067,753	4,469,619,404
	Received	4,437,939,812	57,724,887	4,495,664,693

MAIL MATTER HANDLED IN 1930

		Ordinary mail	Parcel post
Japan Proper	Delivered	4,437,939,812	57,724,881
	Accepted	4,409,551,651	60,067,753
Taiwan	Delivered	78,453,079	1,246,984
	Accepted	66,793,328	676,610
Karafuto	Delivered	29,521,953	562,727
	Accepted	21,797,376	194,514
Chosen	Delivered	254,837,114	3,214,691
	Accepted	238,076,483	2,174,373
Kwantung Leased Territory	Delivered	63,061,900	1,076,306
	Accepted	56,316,602	421,275
South Sea Islands	Delivered	1,223,947	29,009
	Accepted	971,673	7,808

Quick delivery mail matter handled in 1930 totalled 8,565,443 packets, of which 4,253,932 were delivered and 4,311,511 accepted. The amount of air mail delivered in 1930 was 46,598 packages and of that accepted 94,089 packages.

NUMBER OF INWARD AND OUTWARD FOREIGN MAIL PACKAGES FOR 1930

Europe	To	4,513,884
	From	12,823,846
Africa	To	835,024
	From	207,961
America	To	5,759,882
	From	13,615,559
Asia	To	14,652,422
	From	13,983,572
Australia	To	1,069,060
	From	779,826
Total of outward foreign mail packages		26,380,277
Total of inward foreign mail packages		41,410,764

TIME REQUIRED FOR CONVEYANCE OF MAIL

From Various Places to Japan

For Shipping from and Arrival at Yokohama

To & from		
,,	Honolulu	9 days
,,	Vancouver	11 ,,
,,	Seattle	13 ,,
,,	Chicago	15 ,,
,,	Montreal	16 ,,
,,	Boston	16 ,,
,,	New York	16 ,,

For Shipping from and Arrival at Yokohama

To & from		
,,	Brisbane	24 days
,,	Mombasa (Kenya Col., B.E.A.)	37 ,,
,,	Callao (Peru)	47 ,,
,,	,, (via Seattle)	37 ,,
,,	Rio de Janeiro (via Siberia)	35 ,,
,,	Valparaiso (Eastern Route)	65 ,,
,,	,, (via Seattle)	41 ,,
,,	Port Said (via ports)	32 ,,
,,	,, (via Siberia)	24 ,,
,,	Buenos Aires (Eastern Route)	70 ,,
,,	,, (via Seattle)	35 ,,
,,	Surabaya	17 ,,
,,	Sydney	26 ,,

For Shipping from and Arrival at Shimonoseki (North China Route)

To & from		
,,	Dairen	3 days
,,	Tsingtao	3 ,,
,,	Tientsin	4 ,,

For Shipping from and Arrival at Moji and Kobé (Western Route)

To & from		
	Shanghai	2 days

To & from		
,,	Hankow	10 days
,,	Canton	8 ,,
,,	Saigon	14 ,,
,,	Hongkong	7 ,,
,,	Manila	10 ,,
,,	Singapore	13 ,,
,,	Penang	14 ,,
,,	Colombo	20 ,,
,,	Calcutta	24 ,,
,,	Bombay	24 ,,

For Dispatch and Arrival at Tokyo

(Siberia Route)

To & from		
,,	Harbin	5 days
,,	Chita	6 ,,
,,	Moscow	13 ,,
,,	Leningrad	13 ,,
,,	Berlin	14 ,,
,,	Vienna	14 ,,
,,	Hamburg	15 ,,
,,	London	15 ,,
,,	Paris	15 ,,
,,	Oslo	16 ,,
,,	Genoa	16 ,,
,,	Warsaw	13 ,,
,,	Rotterdam	15 ,,
,,	Brussels	15 ,,
,,	Madrid	17 ,,
,,	Alexandria	24 ,,
,,	Cape Town	38 ,,

Ordinary Mail

Ordinary mail matter in Japan is divided into five classes as follows :

1 (a) Letters : postage, 3 sen for every 15 grammes or a fraction thereof. (b) All printed, unsealed letters ; unsealed letters in raised letters for the blind ; unsealed letters with the greater portion thereof printed, posted by government or public offices, Shinto shrines, or Buddhist temples, schools, and other non-commercial corporations ; unsealed business reports notices, advices, invoices, statements of account, applications for contracts, letters accepting or refusing a contract, bills, receipts, letters pressing for payment of money or dispatch of goods ordered, estimates, etc. with the greater portion thereof printed ; postage 2 sen for every 35 grammes or a fraction thereof.

2 Ordinary post-cards ; postage 1½ sen each ; Return post-cards and sealed post cards ; postage 3 sen each.

3 (a) Monthly periodicals officially recognized as such ; postage ½ sen for each 75 grammes or a fraction thereof. (b) Daily newspapers officially recognized as such ; postage ½ sen for each 110 grammes or a fraction thereof. (c) Dailies in raised letters for the blind officially recognized as such ; postage ½ sen for 550 grammes or a fraction thereof.

4 (a) Books, printed matter, business papers, photographs, pictures, writings, drawings, samples of merchandise, specimens, etc.; postage 2 sen for 110 grammes or a fraction thereof. (b) Books, printed matter, and business papers, in raised letters for the blind ; postage 1 sen for 550 grammes or a fraction thereof. (c) Periodicals, other than those under Class 3, and issued more than once a month, of which more than 100 copies are posted a month as contract mail matter ; postage ½ sen for 500 grammes or a fraction thereof. (d) Printed matter in raised letters for the blind, and of the same kind as 4 (c); postage ½ sen for 550 grammes or a fraction thereof.

5 Seeds for agricultural products ; postage 1 sen for 110 grammes or a fraction thereof.

Domestic Postal Money Order

The limits for the sum which can be remitted by money order are fixed as follows :

1. The maximum sum allowed for ordinary money order is ¥ 300 per sheet.
2. ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, telegraphic remittance is ¥ 500 per sheet.
3. ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, postal note is ¥ 20.

All money orders are valid for 60 days.

The charges for postal money orders are as follows :

1. For ordinary money order ¥0.15 up to ¥20 ; 0.25 up to 50 ; 0.35 up to 100 ; 0.45 up to 150 ; 0.55 up to 200 ; 0.65 up to 250 ; 0.75 up to 300.
2. For telegraphic remittance ¥0.50 up to ¥20 ; 0.70 up to ¥50 ; 0.90 up to 100 ; 1.10 up to 150 ; 1.30 up to 200 ; 1.50 up to 250 ; 1.70 up to 300 ; 1.90 up to 350 ; 2.10 up to 400 ; 2.30 up to 500.
3. For postal note ¥0.03 up to ¥1 ; 0.05 up to 5 ; 0.07 up to 10 ; 0.10 up to 15 ; 0.13 up to 20.

Special Mail

Quick Delivery Mail for quick delivery is charged an additional 6 sen when addressed to a person living in an adjoining mail district. The maximum weight of parcel for quick delivery is fixed at 2 kilogrammes. For letters and other mail for quick delivery the words "for quick delivery" must be written thereon in red characters. The express delivery charge for air mail is 8 sen per package. Mail for transmission between Dairen and Chosen can be sent by express delivery at a special charge of 10 sen per package, with the exception of parcels for delivery in Keijo, weighing more than 2 kilogrammes.

Special Delivery There is a special delivery service for Japan proper, the charge for which is 30 sen for the first 8 kilogrammes on land, and 25 sen, for every additional 4 kilogrammes or a fraction thereof.

Reduced Rates Specially reduced postage rates are available when more than 100 packages of totally or almost entirely printed matter (sealed or unsealed), or any mail matter under Classes 3 and 4, are posted together for delivery within the city limits. The rates applied in the respective cases are as follows :

(a) Sealed letters 1-½ sen up to the first 15 grammes, and 1 sen for every additional 15 grammes or a fraction thereof.

(b) Unsealed letters 1-½ sen up to the first 35 grammes, and 1 sen for every additional 15 grammes or a fraction thereof.

(c) 3rd Class matter is handled in this case for 4/10 sen up to the first 75 grammes, and 3/10 sen for every extra 75 grammes or a fraction thereof. When more than 3,001 packages are posted, the rate for the first 75 grammes is reduced to 3/10 sen.

(d) 4th Class matter is handled in this case for 6/10 sen up to the first 110 grammes, and 5/10 sen for every additional 110 grammes or a fraction thereof. When more than 3,001 packages are posted together, postage for the first 110 grammes is reduced to 5/10 sen.

Notice to Receiver The charge for notice to a receiver that mail matter is being retained at the delivery office until called for is 3 sen.

Certificate of Contents The charge for certificates of contents of mail matter is 10 sen per copy when the original letter is completed on one sheet, and 4 sen for every additional page. The charge is reduced by one-half when more than two letters of the same contents are presented for certificates.

Declaration of Value The following amounts are charged to senders for declaration of the value of mail matter :

10 sen for every 10 yen to be remitted in addition to 10 sen for registration. When the package contains something other than money, the charge for declaration of value contained is reduced to 5 sen for every 10 yen of the amount declared. The maximum value of packages accepted as "value declared matter" is ¥1,000.

Money Collection The charges for money collection service are as follows :

5 sen up to 5 yen, 7 sen up to 10 yen, 10 sen up to 15 yen, 13 sen up to 20 yen, 25 sen up to 50 yen, 35 sen up to 100 yen, 45 sen up to 150 yen, 55 sen up to 200 yen, 75 sen up to 250 yen, 75 sen up to 300 yen, and 10 sen for every 100 yen or a fraction thereof exceeding 300 yen.

Parcel Post

Japan Proper Charges for parcel post in Japan proper are as follows :

(1) Within one mail district :

Up to	Ordinary post	Registered post
500 grammes	6 sen	12 sen
1,000 ,,	,,	,,
2,000 ,,	,,	,,
3,000 ,,	,,	,,
4,000 ,,	,,	,,
5,000 ,,	,,	,,
6,000 ,,	,,	,,

(2) Between different mail districts in Japan proper :

500 grammes	10 sen	15 sen
1,000 ,,	14 ,,	21 ,,
2,000 ,,	22 ,,	33 ,,
3,000 ,,	30 ,,	45 ,,
4,000 ,,	38 ,,	57 ,,
5,000 ,,	46 ,,	69 ,,
6,000 ,,	54 ,,	81 ,,

Japan Proper and Colonies Between Japan proper and Taiwan or Karafuto :

500 grammes	27 sen	42 sen
1,000 ,,	34 ,,	49 ,,
2,000 ,,	47 ,,	62 ,,
3,000 ,,	60 ,,	75 ,,
4,000 ,,	73 ,,	88 ,,
5,000 grammes	70 sen	94 sen
6,000 ,,	85 ,,	1 yen

Between Japan proper and Chosen, the Kwantung Leased Territory, or the South Sea Islands only registered parcels are accepted at the same rates as for Taiwan or Karafuto.

Japan and China The charges for parcel post between Japan and China are 45 sen up to 1,000 grammes, 60 sen up to 2,000 grammes, 90 sen up to 4,000 grammes, ¥1.20 up to 6,000 grammes, ¥1.50 up to 8,000 grammes, and ¥1.80 up to 10,000 grammes.

Size and Weight Limits

The size and weight limits of mail matter are as follows :

(1) Ordinary mail matter, 40x25 x15 centimetres, and 1,000 grammes for the 3rd, 4th, and 5th classes, and 350 grammes for samples.

(2) Parcel post ; 60x60x60 centimetres, or 90x15x15 centimetres, and 6,000 grammes. The weight limit on parcels between Japan and China is fixed at 10,000 grammes.

Parcels weighing more than 2,000 grammes can not be accepted for express delivery.

C. O. D. Parcels The charges for C. O. D. parcels post are : 3 sen up to 1 yen, 5 sen up to 5 yen, 7 sen up to 10 yen, 10 sen up to 15 yen, 13 sen up to 20 yen, 25 sen up to 50 yen, 35 sen up to 100 yen, 45 sen up to 150 yen, 55 sen up to 200 yen, 65 sen up to 250 yen, 75 sen up to 300 yen, and 10 sen for every additional 100 yen or a fraction thereof.

GENERAL RECORD OF POSTAL BUSINESS (1931)

Number of offices where mail matter is handled	10,248
Length of routes for transmission of ordinary mail matter	50,777 kilometres
Amount of ordinary mail matter accepted	4,490,202,875 packages
Amount of ordinary mail matter delivered	4,532,477,443 ,,
Length of routes for transmission of parcels	54,337 kilometres
Number of parcels accepted	58,201,931
Number of parcels delivered	55,654,590

Air Mail Service

Mail was transported by air in Japan for the first time in 1911 by an American aviator Mr. Atwater, between Tokyo and Yokohama. In February 1915, 1st and 2nd class mail was carried between Tokorozawa and Tokyo by means of an army machine. This was, however, unofficial business for experimental purposes.

Air Mail Official Inception Official transportation of mail by air in Japan was commenced on October 22, 1919 between Tokyo and Osaka. The service was gradually extended to Kurumé, Morioka, Kanazawa and Hiroshima. But the development of the business was cut short by the great earthquake of 1923. In April, 1925, air transport was resumed between Tokyo and Osaka, and Osaka and Fukuoka, the service being available twice a week. In May of the same year, the business was started between Osaka and Kanazawa. The establishment of the Japan Air Transportation Company in Tokyo in April, 1829, was a valuable contribution to the healthy development of the business, as it enabled the authorities to extend the service to parcel-post and quick delivery mail. The number of packages transported by air reached 11,000, including 1,600 parcels.

The Charges Mail matter to be transmitted by air, must be marked "Air mail" in red characters. The charges for this special service between any two places in Japan proper, or between Chosen and Dairen, are as follows (in addition to the ordinary postage):

1st Class (a) 15 sen per 15 grammes or a fraction thereof for sealed letters. (b) 15 sen per 35 grammes or a fraction thereof for unsealed letters.

2nd Class (a) 7 sen per ordinary post-card. (b) 15 sen per sealed post-card. (c) 7 sen for each of the two parts forming one return post-card.

3rd Class 25 sen per 75 grammes or a fraction thereof.

4th and 5th Classes 25 sen per 75 grammes or a fraction thereof. These charges are doubled for matter transmitted between Japan and Chosen.

Telegraph Service

The Charges

Within Same District Telegrams are accepted in most telegraph offices either in the Japanese syllabary, "kata kana", or in Roman script, this latter including foreign languages. The charges for telegrams in "kata kana" are as follows :

Within one telegraphic district ; 15 sen up to the first 15 syllables.

Japan Proper and Colonies In Japan proper (excluding the Bonin Islands)—30 sen up to first 15 syllables and 5 sen for every additional 5 syllables. Between Japan proper, or the Bonin Islands, and Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, and Yap in the South Sea Islands—40 sen up to the first 15 syllables, and 5 sen for every additional 5 syllables. The charge for telegraphic messages between Japan proper and Japanese dependencies not mentioned above, is 30 sen up to the first 15 syllables, and 5 sen for every additional 5 syllables.

Roman and Foreign Language Telegrams The charges for telegrams in Roman script or foreign languages are as follows :

Within one telegraphic district—15 sen for the first 5 words, and 3 sen for every additional word.

In Japan proper (excluding the

Bonin Islands) and the Bonin Islands, and Chosen, Taiwan Karafuto, and Yap in the South Sea Islands —45 sen for the first 5 words, and 5 sen for every additional word. The charge between Japan proper and places in Japanese dependencies not mentioned above is 30 sen for the first 5 words and 5 sen for every additional word.

Urgent and Repeated Double the usual charge is made for an urgent message. The cipher used to show that a message is urgent is "CL."

Important messages may be transmitted twice in order to avoid mistakes. The cipher used is "TC." This special arrangement may be made for an additional charge of 25% of the cost of the message.

Late and Early Telegrams An additional fee of 30 sen must be paid for telegraphic messages to be dispatched late at night or early in the morning. The cipher used is "SS". The following ciphers are also in use:

Cipher	Meaning
"RP"	Reply message prepaid.
"XP"	Special delivery.
"BD"	To be delivered by boat.
"TM"	Several messages of the same content dispatched to persons living in one delivery district.
"FS"	To be forwarded to the addressee, when he or she has removed to other places than that to which addressed.
"RF"	Message dispatched for the second time.
"PC"	Sender to be informed by wire of delivery of message.
"PP"	Sender to be informed by post of delivery of message.
"TR"	Message to be retained at delivery office until called for.
"PN"	Message to be forwarded by mail to a foreign country from the telegraph office nearest such foreign country.
"WT"	Sender awaiting reply at dispatch office.
"BS"	Message to be delivered up to a late hour at night.

Japan and China The fees for telegraphic messages between Japan and China are as follows: (a) 40 sen for the first 15 Japanese characters or a fraction thereof, and 5 sen for every 5 additional characters or a fraction thereof; (b) in Roman script 45 sen for the first 5 words or a fraction thereof, and 5 sen for every additional word.

Charges for cable messages between Japan and other countries vary in accordance with the routes used in transmission and places of delivery.

TELEGRAMS HANDLED IN 1930

		Domestic messages	Foreign messages
Japan Proper	Dispatched	57,382,506	1,183,861
	Delivered	59,925,616	1,224,974
Taiwan	Dispatched	1,447,831	32,692
	Delivered	1,492,161	40,852
Karafuto	Dispatched	1,094,370	415
	Delivered	1,042,839	1,171
Chosen	Dispatched	5,679,590	18,190
	Delivered	5,607,674	26,661
China	Dispatched	33,631	232,383
	Delivered	35,946	210,379
Kwantung Leased Territory	Dispatched	1,767,222	108,184
	Delivered	1,668,594	208,073

		Domestic messages	Foreign messages
South Sea Islands	Dispatched	87,604	1,573
	Delivered	95,343	351

Note: Messages between Japan and China are included in "Domestic Messages."

NUMBER OF TELEGRAPH OFFICES

		Japan Proper	Taiwan	Chosen	China	Kwantung Leased Territory
1st Class		7	1		3	
	Wireless	3	—	7		4
2nd Class		6	—	—	—	
	Wireless	38	3			
Total		51	4	7	3	4

SURVEY OF TELEGRAPH BUSINESS (1931)

Number of post and telegraph offices where telegrams are handled	7,711
Length of routes for the transmission of telegraphic messages	35,351 kilometres
Length of telegraph wires	349,644 "
Number of telegraphic instruments	10,673
" " telegraphic messages dispatched	56,923,585
" " telegraphic messages received	59,215,223

Wireless Telegraph Service

The study of wireless telegraphy was begun in Japan in 1896, or one year after the invention of wireless telegraphy by Mr. Marconi. In 1903, an experiment was made between Nagasaki and Taiwan by the Communications Department, with satisfactory results.

The First Station In November 1906, Japan sent her delegation to Berlin to represent her at the First World Conference on Wireless Telegraphy. In May, 1908, the first land wireless telegraph station was established in Choshi, (Chiba prefecture), whilst the first marine wireless telegraph equipment was set up on the Toyo Kisen liner "Tenyo Maru" in the same year. In July, 1908 wireless telegraph stations were established at Ohsezaki in Nagasaki prefecture, Ushiozaki in Wakayama prefecture and Tsunojima in Yamaguchi prefecture. In December, 1908, a wireless telegraph station was established at Ochiishi in Hokkaido. At the same time sets were installed on some of our ocean liners, Japan was thus placed on a more or less secure foundation in the sphere of wireless telegraphy.

The circulation of regulations for private wireless telegraph offices in October, 1915, greatly facilitated the healthy growth of the business, and the service was extended to wider areas. It was utilized for steamship communication, and contact was also made with steamers and between ships and land stations, and also between aeroplanes and steamers or stations on land. With the enforcement of a law for the establishment of wireless sets on steamers, the number of stations rapidly increased.

International Communication The extension of wireless communication with other countries started in Japan in 1915, when messages were exchanged between Ochiishi station and Petropavlovsk of Kamchatka. In 1916, the Funabashi station succeeded in exchanging messages with Hawaii. In 1920, the Iwaki station was established for handling messages between Japan and America. In 1925, the Government issued a law establishing the Japan Wireless Telegraph Company, with a view to

becoming absolutely independent of foreign telegraph companies, with whose co-operation Japan had been exchanging wireless messages with all other countries, except America, Russia, and China. As a first step to the attainment of the object in view, the authorities handed over the Iwaki station to the Japan Wireless Telegraph Company. In 1928 the authorities made an experiment with short wave communication between Tokyo and San Francisco, with satisfactory results. Ever since then the greater number of telegraphic messages between Japan and America have been transmitted by wireless.

In 1929, the construction of wireless telegraph stations in Miyé and Aichi prefectures was completed by the Japan Wireless Telegraph Company, which made direct communication possible between Japan and European countries.

An exchange of messages between Japan and the South Sea Islands was effected for the first time in October, 1927, when the Osaka station sent to and received messages from Manila. In May, 1928, the Osaka station succeeded in exchanging messages with Hanoi in French Indo-China. In October, 1929, the Tokyo station exchanged messages with the Dutch East Indies. At present the exchange of messages between Japan and various parts of the South Sea Islands is being conducted by means of wireless telegraphy. The Government is now planning to introduce an improvement in the Japanese wireless telegraph service, by means of the International Wireless Telegraph Company, recently established.

The Charges The present charges for wireless messages are 25 sen for the first 15 Japanese syllables or the first 5 foreign words, and 5 sen for every additional 5 Japanese syllables or one foreign word. When messages of the same content are dispatched to several persons living in one delivery district, the 2nd and subsequent messages may be dispatched for 15 sen each regardless of the length of the original messages.

Telephone Service

The following tables show the development and present scope of the telephone service :

COMPARATIVE SURVEY OF NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS

Year	Number
1890	343
1897	5,326
1907	58,626
1911	181,881
1921	371,613
1926	552,557
1930	696,382
1932	723,054

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO LOCAL BUREAUX

		Ordinary installation	Urgent installation
Communications	Tokyo Bureau	185,036	31,489
,,	Osaka Bureau	168,329	25,037
,,	Nagoya Bureau	78,518	23,558
,,	Hiroshima Bureau	38,062	22,236
,,	Kumamoto Bureau	43,911	19,469
,,	Sendai Bureau	36,268	19,554
,,	Sapporo Bureau	22,263	8,441
Total number for Japan Proper			572,377
Chosen		32,664	—
Taiwan		13,054	—
Kwantung Leased Territory		19,460	—
Karafuto		5,154	—
South Sea Islands		260	—
Total number for dependencies			70,592

GENERAL RECORD OF TELEPHONE BUSINESS (1931)

Number of offices where telephone messages are handled	6,102
,, ,, public telephone boxes	2,375
,, ,, subscribers for telephone service	727,914
,, ,, applicants for telephone service	171,807
Routes for the transmission of telephone messages	59,238
Length of telephone wires	5,426,293
Number of telephones	831,448
,, ,, telephone messages exchanged	3,326,147,722

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE EXCHANGES (September, 1932)

		Japan Proper	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory
1st Class	Central Offices	7	1	2
	Branch Offices	44		
2nd Class		1	2	1
Total		52	3	3

Wireless Telephone Service

The first experiment with wireless telephony in Japan was made in 1911 by the Communications Department, with very satisfactory results. It was in 1923, however, that the service was opened for public use between Kobé city and steamers in the harbour. In 1926, this service was extended to Moji. The result being satisfactory, the Government decided further to extend the service and in September, 1928, regulations for a wireless service were formally issued. Wireless telephones are now available between Tokyo, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Kobé, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Toyohashi, Nara, Himéji, Shimonoséki, Fukui, Fukuoka, Yawata, Wakamatsu, Nishinomiya, Amagasaki, Suma, etc.

The number of ships with which wireless telephone communication may be made is steadily increasing. According to official reports at the end of 1931, the following 11 boats were furnished with wireless telephone equipment :

Name	Owner	Description
Keifuku-Maru	Railway Department	Plying between Shimonoseki and Fusan
Shokei-Maru	,, ,,	,, ,, ,, ,, ,,
Tokuju-Maru	,, ,,	,, ,, ,, ,, ,,
Shintoku-Maru	Kobé Higher Mercantile Marine School	Training ship
Fukayé-Maru	,, ,,	,, ,,
Radio-Go	Kobé-Senpaku Tsuchisha	Anchored at Kobé
Harbin-Maru	Osaka Shosen Kaisha	Plying between Osaka and Dairen
Daichu-Maru	,, ,, ,,	,, ,, ,, Okinawa
Hongkong-Maru	,, ,, ,,	,, ,, ,, Dairen
America-Maru	,, ,, ,,	,, ,, ,, ,,
Dainan-Maru	,, ,, ,,	,, ,, ,, Okinawa

The effective range of the wireless telephone is at present about 100 miles.

Telephotograph Service

This service is only available between Tokyo and Osaka at the following charges :

1st class (18×26 centimetres)	¥8.00
2nd class (13×18 centimetres)	5.00
3rd class (8×18 centimetres)	3.00

Extra copies are transmitted for an additional fee of ¥1.00, 60 sen, and 40 sen respectively.

Statistics re Communications Services

The following general statistics are published by the Department of Communications :

REVENUE FROM POST, TELEGRAPH & TELEPHONE SERVICES (1930)

From sale of postage stamps	¥ 84,755,992
From Postal service	¥ 24,673,114
,, Telegraph service	10,600,550
,, Telephone service	108,852,198
Revenue from private post offices	381,963

Note: Revenue from the sale of postage stamps is inclusive of the postage paid in stamps as represented in other items mentioned above.

GENERAL RECORD (1931)

	Japan Proper	Chosen	Taiwan	Karafuto	Kwantung	South Sea Islands
Number of officials and employees of post, telegraph, and telephone services	167,962	12,513	3,711	1,443	2,753	172
Number of post, telegraph, and telephone offices	12,345	774	229	76	223	8
Number of shops where postage stamps are sold	68,397	4,750	1,432	528	517	12
Number of post boxes	74,190	5,975	1,883	599	694	23

Radio

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

Programmes

Their Complexity It is often said, however, that Japanese radio programmes are the most complex in the world. This is true in the sense that Japan does not have a single and uniform culture. The old and the modern exist side by side, the indigenous and the foreign. Programmes, in consequence, are arranged to meet divergent tastes, though the organizers' ingenuity is sometimes taxed to satisfy everyone daily, for one home in every 13 now has a receiving set. The principal cleavage is in music. Japanese music, both instrumental and vocal, of the classical type, is abundantly provided. On the other hand, music introduced from Europe and America is fast becoming popular. Young people, who understand it, generally prefer Western music, while old people, who do not understand it, would rather hear the music they have known since childhood. Consequently, whenever thirty minutes are given to music by the New Symphony Orchestra of Tokyo, thirty minutes are also devoted to purely Japanese music.

How They Are Made Much thought and care are being given to daily radio programmes. The officials of the seven key stations draw up tentative programmes for the following month and submit them to a conference of representatives of all 18 stations, which meets alternately in Tokyo and Osaka. The programmes are discussed in detail, and the nationwide relay features are determined. Variety is encouraged, but usually eighty per cent. of any one

programme originates in the Tokyo studios, no matter where it goes on the air, and is carried to the transmitter by telephone. Osaka contributes 15 per cent. and the remaining five per cent. is local. Since the addition of more power the JOAK, JOBK and JOCK stations can broadcast two different programmes at the same time.

A Typical Programme A typical JOAK programme starts with physical exercises at 6 o'clock in the morning. At 6.55 and 9, the day's weather report is given. Ten minutes after the second of these reports come the daily menu and commodity prices. A time signal is given at noon. From 12.05 to 12.40, the item may be music, a lecture or a short radio drama, followed by 20 minutes of news. If there is a baseball game at the Meiji Shrine grounds or some other major athletic event, a descriptive account usually goes on the air early in the afternoon, though on a different wave length from that of the ordinary programme. The most important programme is in the evening. Starting at 6 o'clock, 30 minutes are set aside for children. They may hear music, a story or a play, and always there is presentation of the day's news in terms that make it comprehensible and interesting. Except on Sundays and national holidays, five minutes are devoted to news in English, both to inform foreign listeners in Japan and to give Japanese students practice in listening to the principal foreign language taught in the schools. The rest of the evening is taken up with music, lectures and drama, with perhaps an occasional radio story for adults. Very rarely does the programme extend beyond 10 o'clock.

The Development

The First Programme The first radio programme in Japan went on the air on March 22, 1925, five years after the world's first regular commercial broadcasting by the station KDKA, East Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The station, using the call letters JOAK, was in Tokyo, and it had a power of only 500 watts. This station, established temporarily at Shibaura, on the water front of Tokyo Harbour, was replaced in July by a 1 kw. station at Atagoyama, a hill in the southern part of Tokyo. In the difficult times following the great earthquake and fire of September, 1923, which laid waste a greater part of Tokyo, the radio played an important part in comforting and encouraging the citizens who were working hard to rebuild their city and their homes.

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

The Subscribers The association

started with 338,000 subscribers; today it has more than 1,200,000. It had been decided from the very beginning to sell broadcasting directly to those most interested, the listeners. This was done through subscriptions, a system which has become permanent. The would-be listener, paying a fee of one yen, applies to the Government for permission to own a receiving set. When sanction is obtained, the Japan Radio Broadcasting Association issues a subscription card and collects 75 sen monthly. Without cost to the Government and without selling programme time to advertisers, the association has thus been and is able to finance the development of broadcasting.

The Stations The development so far made has been in two directions, an increase in the number of stations and improvement in programmes. In the beginning there were three stations. Now there are 25, and several more are to be added during the next two years. As the association was meant to be nation-wide, every section of Japan had to be considered. The directors called in the engineers and explained the problem. Broadcasting had to be available in any home anywhere in the country. The engineers pointed out that the geographical formation of Japan, which stretches more than 3,380 kilometres from Hokkaido to Taiwan, broken by rugged mountains, made it advisable to broadcast from a number of stations suitably located. The country was divided into seven districts, in each of which a 10-kw. station has been built. These—in Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya, Hiroshima, Kumamoto, Sendai and Sapporo—are the key stations. The remaining 18 are relay stations, ranging in power from 300 watts to 3 kilowatts. Their purpose is to bring the programmes of the seven key stations closer to the listeners, saving them the expense of powerful receiving sets. For double broadcasting, the power of the Tokyo station has been increased to 20 kilowatts, and a similar increase has been made at Osaka and Nagoya for the same purpose.

International Broadcasting In 1930 Japan was able to undertake international broadcasting. The message of King George at the opening of the Naval Conference in London was clearly heard, and two weeks later the chief of the Japanese delegation, Baron (then Mr.) Reijiro Wakatsuki, spoke to the nation from the Dorchester Broadcasting Station. When the treaty was signed, congratulatory messages were exchanged among Mr. Hamaguchi, the Japanese Prime Minister, President Hoover and Mr. MacDonald, the British Prime Minister. On Christmas Eve, 1930, the JOAK station relayed to the Japanese audience a programme from New York. An exchange of broadcasting between Japan and Manchuria was made when the new state of Manchoukuo was founded in 1931. At present radio is broadcasted from Mukden, Manchoukuo, to Japan several times a week.

L. A. Olympic Games Of specific importance and popularity was the broadcasting from Los Angeles during the Olympic Games last summer. Because of popular interest in Japan, the Japan Radio Broadcasting Association made an arrangement whereby a description of each big event would be broadcast to Japan. Difficulties, however, prevented transmission from the stadium itself. The announcers therefore minutely observed each event and broadcast from another station. The Olympic broadcast, which lasted from 12 noon to 1 o'clock each day for the two weeks, proved extremely popular with Japanese listeners. After the Olympic Games Tokyo was connected with Geneva by radio in December, 1932, when Mr. Yosuké Matsuoka, Japan's chief delegate to the League of Nations, addressed the nation through the air.

Arrangement with Foreign Stations Japan at present has no regular international broadcasting except the arrangement with Manchoukuo. The geographical position of Japan and the time handicap to which the country is subjected because of distance are considered the chief reasons. Japan is located in a remote corner of the earth for this sort of broadcasting. Asia, the nearest continent, is practically without radio development, and with programmes from the United States and Europe the time difference is a handicap. When it is 6 o'clock in the evening in Tokyo, the time the radio audience reaches its maximum number, it is 4 o'clock in the morning in New York and 8 o'clock in the morning in London. In the Olympic broadcasting, the location of Los Angeles made it possible to receive at noon in Tokyo what was transmitted at 7 o'clock in the evening, Pacific time. Once arrangements are made to overcome the time handicap, the Japan Radio Broadcasting Association will be eager to increase international programmes.

The J. R. B. A. The Japan Radio Broadcasting Association was organized on August 20, 1925. The organization, being a public service corporation with no desire for profit, obtained a special charter with right to control and operate the whole broadcasting service in Japan and to undertake any scheme for the promotion of radio science, although all work is subject to the supervision of the Ministry of Communications. The corporation is headed by Mr. Kenzo Iwahara, former chairman of the Board of Directors of the Tokyo Broadcasting Station.

The managing director is assisted by a director of secretariat, who is charged with the finance and budget; by the director of promotion, who is concerned with the general promotion of the service and foreign relations, and by the chief engineer, who also holds the office of technical director and head of the research laboratory. The regular headquarters inspector is authorized to inspect the business and finance of the entire organization. Each regional division is headed by an executive chief of the board of directors for divisional affairs.

The work of the chief of a divisional board is handled by the divisional managing director who manages the entire divisional work, assisted by a divisional director of secretariat, a programme director, a technical director, and a branch head, who is in charge of a small relay station. In some cases counsellors are attached to the chief of the board to act conjointly on certain important matters. The divisional board of directors are re-elected every two years by members of the corporation who belong to the particular division.

CHAPTER XXVI

LAND AND AIR TRANSPORTATION

State Railways

Historical Background

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

Tokyo-Yokohama and Other Lines The work between Shimbashi and Yokohama was completed in September, 1872, while the Kobé-Osaka line was opend to traffic in 1874 and its further extension to Kyoto in 1877. These sections have practically formed the nucleus of what now constitutes the Tokaido Line, one of the main arteries of railway traffic in Japan. In 1880, the Kyoto-Otsu section was completed and in 1884 a further extension with a length of 41.834 kilometres between Tsuruga and Nagahama, a town along Lake Biwa, was completed and opened to traffic in pursuance of the railway idea of linking up the Pacific and the Japan Sea. Meanwhile, a survey was made on the Otaru-Horonai section in Hokkaido, where colonization work was being strenuously encouraged, construction of this section was undertaken and the 88.495 kilometre length was opened to business in 1882, thus bringing the total length of railway under Government ownership toward the close of 1884 to 185.035 kilometres.

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

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

The Railway Construction Law In view of the industrial progress being made in the country there was an urgent demand for the speedy construction of more railways. The entire length of Japanese railways at that time amounted to only 2,574.4 kilometres and as many as 5,792.4 kilometres were needed to complete the railway network over the whole country. The bulk of these contemplated lines was in remote districts with no prospect of immediate profit, and on that account did not appeal to private enterprise. These circumstances showed both the Government and the public the advisability of State acquisition of private lines and opinion was further strengthened by the financial failure of some of the private concerns. In view of this, in 1892, the Railway Construction Law was passed and the Government set to work constructing important lines. The law embodied a comprehensive programme of railway building and contained the guiding principles on which the railway system of Japan was founded. At the same time the matter of consolidating the different lines into one complete system was being studied by a committee of enquiry appointed by the Government. The acquisition of private railways was accomplished in October, 1907, the subsidiary businesses being taken over at the same time. Immediately after nationalization the State Railways were organized under a Railway Bureau, which was directly responsible to the Cabinet. But in May, 1920, a separate Department of State was created to deal with railway affairs and the Minister of Railways was appointed to control it.

Railway Network

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

The total length of State lines not yet opened to business on March 31,

CHAPTER XXVI

LAND AND AIR TRANSPORTATION

State Railways

Historical Background

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

Tokyo-Yokohama and Other Lines The work between Shimbashi and Yokohama was completed in September, 1872, while the Kobé-Osaka line was opend to traffic in 1874 and its further extension to Kyoto in 1877. These sections have practically formed the nucleus of what now constitutes the Tokaido Line, one of the main arteries of railway traffic in Japan. In 1880, the Kyoto-Otsu section was completed and in 1884 a further extension with a length of 41.834 kilometres between Tsuruga and Nagahama, a town along Lake Biwa, was completed and opened to traffic in pursuance of the railway idea of linking up the Pacific and the Japan Sea. Meanwhile, a survey was made on the Otaru-Horonai section in Hokkaido, where colonization work was being strenuously encouraged, construction of this section was undertaken and the 88.495 kilometre length was opened to business in 1882, thus bringing the total length of railway under Government ownership toward the close of 1884 to 185.035 kilometres.

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

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

The Railway Construction Law In view of the industrial progress being made in the country there was an urgent demand for the speedy construction of more railways. The entire length of Japanese railways at that time amounted to only 2,574.4 kilometres and as many as 5,792.4 kilometres were needed to complete the railway network over the whole country. The bulk of these contemplated lines was in remote districts with no prospect of immediate profit, and on that account did not appeal to private enterprise. These circumstances showed both the Government and the public the advisability of State acquisition of private lines and opinion was further strengthened by the financial failure of some of the private concerns. In view of this, in 1892, the Railway Construction Law was passed and the Government set to work constructing important lines. The law embodied a comprehensive programme of railway building and contained the guiding principles on which the railway system of Japan was founded. At the same time the matter of consolidating the different lines into one complete system was being studied by a committee of enquiry appointed by the Government. The acquisition of private railways was accomplished in October, 1907, the subsidiary businesses being taken over at the same time. Immediately after nationalization the State Railways were organized under a Railway Bureau, which was directly responsible to the Cabinet. But in May, 1920, a separate Department of State was created to deal with railway affairs and the Minister of Railways was appointed to control it.

Railway Network

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

The total length of State lines not yet opened to business on March 31,

1932, was 3,491 kilometres representing 723 kilometres of lines under construction and 2,767 kilometres of lines sanctioned, but not started on within the year. As compared with the preceding year the lines under construction decreased by 31 kilometres and those to be started on decreased by 990 kilometres.

Organization and Staff

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

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

On the State Railways of Japan the members of the staff are either Government officials or employees. On March 31, 1932, there were altogether 198,678 servants in the employment of the State Railways as against 204,564 in the preceding year. The total salary for the year under review was ¥134,296,222. This shows a drop of ¥2,142,845 (1.6%) from the year before. The average annual salary was ¥676.

Finance By Railway Special Account Law, enforced since 1909, the budget of the State Railways was made separate of the general finances of the State. Furthermore, the law provides that all capital expenditure for railway construction and improvement should be met from the revenue accruing from all sources of traffic and that the expenditure should, in case the revenue is not sufficient to cover it, be supplemented by the proceeds of public loans issued as a charge on this special account.

Means of Attracting Tourists

With a view to encouraging travel and disseminating knowledge regarding the railways, the State has carried out a great deal of propaganda in divers ways, expositions, fairs, motion pictures or distribution of literature. Different places of interest and the customs and manners of different places have been introduced to the public in this manner. Motion pictures likely to promote a knowledge of, and interest in, travel are produced from time to time and, besides being shown free of charge at the cinema hall in the Railway Museum, are frequently rented to tourist clubs, students' associations having travel as their object, and even to managers of private cinema halls. During the year the number of cases in which they were rented reached 3,285. In July, 1930, when an American tourist party, including Mr. Fitzpatrick and others, visited Japan, the State Railways presented him with a series of films, such as "Five Lakes at the foot of Mt. Fuji", "The Tenryu River", "Mt. Shirouma" and "Japan in Cherry-Flower Season", and on the advice of the American expert these pictures were reproduced in two films entitled "Japan in the Cherry-Flower Season" and "The Island Empire" Three hundred copies of these films were sent free to the United States, mostly to managers of picture halls. Besides, some copies of films including "Japan in the Cherry-Flower Season" and two others were contributed to a tourist association in the Soviet Union and one in Australia through the Foreign Office of Japan. The State Railways publish from time to time a number of publications relative to railways and travel, most of them being distributed to those interested in these matters. Institutes or bodies provided with these publications are colleges, schools, libraries, hotels, provincial railway offices, shipping concerns, the South Manchuria Railway Company and other business concerns, offices of the Japan Tourist Bureau, Japan Hotel Association and other travel associations, while some of the literature was placed on sale at book stores or vendors' stalls at railway stations. The recent growth of interest in travel, especially for short trips, among Japanese people is remarkable. Taking advantage of this tendency the Railways have published numberless plans of trips, such as "A Day's Trip to and from Tokyo," etc. These plans are advertised in the leading newspapers and magazines of Tokyo.

Traffic

Freight and passengers carried by the State Railways in Japan proper since 1914-15 follow:

Fiscal years	Freight	Passengers	Freight revenues	Passenger revenues	Daily average revenue per km.
	metric tons	(unit in 1,000)	(¥ 1,000)	(¥ 1,000)	(In yen)
1914-15	35,837,241	166,092	51,750	54,671	33

Fiscal years	Freight	Passengers	Freight revenues	Passenger revenues	Daily average revenue per km.
	metric tons	(unit in 1,000)	(¥1,000)	(¥1,000)	(In yen)
1919-20	60,999,557	357,881	131,809	161,546	81
1921-22	58,312,333	454,535	167,241	214,519	99
1922-23	65,095,702	512,754	179,220	232,301	103
1923-24	65,818,955	579,288	178,109	249,563	102
1924-25	71,178,263	640,828	194,563	259,047	105
1925-26	73,090,274	683,568	195,786	262,074	103
1926-27	74,760,409	740,333	201,609	266,199	101
1927-28	78,621,788	795,722	211,749	271,523	101
1928-29	79,762,959	847,300	220,686	285,337	103
1929-30	77,224,824	862,939	217,949	279,050	99
1930-31	64,087,099	824,152	184,146	255,086	84
1931-32	60,590,307	787,223	176,128	239,972	77

The prolonged economic depression, particularly in farming and industry, was reflected on the railway traffic business, as both the passenger fares and freight receipts went off sharply from the year before. The passenger fares for the term under review amounted to ¥208,876,884, showing a drop of ¥13,159,346, and freight receipts totalled ¥173,738,361, representing a drop of ¥8,120,860 from the preceding fiscal year.

Motor Car Service The Department of Railways inaugurated a motor car passenger service between Okazaki and Tajimi and between Seto-Kinembashi and Kozoji for a distance of 65 kilometres in the business sphere of the Nagoya Regional Office during the 1930-31 fiscal year. This was the first venture of the kind and as the results proved satisfactory the Department opened similar services between Mitajiri and Yamaguchi over a distance of 17 kilometres in the business sphere of the Moji Regional Office and between Kameyama and Mikumo and between Omi and Kurokawa over a total distance of 42 kilometres in the business sphere of the Osaka Regional Office during the 1931-32 fiscal year. Motor car passengers carried during the year under review numbered 784,527 and motor car goods carried totalled 6,014 tons. The passenger fares amounted to. ¥154,092 and freight receipts ¥9,921, with a total of ¥164,013. Details are:

MOTOR CAR PASSENGER SERVICE

Regional offices	Passengers carried	Daily passengers	Passenger fares	Daily fares
Nagoya	605,617	1,655	¥100,236	¥.17
Osaka	4,693	670	1,093	.23
Moji	174,217	534	52,763	.30
Total	784,527	2,144	154,092	.20
Compared with the year before	in. 659,663	in. 920	in. 129,547	—

MOTOR CAR FREIGHT SERVICE

Regional offices	Goods carried	Average daily goods	Freight receipts	Average ton receipts
	tons	tons	yen	yen
Nagoya	5,931	16	9,786	1.65
Osaka	83	16	135	1.65
Total	6,014	16	9,921	1.65
Compared with the year before	in. 4,330	de. 1	in. 7,072	de. .04

Steamer Passengers The Department of Railways' steamer passengers carried for the year under review numbered 6,957,070, of whom 1,954,126 passengers were not through railway and steamer passengers. The total fares were ¥4,426,011. Goods transported amounted to 2,435,425 tons, of which 18,813 tons were not through railway and steamer goods. Total freights received were ¥5,194,453. As compared with the year before, passengers decreased 73,586, or 1 per cent. and the fares decreased ¥439,510, or 9 per cent.; goods went off 277,083 tons, or 10.2 per cent., and the receipts went off ¥344,326, or 6.2 per cent. Details follow:

Regional offices	Passengers No.	Passengers Fares	Goods Tons	Goods Freights
Osaka	669,982 (90,367)	¥260,425	117,589 (467)	¥187,991
Moji	5,510,452 (1,788,942)	2,650,335	1,493,133 (14,074)	1,761,237
Sapporo	776,636 (74,817)	1,515,251	824,603 (3,542)	3,245,225
Total	6,957,070 (1,954,126)	4,426,011	2,435,425 (18,083)	5,194,453
Compared with the year before	de. 73,586 (de.) (5,539)	de. 439,510	de. 277,083 (de.) (1,959)	de. 344,326

N. B. Figures in brackets are not through railway and steamship passengers.

Working Receipts The aggregate working receipts of the Department of Railways for the 1931-32 fiscal year amounted to ¥427,061,128, representing a drop of ¥23,842,305 from the preceding fiscal year. The receipts are summarized as follows:

Regional office	Railway receipts: Passenger fares	Railway receipts: Freight receipts	Railway receipts: Total	Motor car and shipping receipts	Total
		(In yen)			
Tokyo	74,427,707	32,368,764	106,796,471	—	106,796,471
Nagoya	43,658,605	35,902,941	79,561,546	—	79,676,687
Osaka	54,186,293	28,450,580	82,636,873	598,406	83,121,395
Moji	33,899,732	29,053,161	62,952,893	5,049,726	68,002,619
Sendai	22,153,751	25,247,663	47,401,414	—	47,401,414
Sapporo	11,645,624	25,101,131	36,746,755	5,315,787	42,062,542
Total	239,971,712	176,124,240	416,095,952	10,865,176	427,061,128
Compared with the year before	de. 15,114,518	de. 8,022,659	de. 368,062	de. 705,128	de. 23,842,305

Hotel Service The railway hotel guests at the Sanyo Hotel, Shimonoséki, and Nara Hotel, Nara, for the year numbered 7,546. The total hotel income was ¥263,241 as against ¥253,797, showing a profit of ¥9,444, in contrast with a loss of ¥11,838 for the year before.

Accidents The number of accidents reported on the State Railways for the year was 5,109, and the casualties numbered 2,916. This shows a drop of 930 casualties from the year before. The railway suicides numbered 2,431, a gain of 258 over the year before. The Department of Railways' shipping accidents totalled 438, a drop of 57 from the year before.

Construction

Railway construction expenses for the 1931-32 fiscal year totalled ¥37,706,907 in contrast with ¥41,715,774 for the 1930-31 year and ¥68,906,647 for the 1929-30 year. The length of new lines sanctioned, but not yet opened, at the end of the year totalled 3,491 kilometres, of which work was going on for 723 kilometres and no work was yet done on 2,767. These railways follow :

Construction offices	Lines under construction (In kilometres)	Lines not yet opened
Hokkaido	139	256
Morioka	26	167
Akita	40	122
Nagaoka	90	110
Tokyo	86	98
Atami	20	78
Gifu	91	414
Yonako	49	206
Okayama	71	273
Kochi	8	60
Yamaguchi	32	125
Kumamoto	65	393
Undecided offices	—	457
Total	723	2,767

Tanna Tunnel

The Tanna Tunnel work is one of the most difficult pieces of railway engineering ever undertaken in Japan. In order to eliminate the steep grade of 2½:100 met with on the Tokaido (Tokyo-Kyoto) Main Line a new line is being built. This has necessitated the driving of a double-track tunnel 8.045 km. long through one of the most difficult mountainous districts of the world on account of the hot-springs, gushing w[illegible]r and sand faults met with. Not [illegible] will this tunnel, when compl[eted], eliminate the grade above mentioned but will also shorten the distance between Tokyo and the west by some 48.27 km. This tunnel is near the Atami hot-spring resort. It is the nineteenth longest in the world and second in Japan. The tunnelling work was commenced in July, 1918, from both ends and until December, 1929, each heading had advanced as follows : East side (Atami side) 2,989 metres and West side (Mishima side) 2,455.25 metres. The rock strata through which the tunnel is being driven mainly consist of agglomerate containing andesite of various kinds. The excavation had been carried on rather smoothly through ordinary agglomerate before February, 1922, on the west side and November, 1924, on the east side with the result that 1,506.70 metres and 2,440 metres respectively had been driven. After that time several faults, the friction breccia of which is 12.20 metres to 15.25 metres thick were encountered and serious difficulties, due to the enormous earth-pressure and abundance of water with high pressure have been unexpectedly retarding the progress. At one of these dislocations met in May, 1925, on the west side, the maximum water flow reached 92.57 cubic metre per second and several thousand cubic metres of mud were forced out, causing a serious accident. To drive through these faults various methods such as high pressure cement grouting, compressed air and small shield, were adopted with success, though entailing many troubles and tardy progress. The tunnel is to pass under the Tanna basin, a circular depression of about 2.09 km. in diameter at an altitude of 234.85 metres above the sea level. Judging from the result of a test boring several years ago, this basin was caused by a dislocation and as it is the bed of an ancient lake, it is expected that several bad dislocations of the same nature as before met with will have to be driven through in the future and the water on both sides may increase as the work goes on. For this reason, a permanent drain tunnel of 6×6 inside was built about 12.20 metres away from the main tunnel, running parallel to it, both on the east and west sides. The District Construction Office of the Government Railways is situated at Atami Town. The big earthquake of 1930 that overtook Atami and other districts of the Izu Peninsula is supposed to have originated in the Tanna Tunnel because of a change of geological conditions following the tunnelling work. The earthquake did much damage to the construction and work was forced to be suspended for a while, but it was resumed later and before the end of the fiscal year under review 86 per cent. of the whole work was completed.[1]

Total Length

The total business length of the State Railways for the 1931-32 fiscal year was 14,910 kilometres and the total length of line 24,583, showing an increase of 423 kilometres or 2.9 per cent. in the former and 574 kilometres or 2.4 per cent. in the latter. Details are :

Regional offices	Business mileage	Total length of rails
	(In kilometres)	
Tokyo	1,912	4,423
Nagoya	1,117	3,087
Osaka	2,721	4,582
Moji	2,612	4,258
Sendai	2,981	4,117
Sapporo	2,900	4,113
Total	14,910	24,583
Compared with the year before	in. 423	in. 574

NEW STATE RAILWAY LINES OPENED TO BUSINESS DURING 1931-32 FISCAL YEAR

Regional offices	Name of lines	Operating sections	Length in kilometres
Tokyo	Hakko South Line	Hachioji-Higashi Hanno	25
"	Suigun South Line	Azumakan-Iwaki-Hanawa-Ono-Kodama	10
"	Hakko North Line	Mizukami-Echogo Yuzawa	35
"	Narita	Sahara-Sasakawa	17
Total			101
Nagoya	1 line		8
Osaka	16 lines		47
Sendai	7 lines		84
Sapporo	5 lines		101
Grand total	33 lines		413

Workshops

The number of factory operatives of the Department of Railways at the end of the 1931-32 fiscal year was 14,677, to whom the monthly salary of ¥919,016 was paid. The factory production for the year totalled ¥30,510,598, showing a drop of ¥5,150,776 from the year before. Of this production, ¥21,711,955 was for the repairing of rolling stock ; ¥2,903,658 for the improvement of rolling stock ; ¥2,041,763 for the manufacturing of rolling stock ; and ¥10,253,896 for the manufacturing and repairing of railway stores. The factory production for the year follows :

REPAIRS	
Steam locomotives	3,307
Electric locomotives	92
Bogey passenger cars	10,097
Electric cars	1,936
Freight cars	82,301
MANUFACTURING	
1st class dining cars	3
1st class observation cars	2
1st class sleeping cars	1

[1] Since the above was written news has come through that the borings from either end have met.

2nd class sleeping cars	2
1st and 2nd class sleeping cars and brake-van	1
1st and 2nd class observation cars	—
2nd class dining cars	5
2nd class sleeping cars and brake-van	2
Imperial Court cars	8
Electric cars	53
Rotary snow ploughs	5

RECONSTRUCTION

Steam locomotives	817
Electric locomotives	53
Passenger cars	1,669
Electric cars	941
Freight service	121,719

Rolling Stock

The total value of rolling stock was ¥633,562,072, representing a drop of ¥3,184,956 from the year before. The amount of rolling stock owned by the State Railways at the end of the year under review was 3,892 steam locomotives weighing 326,530 tons; 119 electric locomotives weighing 8,080 tons; and 5 special locomotives weighing 157 tons, with the total of 4,016 weighing 334,768 tons, showing a drop of 173 cars and 2,117 tons from the year before.

The number of passenger cars at the end of the year was 10,766 with accommodating capacity for 654,206 people showing a drop of 810 cars and capacity of 21,353 from the year before. The number of freight cars was 65,138 with carrying capacity of 868,945 tons, indicating a drop of 3,215 cars and 27,321 tons from the year before.

Electric Power

The State Railways had four stations, 28 sub-stations and 14 transforming stations at the end of the year with the following capacity:

Dynamos		Prime motors		Converters		Transformers	
No.	Volume h.p.	No.	Volume k.v.a.	No.	Volume kw.	No.	Volume k.v.a.
12	108,840	12	89,542	101	185,001	370	621,416
de. 4	de. 4,390	de. 4	de. 2,674	in. 14	in. 15,616	de. 7	in. 58,980

Electric power supplied by the State Railways electric power stations for the year amounted to 277,135,763 kw.h., for which ¥1,978,774 of expenses were required. The net expense per kw.h. was less than 8 rin (¥0.008). As compared with the year before, the supply gained 97,998,287 kw.h. and expenses gained ¥330,467, but the kw.h. expense went off 3.04 sen. Power supplied to the sub-stations for the year totalled 264,064,932 kw.h. with expenses of ¥4,369,172. The kw.h. expense was 1.6 sen. As compared with the year before, the power supply gained 25,205,364 kw.h., but expenses went off ¥1,393,054. The kw.h. expense declined 7.57 rin.

Finance

The State Railway revenue for the 1931-32 fiscal year totalled ¥124,078,338 (against ¥123,089,803 for the 1930-31 fiscal year and ¥186,072,686 for the 1929-30 fiscal year), while expenditure totalled ¥110,969,380 (against ¥126,103,100 for the 1930-31 fiscal year and ¥194,106,335 for the 1929-30 fiscal year).

As regards the stores accounts for the year under review, the revenue totalled ¥114,972,608 (against ¥137,347,701 for the 1930-31 fiscal year and ¥196,004,844 for the 1929-30 fiscal year) and expenditure totalled ¥107,649,997 (against ¥136,951,065 for the 1930-31 fiscal year and ¥194,210,005 for the 1929-30 fiscal year). In the profit and loss account, the revenue totalled ¥528,606,775 as against expenditure of ¥460,155,013. The balance of profit was ¥68,451,762. Details follow:

REVENUE

	1931-32	1930-31 (In yen)	1929-30
Traffic income	429,153,146	453,297,875	511,967,434
Miscellaneous income	7,839,219	7,872,645	8,543,368
Provisional income and advances repaid	91,614,410	91,402,014	102,322,824
Total	528,606,775	552,572,534	622,833,626

EXPENDITURE

Business expenses	269,656,045	288,765,331	309,024,435
Interest and loan payment	87,885,730	86,241,915	82,993,964
Payments and advances	95,087,680	94,449,903	104,817,174
Secret expenses	27,440	28,000	40,000
Subsidy for provincial railways	7,498,118	7,499,934	6,968,545
Profit	68,451,762	75,587,461	118,989,508

The gross profit of the year under review ¥166,905,809 represents 4.9 per cent. of the total assets of ¥3,382,820,115 at the beginning of the fiscal year. This shows a drop of 0.4 per cent. from the year before. The net profit for the year is ¥68,451,762, after expenses for supervision services, rail investigation, reserve funds, interest, debt accounts and subsidy for provincial railways are deducted from the profit.

Business income, expenses and profit for one business day per one kilometre on the basis of the foregoing figures follow:

FISCAL YEAR 1931-32

	Per day	Per business kilometre	Per day per kilometre
Business income '31-32	¥ 1,184,536	¥ 29,283	¥ 80
'30-31	1,255,178	31,806	87
Business expenses '31-32	728,509	18,009	49
'30-31	780,339	19,774	54
Profit '31-32	456,026	11,273	30
'30-31	474,839	12,032	32
Ratio of business expenses to business income '31-32	6.15%	6.15%	6.15%
'30-31	6.22	6.22	6.22

The Assets The railway assets at the end of the 1931-32 fiscal year totalled ¥3,462,322,624. Details follow:

	Proper assets	Borrowed assets (In yen)	Total
Value at the beginning of 1931-32 fiscal year	1,639,593,577	1,743,226,538	3,382,820,115
Gain during the year	78,141,189	185,445,126	263,586,315
Decrease during the year	44,977,138	139,106,668	184,083,806
Value at the end of 1931-32 fiscal year	1,672,757,628	1,789,564,996	3,462,322,624
Value at the end of 1930-31 fiscal year	1,639,593,577	1,743,226,538	3,382,820,115
Value at the end of 1929-30 fiscal year	1,580,497,834	1,704,668,059	3,285,165,893

The value of fixed assets at the beginning of the 1931-32 fiscal year totalled ¥3,347,392,462, showing an increase of ¥66,393,551 during the period. At the end of the same fiscal year the value totalled ¥3,413,786,013, in contrast with ¥3,347,392,462 for the 1930-31 fiscal year and ¥3,246,724,943 for the 1929-30 fiscal year.

Private Railways

General The private railways having acquired permission for construction during the 1931-32 fiscal year numbered 16 with the total length of 75 kilometres. Their construction expenses were estimated at ¥9,758,734, showing an increase of ¥8,667,232 in the estimated cost of construction over the year before. Private railways having lost the privilege of construction for not having started work within the required period numbered 27 within the year under review and their estimated cost of construction was ¥58,702,427, showing a decrease of 15 railways and estimated construction cost of ¥4,600,073 from the year before. During the period eight private railways of 72 kilometres commenced operation. The status of provincial railways in operation and those not opened yet at the end of the 1931-32 fiscal year follow :

	No.	Length (kilometres)	Construction cost (In yen)
Railways in operation	266	7,192	994,495,742
Compared with the year before	in. 4	in. 173	in. 78,332,588
Railways not opened yet	198	4,335	888,435,370
Compared with the year before	de. 2	de. 432	de. 56,525,224

Traffic Looking over the private railway passenger traffic for the year under review, passengers carried numbered 420,908,801 (a drop of 7,461,759 from the preceding fiscal year), for which the total fares of ¥56,980,141 (a drop of ¥2,409,524 from the year before) was realized. The average fare per passenger was, for the year, ¥.135. Goods transported by the private railways totalled 22,666,760 tons (a drop of 283,117 from the preceding year), for which freight of ¥17,956,090 (a drop of ¥1,775,426) was realized. The freight receipts per ton were ¥.792. Railway accidents for the year numbered 1,959 and the number of casualties 763.

Rolling Stock The amount of rolling stock at the end of the fiscal year was 997, of which steam locomotives were 811, electric locomotives 180 and gasoline locomotives 6, with the total weight of 26,219 tons, showing an increase of 12 cars and 60 tons. The number of passenger cars was 11,609 with total loading capacity of 113,851 tons, showing a gain of 103 cars and 3,603 tons over the year before.

Finance Business income and expenses for the private railways for the year follow :

	Total (In yen)	Compared with 1930-31 fiscal year (In yen)
Business income :		
Passengers	58,975,545	de. 2,360,665
Goods	17,968,583	de. 1,775,751
Miscellaneous traffic income	1,792,321	de. 164,022
Other income	4,395,794	de. 408,622
Total	83,132,243	de. 4,709,060
Business expenses :		
Maintenance	7,931,805	de. 919,926
Train	18,322,406	de. 1,528,399
Traffic	13,597,871	de. 809,877
General expenses	4,928,548	de. 281,266

	Total (In yen)	Compared with 1930-31 fiscal year (In yen)
Business expenses	3,078,341	de. 1,075,656
Taxes	47,858,971	de. 4,614,624
Total	35,273,272	de. 94,436
Business profit	6,942,313	de. 2,923,587
Other loans	25,553,574	de. 2,469,647
Balance of profit	7,006,886	de. 926,819
Government subsidies	3,567,806	de. 7,478,187
Balance brought forward from preceding year		

Profit disposed of as follows :

Legal reserve	1,944,274	de.	213,007
Voluntary reserve	2,032,231	de.	286,648
Bonus	1,030,943	de.	589,242
Dividend	30,538,675	de.	7,412,330
Others	2,009,436	de.	951,555
Carried forward to next term	(loss) 437,293	de.	1,421,871

Business income per kilometre per day was ¥32.333 (a drop of ¥3.204 from the year before) and the business expenses per kilometre per day was ¥18.614 (a drop of ¥2.733 from the year before), the net profit being ¥13.719 (a drop of ¥.669).

Assets and Liabilities The assets and liabilities of the private railways at the end of the 1931-32 fiscal year follow :

ASSETS

Items	1931-32 fiscal year (In yen)	Compared with the year before (In yen)
Unpaid capital	362,956,946	de. 599,649
Construction expenses for lines in operation	951,945,128	in. 54,438,084
Estimated construction expenses for lines yet unopened	19,357,174	de. 4,751,532
Other development expenses	400,772,547	de. 4,751,532
Deposits	21,465,358	de. 8,156,461
Securities	83,091,050	de. 1,234,150
Others and total	2,039,704,345	in. 44,978,539

LIABILITIES

Capital	1,160,474,573	in. 2,474,915
Legal reserve	26,642,524	in. 1,145,651
Debentures	322,596,710	in. 41,495,350
Loans through mortgage syndicates	97,371,020	in. 1,168,133
Other loans	190,978,165	in. 224,117
Bills payable	140,181,432	in. 526,462
Suspense accounts	15,295,621	de. 3,376,011
Profit for the term	19,683,559	de. 1,140,389
Others and total	2,039,704,345	in. 44,978,539

Employees The private railway employees numbered 42,263 to whom monthly salaries of ¥2,332,623 were paid, showing a drop of 589 employees and ¥96,498 a month from the year before. The average salary for one man was ¥52 a month, a drop of ¥2 from the year before.

Tramcar Service

Lines in Operation Construction expenses for the tramcar service in Japan for the 1931-32 fiscal year totalled ¥19,964,958, showing a gain of ¥5,291,556 over the year before. Seven lines with 42 kilometres were sanctioned for construction for the period, while 14 lines with 76 kilometres had their franchises cancelled during the period. Their construction expenses were estimated at ¥1,349,428, showing a drop of two lines and expenses ¥2,584,233 from the year before. Two lines of 15 kilometres opened to service. The lines in operation at the end of the year numbered 146 with 2,757 kilometres, and a total capitalization of ¥2,097,483,495, representing a decrease of two lines of 45 kilometres

and ¥115,086,349 from the year before. This great decrease is mainly due to the fact that the Mitsui Mining Company, capitalized at ¥10,000,000, transferred its tramcar service to the Kamioka Hydro-Electric Company, capitalized at ¥3,000,000, and the Hiroshima Electric Company, capitalized at ¥60,000,000, to the Kohin Railway Company, capitalized at ¥3,000,000. Details of the lines in operation were :

Kinds	No. of lines	Length in kilometres	Capitalization
Electric	94	2,098	¥ 2,052,113,776
Steam	12	163	8,471,600
Steam and gasoline	5	53	2,725,000
Gasoline	17	265	26,074,656
Horse-power	16	145	7,709,000
Man-power	7	32	390,063
Total	146	2,757	2,097,483,495
Compared with the year before	de. 2	in. 45	de. 115,086,349

Passenger Traffic Length of operation of passenger cars for the year totalled 249,275,508 kilometres, a drop of 1,755,283 kilometres from the year before, and that of operation of freight cars totalled 7,349,296 kilometres, a drop of 1,664,124 kilometres from the year before. The passenger traffic for the year follows :

Kinds	Passengers carried	Passenger fares	Average fare of one passenger
Electric	1,571,550,747	¥105,546,531	¥.067
Steam	1,813,204	244,008	.135
Gasoline	3,066,923	338,923	.111
Horse-power	236,582	35,530	.150
Man-power	2,452	358	.146
Total	1,576,669,908	106,165,350	.067
Compared with the year before	de. 114,201,483	de. 9,433,975	de. .001

Freight Traffic The freight traffic for the year follows :

Kinds	Goods carried (metric tons)	Freight receipts (In yen)	Average receipts per metric ton
Electric	878,563	724,728	¥.825
Steam	127,886	168,103	1.314
Gasoline	246,345	324,767	1.318
Horse-power	68,956	57,276	.831
Man-power	100,688	79,834	.793
Total	1,422,443	1,354,698	.952
Compared with the year before	de. 246,429	de. 301,050	de. .040

Accidents Tramcar accidents for the year numbered 15,284 and casualties numbered 5,708. The number of locomotives were 156 and that of passenger cars 6,073 with accomodating capacity for 443,822 ; the number of goods cars 1,922 with loading capacity of 6,889 tons.

Business Profit The business profit for the year totalled ¥44,086,982, as the business revenue totalled ¥116,645,225 and business expenditure ¥72,558,243. As compared with the year before, the business profit went off ¥7,049,820, or 13.8 per cent., the business revenue ¥12,128,687, or 9.4 per cent., and the business expenditure ¥5,078,867, or 6.5 per cent. Details follow :

Kinds	Business revenue (In yen)	Business expenditure (In yen)
Electric	115,235,896	71,352,014
Steam	458,851	405,830
Gasoline	762,451	625,794
Horse-power	106,588	105,228
Man-power	81,439	69,377
Total	116,645,225	72,558,243
Compared with the year before	de. 12,128,687	de. 5,078,867

Business profit totalled ¥44,086,982 (a drop of ¥7,049,820 from the year before); other profit ¥101,693,072 (a drop of ¥13,305,320); interest payment ¥21,490,312 (a gain of ¥954,622); other losses ¥5,846,482 (a drop of ¥3,301,549); net profit ¥118,443,260 (a drop of ¥18,008,213) and balance brought forward from the year before ¥37,565,266 (a gain of ¥1,687,843). The disposal of profit follows :

Legal reserve ¥5,448,670 (a drop of ¥379,273)
Voluntary reserve ¥5,403,453 (a drop of ¥673,225)
Bonuses ¥2,339,230 (a drop of ¥605,437)
Others ¥38,052,121 (a gain of ¥5,352,750)
Balance carried forward ¥24,011,976 (a drop of ¥5,249,600)

Assets and Liabilities Assets and liabilities at the end of the fiscal year follow :

ASSETS

Items	End of 1931-32 fiscal year (In yen)	Compared with year before (In yen)
Unpaid capital	389,250,012	in. 34,467,406
Construction expenses for lines in operation	762,352,434	in. 15,552,422
Construction expenses for lines not yet opened	13,586,523	in. 2,013,685
Other development expenses	2,184,116,465	in. 22,291,110
Stores	30,888,408	in. 8,328,404
Provisonal payments	143,208,670	de. 23,517,595
Suspense accounts	54,663,919	de. 24,585,273
Deposits	74,355,250	de. 27,346,901
Securities	216,215,457	de. 1,806,138
Cash	9,614,243	de. 4,994,509
Loss for the term	735,888	in. 268,282
Others	247,749,415	in. 109,604,412
Total	4,126,736,684	in. 110,275,305

LIABILITIES

Items	End of 1931-32 fiscal year (In yen)	Compared with the year before (In yen)
Capital	2,339,843,674	in. 56,933,170
Special funds	6,091,580	de. 542,778
Legal reserve	86,182,284	in. 3,692,879
Voluntary reserve	51,079,159	de. 6,569,483
Debentures	929,650,592	in. 21,336,746
Loans through mortgage syndicates	22,374,368	de. 1,530,448
Other loans	288,090,385	in. 27,765,641
Bills payable	94,235,181	in. 13,377,093
Money unpaid	57,333,917	in. 28,457,793
Suspense accounts	45,089,213	de. 17,319,136
Net profit for the term	49,686,957	de. 16,403,319
Others and total	4,126,736,684	in. 110,275,305

Tourist Industry

Of the number of visiting foreigners to Japan, the Chinese, Americans and Britishers are the most important. During the 1931-32 fiscal year Chinese accounted for 46 per cent. of all foreign visitors to Japan, next came the Americans 23 per cent., Britishers being third with 13 per cent. The number of Chinese and American visitors to this country during the last three years follows :

	1st half	2nd half	Total
Chinese :			
1929-30 year	7,175	8,705	15,880
1930-31	7,718	6,825	14,543
1931-32	8,000	4,878	12,878
Americans :			
1929-30	4,993	7,311	12,304
1930-31	5,301	3,220	3,521
1931-32	2,911	3,251	6,162

Trend of Tourists The Chinese visitors showed signs of increase during the first half of 1931-32 over the year before, but during the second half they showed a 28 per cent. drop from the year before. Throughout the year their number went off 11 per cent. Americans decreased 45 per cent. during the first half from the year before, and, despite a slight gain during the second half, the decrease throughout the year was 28 per cent. British visitors dropped

33 per cent. from the year before. Among all nationalities visiting the country during the year under review, a drop of 19 per cent. was witnessed, a phenomenon of the tourist industry throughout the world. Of the whole visiting foreigners, 24 per cent. came here with the sole object of sightseeing. Those whose stay lasted for less than 15 days, less than three months and more than that follow:

	Less than 15 days	Less than 3 months	More than 3 months	Total	Year before
Americans	3,456	1,641	1,065	6,162	9,521
British	1,657	1,231	635	3,523	5,426
German	194	227	251	672	985
French	193	157	112	462	466
Soviets	359	369	354	1,082	1,453
Chinese	1,421	3,075	8,382	12,878	14,543
Others	1,050	768	676	2,494	2,385
Total	8,330	7,468	11,475	27,273	33,572

Objects of Visits Their objects for coming to Japan are tabulated as follows:

	Sightseeing	Official business	Commercial business	Others	Total
Americans	2,667	82	862	2,251	6,162
	(43%)	(1%)	(14%)	(37%)	(100%)
British	1,651	45	607	1,220	3,523
	(47%)	(1%)	(17%)	(35%)	(100%)
German	181	17	178	296	672
	(27%)	(3%)	(26%)	(44%)	(100%)
French	136	107	86	133	462
	(29%)	(23%)	(19%)	(29%)	(100%)
Soviets	38	178	228	638	1,082
	(4%)	(16%)	(21%)	(59%)	(100%)
Chinese	702	161	2,882	9,133	12,878
	(5%)	(1%)	(22%)	(72%)	(100%)
Others	806	82	511	1,095	2,494
	(32%)	(3%)	(20%)	(45%)	(100%)
Total	6,481	672	5,354	14,766	27,273
	(24%)	(2%)	(20%)	(45%)	(100%)

Ports of Landing Foreigners coming to Japan proper from Korea, Formosa, the Kwantung Leased Territory, Karafuto and South Sea islands are included in the figures. Visitors landed at various ports for the year follow:

	Yokohama	Kobé	Shimonoseki	Moji	Others and total
Americans	2,177	2,183	833	747	6,162
British	734	1,298	293	780	3,523
German	130	225	167	111	672
French	85	142	52	19	462
Soviets	68	188	390	125	1,082
Chinese	900	6,225	1,022	3,725	12,878
Others	549	933	258	514	2,494
Total	4,643	11,194	3,020	6,021	27,273
Year before	4,611	19,852	4,413	908	33,572

Money Expended Money expended by foreigners in Japan based on figures prepared by the Ministry of Finance for the last three years follow:

(In yen 1,000)	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32
Money spent by foreigners on sightseeing	39,932	30,405	23,317
Money spent by crews of foreign ships	3,354	3,007	2,669
Money spent by foreign students	1,291	1,600	1,160
Money spent for evangelic purposes, etc.	8,305	10,985	11,009
Money spent by diplomatic services	5,101	4,643	4,449
Total	57,983	50,730	42,603

Railways in Chosen, Taiwan, Manchuria, Etc.

Chosen

The first railway enterprise in Chosen dates back to 1890, when a railway linking Keijo (Seoul) with Jinsen (Chemulpo), 29.485 kilometres in length, was laid and opened to traffic by the Kei-Jin Railway Company. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War caused the military authorities of Japan to build the Keijo-Fusan, Keijo-Shingishu and Masan lines which were respectively opened to traffic in 1904 and 1905. In 1906 the Imperial Government of Japan nationalized the Keijo-Fusan Line and also took over the Keijo-Shingishu and the Masan Lines from the War Office of Japan, placing all these lines under direct control of the Railway Bureau of the Korean Residency-General. Meanwhile the work of construction was steadily pushed on and in 1910 the Heijo-Chinnampo line was completed. On the spanning of the Yalu River with a swing bridge in 1911 the peninsular railway was brought into connection with the South Manchuria Railway. In 1914 the Taiden-Mokpo and Keijo-Gensan lines were completed, while in 1915 part of the Gensan-Kwainei line was opened. At the end of the 1930-31 fiscal year the total length of the State-owned lines in operation in Chosen was 2,792.5 kilometres consisting of 2,584.1 kilometres of 1.435 metre gauge lines and 208.4 kilometres of 0.762 metre gauge.

Management From consideration of economic relations and facilities of communication the management of railways in Chosen was entrusted to the South Manchuria Railway Company on August 1, 1917. According to a contract concluded between the Government-General of Korea and the South Manchuria Railway Company, the entire management, except plans of construction and improvement and the ways and means thereof, was entrusted to the latter for a period of twenty years on condition that out of the net earnings the equivalent of 6 per cent. on the total amount of capital furnished by the Government-General from the fiscal year 1911-12 should be paid to the Government-General each year, and that in the event of the profits earned falling short of that amount in any one year the deficit to be made good out of the profits of the succeeding years. Should, however, the profit exceed the amount required, half such excess was also to go to the Government-General. This arrangement, however, occasioned some inconveniences in settling accounts, so that another contract was concluded between them in July, 1918, relieving the company from paying over one-half the excess profit obtained and at the same time requiring it to bear construction expenses.

Contract Revised The term of the above contract having expired a new contract for three years, beginning with the year 1921, was concluded in August, 1920, on the basis of the old one with the provision that the company pays to the Government-General the equivalent of 6 per cent. on the total amount of capital advanced by it up to the end of the 1920-21 fiscal year, and 4 per cent. on capital furnished by it in each subsequent year. In view of changing circumstances it was considered advisable to shift the management to the direct control of the Government-General, and it was decided to discard the system of commissioning the South Manchuria Railway with the entire management of the railways in Chosen from March 31, 1925. At present, all the Government railways in Chosen are under direct control of the Railway Bureau, a department of the Government-General, which started its business on April 1, 1925, the day when the new railway administration was organized in accordance with Imperial Ordinance No. 84.

Hotel and Private Railways As an adjunct to the railway business a hotel was started in Fusan in 1912 for the convenience of foreign tourists, by making use of the upper stories of the station building there; later a similar provision was made in Shingishu. In 1914 the Chosen Hotel was established on a large scale in Keijo and its branches at Onseiri and Choanji near Kongo-san or Diamond Mountain were opened for sightseers. Another hotel has been run at Heijo since 1922. The total mileage of private railways open to traffic on March 31, 1931, was 1,072.7 kilometres, the length of lines under construction 149.4 kilometres, lines granted charters 27.2 kilometres and lines contemplated but not yet granted charters 408.5 kilometres and the total length of these 1,643 kilometres.

Taiwan

It was not until the cession of the Island of Formosa (Taiwan) from the Chinese Government to Japan that the island began to enjoy railway facilities, for, prior to that time, the only railroad existing was a small light railway between Keelung and Shinchiku built at the time of the Ching Dynasty. Soon after the cession, the Taiwan Government-General brought forward a plan, with the approval of the Diet, to build a railway connecting Takao with Keelung at the expense of ¥28,800,000. Work was started in 1889 from both termini and finished in April, 1908. This line now forms the trunk line in the island's communication system. The construction of this pioneer line was followed by other lines, that is, the Kyukyodo-Heito section completed in 1912, the Taito line in 1917 and the Giran line in 1924. The total length of the Government lines now is 883.34 km.

Karafuto Railway

The first railway in Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien) was constructed by the Military Department in 1906 between Otomari, formerly known as Korsakovsa, and Toyohara, formerly Vladimolocka, 41.83 km. in length. It was a light railway with a gauge of 0.61 metre and exclusively used for military purposes. With the withdrawal of the military Government in April, 1907, the railway was transferred to the control of the Karafuto Administration and opened to public traffic in August of the same year. As traffic went on increasing the gauge was widened to 1.07 metres, sometime in 1910, while construction of sections further north of Toyohara was started. Late in 1911 the work on the Toyohara-Sakaehama section being completed, the Otomari-Sakaehama section, 94.13 km. which now forms the trunk line in the island's communication, was opened to traffic. Construction work has been continued ever since and a branch line linking the Kawakami Mine with Konuma, and the Honto-Noda section on the west coast were completed and opened to business in 1914 and 1920 respectively. In addition, the construction of a branch line which connects Toyohara, the capital of the Island, with Maoka on the west coast, was started in 1921 and opened to business in 1928. The lines in operation now total 298.47 km.

South Manchuria Railway

It was on September 5, 1905, that the Japanese Government, by virtue of Article 5 of the Peace Treaty concluded between Japan and Russia, acquired possession of the railways in Manchuria from Changchun to Dalny, now Dairen, and Port Arthur, now Ryojun, together with its branch lines, all the rights, privileges, and property attaching thereto, including the local mines formerly owned by the Chinese Eastern Railway. On June 7, 1906, Imperial Ordinance No. 142 was issued concerning the establishment of the South Manchuria Railway Company and on July 13 of the same year General Viscount Gentaro Kodama was appointed chairman of the promoters' committee which were composed of 80 members. On July 25, 1906, the presidency was assumed by General Viscount Masataké Terauchi, the then Minister of War, due to the death of General Kodama. The articles of association relative to the company were prepared by the committee on the basis of the Imperial Ordinance and the instructions of the Government. They were approved by the Government on August 18 and the establishment of the company was sanctioned by the Minister of Communications on November 1, 1906. The authorized capital of the company at first was ¥200,000,000, of which ¥100,000,000 represented the total of the appraised value of railways with properties and the mines at Fushun and Yentai as handed over to the company by the Military Field Railway Department. The other half of the capitalization was offered to public subscription and the shareholders were guaranteed a 6 per cent. dividend per annum by the Japanese Government. By March, 1920, 800,000 shares representing 80 million yen were paid up, but with the development of various activities after the World War the capitalization was increased to 440 million,[1] one-half of the increased capitalization being taken up by the Japanese Government. The company is authorized to issue debentures not exceeding twice the amount of paid-up capital, and not exceeding the amount of total capitalization. The company has often issued debentures on the home and foreign markets and on such occasions both the principal and interest have been guaranteed by the Government. The total length of lines open to business on August 31, 1930, was 1,125.1 kilometres. The gauge of these lines was 1.067 metres at first, excepting the Mukden-Antung Line. The company shortly after its establishment rebuilt the lines to the standard gauge of 1.345 metres. The doubling of track between Dairen and Changchun, 705.5 kilometres, was completed in 1915.

Note: [1] It was further increased to 800 million yen in June, 1933.

Motor Transport and Its Development

Behind Japan's motor transport system there is no such history of experimentation and endeavour as characterizes the arrival of the motor car in the West. The first car seen in Japan was one imported from America by a foreign resident of Yokohama in 1897, and then for the next ten years there was no great increase in the number, in 1907 there were only 16 cars in the whole country. Then came a change. In 1912 there were 520 vehicles and a year later 1,000. In 1921, passenger cars numbered 4,683 and business cars numbered 7,439. The great earthquake and fire which destroyed Tokyo and Yokohama in 1923 brought about a great demand for motor cars because rail traffic was interrupted at various places and the help of motor cars was badly needed. In 1924, the number increased to 40,070, of which 27,959 were passenger cars and 12,097 were trucks. The rate of increase for the five years 1921-26 was for passenger cars 100.49 per cent. and for trucks 1,200.6 per cent. This rapid development of motor car transport has driven rikishas, electric cars and provincial railways into the background. Motor car passengers are increasing year after year, while passenger receipts on provincial railways are quickly decreasing. To the present, except in the vicinity of large cities, Japan has not been blessed with good roads, but the construction of first-class motor roads is being pushed ahead in all parts of the country and traffic is bound to make a phenomenal increase as the roads are completed.

Number of Cars

The most recent figure on the number of cars was taken on August 31, 1932, by the National Resource Bureau of the Cabinet. According to this, the number was 103,915, as follows :

	Japan Proper	Overseas Territories	Total
Passenger cars	60,758	5,148	66,906
Trucks	31,048	2,583	34,531
Special cars	2,031	447	2,478
Total	94,737	9,178	103,915

Note: These figures do not include the number of cars for military use.

Tokyo prefecture had the most and next came Osaka, Hyogo, Kanagawa, Aichi, Fukuoka, Shizuoka and Kyoto prefectures in the order mentioned. Outstanding facts of the 1932 investigation were that the number of cars in Japan had finally reached more than 100,000, the increase of trucks in Tokyo prefecture was nearly the same as the number involved in the previous investigation while the number of passenger cars had gained, and the ratio of increase as a whole had become less significant. The ratio of increase was 28 per cent. for 1927; for 1928 it was 24 per cent.; for 1929, 32 per cent.; for 1930, 10 per cent.; for 1931, 9 per cent.; and that for 1932 was only 5 per cent.

Commercial Passenger Cars

Although the available figures are old, the business mileage of commercial passenger motor vehicles by fixed lines at the end of 1930 totalled 122,284 kilometres. If the business mileage of motor trucks by fixed lines be added, the total amounts to more than 160,900 kilometres. There were many cases of duplication of services by competitive lines, but if the actual business mileage is estimated as being one-third of the above total, it will be found that it

was more than double that of the Government-owned and private railway and tramcar services combined. According to the most recent figures, the number of motor car operators on a commercial basis, at the end of 1929, was as follows :

Initial expenses	Number of business operators
Up to ¥ 3,000	980
Up to 5,000	743
Up to 10,000	726
Up to 100,000	847
Up to 500,000	7
More than 500,000	49
Total number of operators	3,352

Year	Passenger cars		Mortor trucks		Total
	Private use	Business use	Private use	Business use	
1914	269	71	—	—	340
1919	747	720	24	53	1,544
1920	1,124	819	76	104	2,123
1921	1,303	972	133	116	2,524
1922	1,228	1,205	172	222	2,827
1923	1,517	1,291	332	220	3,360
1924	1,217	1,509	472	465	3,663
1925	1,336	2,101	479	1,263	5,179
1926	1,383	2,547	416	1,682	6,028
1927	1,553	3,473	430	2,003	7,459
1928	1,572	5,086	411	2,364	9,433
1929	1,603	6,250	400	2,978	11,231
1930	1,380	6,607	317	3,488	11,792
1931	1,359	7,434	270	3,416	12,479
1932	1,252	8,051	207	3,556	13,066

It can be seen from these figures that operators of small means were in the majority. To the present, State railways, because they are operating mostly a main line business, have suffered less from the competition of motor transport than provincial railways, but with the construction of a better network of roads the situation is bound to become more serious as time goes on.

Motor Vehicles in Tokyo

The number of motor vehicles in the old city limits of Tokyo, since 1914, follows :

NUMBER OF MOTOR BUSES

	Tokyo City Buses	Tokyo Motor Bus Co.	Total
1924	302	—	302
1925	342	232	574
1926	344	245	589
1927	381	288	669
1928	572	311	883
1929	592	394	986
1930	652	419	1,071
1931	658	430	1,088
1932	668	491	1,159

Tokyo Motor Bus and Osaka Motor Bus Companies These are two representative large scale companies working motor bus services in the country's largest cities. The former is capitalized at ¥9,670,000, but owing to a lack of able management its business results have not been satisfactory. The Osaka Bus Co. is capitalized at ¥7,500,000 and has a better showing than the former. The former's assets at the end of May, 1932, totalled ¥14,939,839 and the latter's assets on the same day totalled ¥9,452,858. Their business results since 1923 have been as follows :

TOKYO MOTOR BUS CO.

	Paid-up capital (In ¥1,000)	Profit	Profit ratio (In per cent.)	Dividend ratio
1923:				
1st half	3,000	317	31.7	12.0
2nd half	3,000	285	19.0	37.0
1924:				
1st half	3,000	565	37.6	25.0
2nd half	3,750	350	19.3	12.0

	Paid-up capital (In ¥1,000)	Profit	Profit ratio (In per cent.)	Dividend ratio
1925:				
1st half	3,750	368	16.4	12.0
2nd half	5,300	456	16.8	12.0
1926:				
1st half	5,300	560	21.1	13.0
2nd half	5,928	560	20.0	12.0
1927:				
1st half	5,930	403	13.6	—
2nd half	5,930	354	12.0	—
1928:				
1st half	5,930	459	15.5	—
2nd half	6,040	408	13.6	—
1929:				
1st half	6,040	372	12.3	—
2nd half	7,150	307	9.3	—
1930:				
1st half	7,150	348	9.7	3.0
2nd half	7,570	302	8.0	3.0
1931:				
1st half	7,990	270	6.9	—
2nd half	8,620	215	5.1	—
1932:				
1st half	8,621	343	8.0	—

OSAKA MOTOR BUS CO.

	Paid-up capital (In ¥1,000)	Profit	Profit ratio (In per cent)	Dividend ratio
1924:				
2nd half	1,250	236	28.3	12.0
1925:				
1st half	1,250	201	32.2	12.0
2nd half	1,250	23	3.6	6.0
1926:				
1st half	1,250	74	11.8	8.0
2nd half	1,250	78	12.5	8.0
1927:				
1st half	1,250	136	21.8	10.0
2nd half	1,250	208	33.2	12.0
1928:				
1st half	2,813	318	31.3	12.0
2nd half	2,813	510	36.3	12.0
1929:				
1st half	2,813	532	37.9	12.0
2nd half	2,813	595	42.3	12.0
1930:				
1st half	2,813	736	52.3	12.0
2nd half	2,813	687	48.9	12.0
1931:				
1st half	2,813	676	48.0	12.0
2nd half	2,813	602	42.8	12.0
1932:				
1st half	2,813	605	43.0	12.0

Motor Cycles The number of motor cycles in all Japan at the end of 1914 was 111, it was 265 in 1919, 332 in 1920, 424 in 1921, 519 in 1922, 609 in 1923, 516 in 1924, 962 in 1925, 852 in 1926, 1,008 in 1927, 1,119 in 1928, 1,477 in 1929, 2,213 in 1930, 2,888 in 1931 and 3,439 in 1932.

Automobiles Imported

Japan's imports of automobiles and parts are mostly from America. The largest total imports were ¥33,608,383 in 1929. Imports since 1918 have been as follows:

	(In ¥1,000)		
1918	7,661	1925	11,682
1919	11,228	1926	15,722
1920	10,478	1927	18,281
1921	8,067	1928	18,281
1922	7,309	1929	32,608
1923	13,482	1930	20,773
1924	21,186	1931	16,329

American Cars Used America dominates the Japanese motor car trade, supplying 90 per cent. of the total. At the end of 1927 there were approximately 54,000 motor vehicles in this country, principally of American manufacture. The Ford Motor Company, Yokohama, assembles materials imported from America and sells its products in the Japanese market. General Motors, Osaka, works on the same principles. Sales are well distributed over the utility range, with commercial vehicles in the lead. The growth of the one-yen taxi business brought a strong demand for cheap passenger cars, notably Fords, Chevrolets and Whippets among the Americans, Citroens among the French and Morris cars among the British. One-yen taxi concerns have been formed in all the leading cities of Japan. These concerns rent the cabs to drivers who pay, in addition to the rent, for the gasoline consumed. So great has been the success of the one-yen system that the metred taxicabs have all but disappeared from Japan. Moreover, there has been a considerable change in the type of car used. Cheap cars are

principally in evidence, although some second-hand machines, hand-me-downs of the older companies, are to be found. Automobile sales in Japan during a recent year were estimated as follows:

Light passenger cars	8,700
Medium passenger cars	1,300
Heavy passenger cars	400
Light trucks and buses	6,000
Medium and heavy trucks and buses	600
Total	17,000

Due to the fact that the vast majority of the automobiles sold in Japan are shipped into this country as parts and then assembled here, the figures on imports of automobiles do not tally with the sales figures.

Tractors Tractors have not found a large market in Japan. Those bought have found their way into industrial fields, for the farms of Japan are small and comparatively few tractors can be utilized in agricultural work, though forestry has found a use for several. About 1,000 are now in use throughout the country.

Number of Cars and Population

According to the Police Bureau of the Home Ministry, the number of motor cars in Japan proper at the end of 1931 totalled 97,256, which meant one car for 762 people since the total population in Japan proper on October 1, 1930, was 64,450,005. A comparison of the number of different kinds of cars in Japan proper and its colonies for 1930 and 1931 follows. The figures are those of the National Resource Bureau of the Cabinet:

Kinds of cars	Japan Proper		Japan's Colonies	
	1930	1931	1930	1931
Ford	9,844	8,808	694	492
Chevrolet	8,987	8,145	864	570
Buick	652	469	36	30
Star	509	368	29	24
Essex	507	310	35	32
Whippet	991	599	106	21
Dodge	557	407	45	27
Chrysler	287	237	13	7
Nash	240	179	16	9
Hudson	160	100	7	6
G.M.C.	74	108	13	5
Citroen	180	160	—	—
Oldsmobile	192	107	13	8
Pontiac	171	132	28	11
Reo	157	119	10	5
Packard	115	101	1	2
Willys-Knight	285	144	6	3
Wolseley	61	71	—	—
Graham	33	41	—	—
Oakland	140	70	9	15
Studebaker	126	107	7	16
Plymouth	216	209	33	7
Federal	63	71	3	1
Graham-Paige	142	99	9	2
Fiat	103	87	5	—
Austin	84	79	2	13
Falcon Knight	27	29	—	—
White	26	16	—	—
De Soto	90	79	14	7
Mack	22	21	—	—
Hupmobile	56	38	1	1
Fordson	10	14	—	—
Chandler	1	—	—	—
International	3	14	36	5
Durant	80	38	11	3
Dat	69	31	8	4
Cadillac	29	23	—	—
Erskine	32	12	4	4
Republic	8	6	6	1
Morris Cowley	16	18	—	—
Pierce Arrow	8	10	—	—
Others	602	605	83	45
Total	25,982	22,359	2,147	1,360
(Used by Government)	(1,246)	(770)	(2,147)	(1,360)

The number of motor fire engines in Japan proper at the end of 1931 totalled 1,040 in contrast to 840 at the end of 1930, 692 at the end of 1929 and 533 at the end of 1928. Of the 1931 figure, Hokkaido had the largest number of 128 and Tokyo prefecture was second with 120. The number of motor buses in operation in Japan in May, 1932, was 1,717 and that of business operators was 116. Omnibus passengers in Tokyo were:

	Old Tokyo City	Old Tokyo suburbs	Total
1921	12,207,670	—	12,207,670
1922	15,642,078	—	15,642,078
1923	19,976,163	1,503,416	21,479,571
1924	36,409,140	1,693,090	38,102,230
1925	58,571,035	1,791,475	60,362,510
1926	62,523,398	9,043,980	72,567,378
1927	79,800,332	10,907,270	90,979,602
1928	104,821,516	13,846,636	118,668,152

Sundry Items

Sales Organizations The General Motors Corporation opened a plant in 1928 designed to manufacture such parts as can be made economically in Japan, to import the rest and assemble the whole. The American idea of power and roominess seems to be general in Japan, in spite of the fact that European style cars have some advantage in the matter of tax, which is based on horsepower rating.

The Tax In Tokyo the annual tax on a Model T Ford is over ¥500, but the tax varies with different prefectures, for instance in Yokohama the tax on the same model is about half the above. General Motors and Ford have been selling on the time payment basis and this method promises to become more important in the future. One scheme worked out to make time sales possible involves "renting" the car to the new owner and executing an attachment on it at the time of the sale. The notice of attachment, which must be placed in the car, may interfere with some sales, as the owner may feel that he loses "face" by having it in view.

Changes in 1932 One of the noteworthy events that took place in 1932 was the constructive policy of the Ministry of Railways regarding motor car service. In October an Automobile Section was established in the Railway Ministry and at the same time an Automobile Commission was organized to serve as an advisory board to the Minister of Railways.

Subsidies The Ministry of War has for some years past been giving liberal subsidies to three companies, the Ishikawajima Motor Company, the Dat Automobile Company and the Tokyo Gas Denki Kogyo Kaisha. All these companies have been specializing in building buses and trucks, the first having produced the Wolseley type of cars and trucks under licence from Ministry of War which holds the patent rights for Japan. Early in 1933 first two companies were amalgamated under the name of the Japan Automobile Industry Company and will at first turn out trucks only, but later will go into the passenger-car business.

Gasoline Syndicate Another important event was the organization of the Gasoline Syndicate by six companies, namely, the Japan Oil Company, Mitsubishi Shoji Kaisha, Ogura Oil Company, Socony-Vacuum, Rising Sun Petroleum and Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, in June, 1932. The organization was brought into being to maintain a uniform price in gasoline, which through cut-throat competition, was being sold at very uneconomic prices, but before the syndicate could raise prices too far the Minister of Commerce and Industry placed the oil industry under his control, by virtue of the Heavy Industries Control Act, and fixed a maximum price at which gasoline could be sold. The agreement is for one year and is subject to renewal. The domestic consumption for 1932 is estimated at about 22,000,000 gallons.

Motor Car Manufactures The Tokyo Gas Denki Kogyo Kaisha started automobile manufacturing in 1918. In the first year it built only 12 cars, but in 1930 it built 180. The present capacity is 1,000 cars a year. It is capitalized at ¥6,000,000. The Ishikawajima Automobile Manufacturing Company, Tokyo, capitalized at ¥2,500,000, started motor car manufacturing in 1919. Its present building capacity is 1,200 cars a year. It built 300 cars in 1930. The Dat Automobile Manufacturing Company, Tokyo, capitalized at ¥1,000,000, started work in 1924. In 1930 it built 122 cars. The Japan Car Manufacturing Company and Kawasaki Car Manufacturing Company, Kobé, also turn out a few cars yearly.

Aviation

History of Development

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

The First Civilian Flight In the spring of 1911, airship No. 2 of the Yamada type was taken out of the hangar at Osaki, Tokyo, and made a successful cross-country flight. In March and April of the same year, an American flyer carried out an exhibition flight in Osaka and Tokyo; on April 8, Mr. Shinzo Morita, who had studied flying in France, flew in a 45 h.p. monoplane over the Joto parade-ground in Osaka, this was the first flight by a civilian flyer in this country; and, in April that year, the aerodrome and flying ground at Tokorozawa were completed. In June, 1912, Mr. Atwater, an American flyer, conducted a series of exhibition flights by hydroplane on the sea off Nishinomiya near Osaka; and, in July that year, five officers were selected from each army division to be trained as flying officers. This marks the beginning of instruction in flying to military officers in this country. In the autumn of 1912, a number of aeroplanes and airships participated in the grand military manœuvres. In February, 1913, the Teikoku Hiko Kyokai (Imperial Aeronautical Association) was established; on May 4 that year, Mr. Koha Takeishi, a civilian flyer, started on a Naruo-Osaka-Kyoto flight, but, when landing in the Fukakusa parade-ground in Kyoto, he met with disaster and died as the first victim of civilian aviation in Japan.

Contest of Civilian Aviators In 1914, a contest by civilian aviators was held at Naruo, near Osaka, under the auspices of the Imperial Aeronautical Association, and, during the Tsingtao campaign Japanese military aeroplanes took part in actual fighting for the first time and displayed their ability in scouting, in bombing the enemy fortress and in an aerial combat with enemy planes. In 1915, a meet of civilian flyers was held in Osaka, and a military flying battalion was formed. Between Janu-

ary and April, 1916, American aviators visited Japan and performed trick flying at Naruo and other places; and, on April 27 that year, night flying was successfully carried out for the first time in this country. In 1917, the flying battalion was enlarged into the first and second battalions and a balloon corps. In April that year, Mr. Bird Smith, an American flyer, again visited Japan and carried out a series of high-class exhibition flights in Osaka and Tokyo. In April, 1918, Mr. Masao Goto, a private flyer, succeeded in making a nonstop flight between Tokorozawa and Osaka for the first time.

Military Flying School In April, 1919, the Military Aeronautical Department and the Military Flying School were established; and, on October 22 that year, the first mail transport flight between Tokyo and Osaka was carried out with success. In 1920, the Aeronautical Institute was established at Tsukishima, Tokyo; and, in May that year, two Italian aviators paid a visit to Japan by air. In March, 1921, the regulations for the control of aviation were put in force. In the autumn of 1922, the Japan Aerial Transport Institute started a regular flying service between Sakai and Shikoku by hydroplanes. In 1923, the military air force was made an independent arm. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun started a regular air service between Tokyo and Osaka in January and the Japan Aerial Navigation Co., Ltd., one between Osaka and Beppu in July that year. In March, 1924, the dirigible S. S. No. 3 exploded and, in September that year, the trial flight of the newly built airship Astra was carried out.

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

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

The Aeronautical Institute In May, the Aeronautical Institute which ranks as the best research station in the world was completed six years after the starting of its construction. In the same month, the aeroplane "Young Japan" belonging to Hosei University, a member of the Students' Aviation League, set off for Europe from the flying ground at Haneda near Tokyo and, at the end of August, reached its destination, Rome. After the outbreak of the Manchurian trouble in September that year, our military planes participated in actual warfare for the first time since the Tsingtao campaign. In October of the same year, the aeroplane (Fokker No. 3-M) of the Japan Air Transport Company succeeded in flying between Taiwan and the mainland. In 1932, as a consequence of the Manchurian trouble, 64 "Aikoku" (Patriotic) planes were constructed with money contributed by the people generally, and, moreover, defence from aerial attack became much discussed in our principal cities and important economic centres. On February 23, our Navy planes fought with enemy planes in the air over Shanghai. In the fighting, Lieutenant Kotani was killed, while Lieutenant Ikuta shot down a Boeing plane of the enemy. The trial night flights between Tokyo and Tachiarai on the nights of April 20 and May 2 that year proved a success.

Past and Future of the Regular Air Service

The Asahi's Activities A regular air mail service was started between Tokyo and Osaka by the Asahi Shimbun in January, 1923, for the first time in this country, after obtaining permission from the authorities in the latter part of December of the preceding year. Subsequently, the Japan Air Transport Institute began to engage in regular air traffic between Osaka, Takamatsu and Tokushima (later altering the points to Sakai, Tokushima and Takamatsu) and the Japan Aerial Navigation Company between Osaka and Fukuoka. In 1927, the Asahi Shimbun purchased a Dornier-Merkur plane and a Comet plane and the Japan Aerial Navigation Company a Dornier-Superwal plane and started the transportation of passengers. On July 15, 1929, the said company began the carrying of passengers between Tokyo, Osaka and Fukuoka, later extending the service to Seoul and Dairen. With a view to conducting an air passenger service between Japan and Shanghai, it carried on negotiations with the National Government at Nanking through the Foreign Office, but failed to arrive at any agreement, only several trial flights being made between the two countries during that year. Since the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese dispute, this project has become almost impossible of realization, but the operation of this aerial route is earnestly hoped for by Japanese aviation circles generally as a step forward towards participation in a world air service.

Trunk Air Line The present Saito Cabinet has in contemplation the opening of a trunk air route that traverses Japan from north to south, connecting Sapporo, Tokyo, Osaka, Fukuoka and Taiwan. In the event of this plan being realized, it will mark a new epoch in the history of aviation in Japan. It is projected under the plan (a) to open a new air route between Fukuoka and Taiwan (flying grounds in Taiwan will be constructed by the Government-General of the Island, and landing

places will be laid out in the Loochoo Islands and at Naha in Okinawa); (b) to construct flying grounds in Nagoya and Hiroshima; (c) to open a new air route between Sapporo and Tokyo (flying grounds will be constructed in Sapporo, Aomori and Sendai); (d) to improve the flying ground at Haneda near Tokyo; and (e) to construct a flying ground on land in Fukuoka, the existing military flying ground at Tachiarai, which civilian planes now use by special permission, will be closed after the completion of the new flying ground. Further, with the object of improving its service as a commercial undertaking in respect of the transportation of passengers and mails by inaugurating night flying in addition to day flying, the Japan Air Transport Institute carried out trial night flights in April and May, 1932, with marked success, so that it is expected that it will shortly start a regular day and night service.

REGULAR AIR SERVICE ROUTES IN JAPAN

Route	Distance (in kilometres)	Time required for flying	Carrying	Fare: Passenger	Fare: Freight	Company or body operating route	No. of flights
Tokyo-Osaka	425	2 h. 50 m.	Passengers, freight and mail	¥30	¥1.00 per kilogram in Japan proper and in Manchuria & Chosen, and	Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd.	Twice (both ways) per day (except Sundays)
Osaka-Fukuoka	500	3 h.	,,	¥35	,,	,,	,,
Fukuoka-Urusan	240	1 h. 50 m.	,,	¥18	¥2.00 per	,,	Once (both
Urusan-Keijo	310	2 h. 10 m.	,,	¥22	kilogram be-	,,	ways) per
Keijo-Heijo	200	1 h. 10 m.	,,	¥13	tween Japan	,,	day (except
Heijo-Shinwiju	160	1 h.	,,	¥12	proper and	,,	Sundays)
Shinwiju-Dairen	273	1 h. 40 m.	,,	¥19	Manchuria & Chosen	,,	,,
Osaka-Takamatsu	140	1 h. 10 m.	,, ,, ,,	¥12	¥1.00 on freight not exceeding 4 kilograms	Japan Air Transport Institute	Once (both ways) per day (except Sundays)
Takamatsu-Matsuyama	150	1 h. 10 m.	,,	¥10	,,	,,	,,
Tokyo-Ito	105	55 m.	Passengers and freight	¥10	¥.50 per kilogram	Tokyo Air Transport Co.	Once (both ways) on Monday, Wednesday and Friday each week
Ito-Shimoda	45	25 m.	,,	¥10	,,	,,	,,
Shimoda-Numazu	74	35 m.	,,	¥10	,,	,,	,,
Numazu-Shimizu	36	20 m.	,,	¥10	,,	,,	,,
Tokyo-Niigata	380	2 h. 30 m.	Freight and mail	—	¥0.70 per kilogram	Asahi Regular Air Service Ass'n	Three times (both ways) each week in summer

Remarks: Except on the Dairen-Shinwiju route of the Japan Air Transport Company, considerable reductions are made for the through rates both for passengers and goods that are carried beyond one fixed section between Dairen and other places.

Aviation Circles in 1931-1932

The Manchurian Affair The most outstanding features of Japanese aviation circles in 1931-1932 were the effects of the Manchurian affair on aviation generally in this country and the realization of the possibility of regular night flights which had long been hoped for. From the outbreak of the trouble our air force has continued to engage in actual fighting, and is doing so at present, for the first time since the Tsingtao campaign. Moreover, in Shanghai the force fought an aerial duel for the first time since its full organization. As the result of the Manchurian and Shanghai incidents, the necessity for adequate provisions for defence against aerial attack has been deeply impressed upon the popular mind and has given rise to an air defence mania, an indication of which may be seen in the fact that, beginning with the "Patriotic" aeroplane No. 1 constructed on January 17, 1932, 62 planes of the same denomination and of the same type were made with money contributed by the people before the end of that year, and the organization of a "Patriotic" aerial force is now being advocated. Further, in large cities such as Tokyo, Osaka, Kyoto, Nagoya and Kobé, a movement for the full developing of the necessary equipment against air attack has been launched by the people on their own initiative and plans for the establishment of air defence societies are in process of materialization there. In Osaka alone, some ¥1,100,000 has been collected as a fund for the defence of the city against attack from the air. Mention must be made that, prior to and during the two Incidents, aeroplanes showed great activity in carrying manuscripts of news reports written by correspondents on the spot to newspaper offices at home.

Night Flights It was long argued that, in order to adapt regular air services to practical use, it is essential to inaugurate night flights. On April 20 and May 2, 1932, trial night flights between Tokyo and Tachiarai were carried out with satisfactory results, as a consequence of which a regular night air mail service has been started between Tokyo and Osaka in November, 1933. It is a matter to be borne in mind by anyone interested in the progress of aviation in Japan that, in December, 1931, the Japan Air Transport Company opened three new air routes between Mukden, Shinwiju, Harbin and Tsitsihar, and between Mukden and Dairen in Manchuria, thus extending the sphere of our aerial transportation beyond the seas, and that another new air route was opened between Hsinking (Changchun) the capital of Manchoukuo, and Tokyo, via Tunhua and Haining on the Kirin-Haining line and across the Japan Sea over a distance of more than 1,000 kilometres which can be flown within 14 hours. It is also to be noted that, in October, 1931, a trial flight preparatory to the starting of a regular service between Japan proper and Taiwan was successfully carried out, and that the Government is contemplating opening a new air route, traversing Japan from north to south and linking together Sapporo, Sendai, Tokyo, Osaka, Fukuoka and Taiwan.

The Pacific Flight After the lone flight over the Atlantic by Colonel Lindbergh, the attention of world aviation circles was directed to the Northern Pacific, the air over which still remained unconquered. Following the failure of Lieutenant Bromley to cross the Pacific, on August 2, 1931, two American civilian aviators, Messrs. Robins and Jones, at-

tempted to fly across the ocean from Seattle, but, owing to the inclemency of the weather, were forced to go back to Fairbanks. On September 8, Messrs. Allen and Moyle, Americans, took off from Samushiro for America, but were forced to land on a small uninhabited island off Kamchatka. Later, their attempt to carry out a record round-the-world flight having failed, Messrs. Herndon and Pangborn, also Americans, discontinued their swift air trip at Havarovsk and flew over to Japan to fly across the Pacific for a prize offered by the Asahi Shimbun. In coming over here, their plane inadvertently passed over a fortified zone on the Tsugaru Straits and the two aviators were examined by our gendarmerie, but, at the request of the United States Government, our Department of Communications, in view of the great contribution that a trans-Pacific flight would make towards the furtherance of Japanese-American friendship, granted permission for their flight from our shores. Consequently, on October 4, they left Samushiro and reached Wenatchee, Washington, U. S. A. in 41 hours and 10 minutes, performing an exploit comparable with that of Colonel Lindbergh in flying over the Atlantic. In June, 1932, Mr. Brown, an American aviator, tried to fly across from Seattle to our coast, but was eventually compelled to give up his attempt. Prior to the trans-Pacific flight of Messrs. Herndon and Pangborn, in August, 1931, Miss Johnson, a British aviatrix, visited Tokyo, covering the distance of 12,000 kilometres between London and our capital in ten days, and also Miss Etzdorf, a German aviatrix, flew from Berlin to Tokyo via Siberia all by herself, while Colonel and Mrs. Lindbergh who had left America on a round-the-world flight paid a visit to Tokyo by air via Alaska, Kamchatka and the Kurile Islands, and Mr. Chester, an Australian aviator, came here from his native land across the South Pacific.

Flying Grounds

Public and private flying grounds in Japan are as follows :

Public Grounds The Tokyo Flying Ground. The Tokyo flying ground is situated at Suzuki-Shinden, Haneda-machi, Tokyo prefecture (Lat. 139° 40′ E. and Long. 35° 30′ N.). It is a flying ground on land in category and covers an area of 561,000 square metres. Its runway extends for 600 metres from east to west and as much from north to south. It slopes at a gradient of 1/500 and is divided into 330,000 square metres of exposed land, 198,000 square metres of grass land and 33,000 square metres of concrete paved zone. The usual direction of wind there is from south to north. In the grounds, there are a signal pole, a weighing beam, a compass correction stand, and a factory.

The Osaka Flying Ground. The Osaka flying ground is situated at Kizugawajiri, Funa-machi, Minato-ku, Osaka (Lat. 135° 23′ E. and Long. 34° 39′ N.). It is a flying ground both on land and water in category and covers an area of approximately 350,000 square metres. Its runway extends for 720 metres from east to north and 400 metres from north to south. The ground inclines in a minor degree from north to south and is overgrown with clover. The gliding range for hydroplanes is the sea outside Osaka harbour. The direction of wind there is generally from east to west. Chief provisions in the ground are a signal-pole, two tower-cranes, and a compass correction stand.

The Fukuoka Flying Ground. The Fukuoka flying ground is situated at Najima, Tadara-mura, Kasuya-gun, Fukuoka prefecture (Lat. 130° 26′ E. and Long. 33° 39′ N.). It is a flying ground for hydroplanes and its gliding range extends over the eastern part of Fukuoka Bay. The direction of wind there is generally from south to north. It is provided with a signal-pole, a crane, a weighing beam for hydroplanes, a compass correction stand, a gliding incline, an anchorage, etc.

The Urusan Flying Ground. The Urusan flying ground is situated at Urusan, Urusan-gun, Keisho-Nando (South Kyongsang-do), Chosen. It is a flying ground on land and its runway extends for 600 metres from east to west and for the same distance from north to south.

The Keijo Flying Ground. The Keijo flying ground is situated at Nyoito, Ryukomen, Koyo-gun, Keikido (Kyongki-do), Chosen. It is a flying ground on land and its runway extends for 600 metres from east to west and for the same distance from north to south.

The Dairen Flying Ground. The Dairen flying ground is situated at Choushuitzu, Kwantung Province. It is a flying ground on land and its runway forms a circle with a 600-metres diameter.

Private Grounds The Nakajima Aeroplane Works. This flying ground is situated at Minami-Hamakawa, Oi-machi, Yebara-ku, Tokyo, and is for use by hydroplanes.

The Hokkai Times Ground. The Hokkai Times flying ground is situated at Kita Nijushijo and Nijugojo, Sapporo. It is a flying ground on land and its runway extends for 190 metres from east to west and 360 metres from north to south.

The Kawanishi Aeroplane Co. This flying ground is situated at Naruo-mura, Muko-gun, Hyogo prefecture, and is for use by hydroplanes. Its gliding range is on the sea off No. 1, Ohigashi, Naruo, Naruo-mura.

Aeronautical Wireless Stations

The following wireless stations exist with the special object of supplying aeroplanes flying the Tokyo- Dairen and the Osaka-Shanghai routes with weather reports and also of reporting their arrival and departure :

Name	Call signal	Site
Tokyo Wireless Station	JYX	Otemachi Nichomé, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.
Hakoné „ „	JXH	Segyodaira, Mishima-machi, Takata-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.
Kameyama „	JXK	Ochizaki, Kameda, Kameyama-machi, Suzuga-gun, Miyé prefecture.
Osaka „ „	JEA	Dojima Nichomé, Kita-ku, Osaka.
Fukuoka „ „	JXF	Najima, Tadara-mura, Kasuya-gun, Fukuoka prefecture.
Itsuhara „ „	JXT	Itsuhara-machi, Shimokata-gun Nagano prefecture.
Tomiyé „ „	JXY	Minami Tomiyé-mura, Matsuura-gun, Nagasaki prefecture.
Urusan „ „	JBM	Hokumen-Dotei, Urusan, Urusangun, Keisho-Nando (South Kyongsang-do), Chosen.
Keijo „ „	JBB	Hommachi Itchomé, Keijo (Seoul), Keikido (Kyonki-do) Chosen.
Dairen „ „	JDP	Kambu-dori, Dairen, Kwantung province.

Land Marks for Aviators

In order to secure the safety of aerial navigation, the following places are marked with their names in large white "Kana" letters :

Mark	Place
Numazu	Tauruta, O-oka-mura, Sunto-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.
Hamamatsu	Matakogawa, Tomizuka-mura, Hamana-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.
Kameyama	Nomura, Kameyama-machi, Suzuka-gun, Miyé prefecture.
Azukijima	Shikai-mura, Azuki-gun, Kagawa prefecture.
Imaharu	Ohama, Chikami-mura, Koshichi-gun, Ehimé prefecture.
Murozumi	Aburada, Murozumi-machi, Kumaké-gun, Yamaguchi prefecture.
Nakatsu	Tsunoki, Nakatsu-machi Shimoké-gun, Oita prefecture.
Yukibashi	Yukibashi, Yukibashi-machi, Kyoto-gun, Fukuoka prefecture.
Urusan	Sansanri, Urusanmen, Urusan-gun, Keisho-Nando (South Kyong-sang-do), Chosen.
Kwokan	Nasanri, Kwokanmen, Yeido-gun, Chusei Hokudo (North Choong-chong-do), Chosen.
Taiden	Kudori, Gainamen, Taidén-gun, Chusei Nando(South Choongchong-do), Chosen.
Ten-an	Seiseiri, Ten-anmen, Ten-an-gun, Chusei Nando South Choong-chong-do), Chosen.
Shariin	Tetsuzanri, Shriinmen, Hozan-gun, Kwokai-do (Whanghai-do), Chosen.
Heijo (Pyongyang)	Jinkori, Seisenmen, Daido-gun, Heian Nando (South Pyong-an-do), Chosen.
Teishu	Jogaido, Teishumen, Teishu-gun, Heian Hokudo (North Pyong-an-do), Chosen.
Shin-Wiju	Mirokudo, Kojomen, Gishu-gun,Heian Hokudo(North Pyong-an-do), Chosen.
Pitzuwo	Pitzuwo, Kwantung Province.

Civilian Aeroplanes

Civilian aeroplanes, for which certificates of airworthiness and registry certificates have been granted, are as follows :

Classification	Description	Number	Total number
Free from all restrictions	Aeroplanes Hydroplanes	16	16
Not qualified for trick flying	Aeroplanes Hydroplanes	102 29	131
Total	Aeroplanes Hydroplanes	118 29	147

Civilian Aviators in Japan

Licensed Japanese civilian aviators are as follows :

Classification	1st class	2nd class	Total
Aeroplane and hydroplane pilots	167	108	275
Navigators	20	119	139
Mechanics	—	—	114
Dirigible balloon pilots	—	—	3

Aerial Lighthouses

In order to extend night flying the first necessity is the establishment of aerial-lighthouses, and according to the first plan of the Department of Communications 19 aerial lighthouses will be established along the Tokyo-Osaka route and the same number along the Osaka-Fukuoka line. For the former the four larger ones, at Hakoné (Shizuoka prefecture), Yaizu (Shizuoka), Chita (Aichi) and Ikoma (Nara) are already erected. The following are the names of places where the 38 aerial-lighthouses are and will be erected :

Tokyo-Osaka Place	Prefecture
Totsuka	Kanagawa
Suga	"
Manazurusaki	"
Hakoné	Shizuoka
Mishima	"
Tagonoura	"
Yaizu	"
Kikugawa	"
Takashigahara	Aichi
Manzu	"
Chita	"
Suzuka	Miyé
Seki	"
Higashitsugé	"
Shindo	"
Shimagahara	"
Kasagi	Kyoto
Ikoma	Nara

Osaka-Fukuoka Place	
Suma	Hyogo
Murozu	"
Tamatsu	Okayama
Okayama	"
Kasaoka	"
Hachigaminé	Hiroshima
Kamikitagata	"
Minaga	"
Kumanoato	"
Hiroshima	"
Iwakuni	Yamaguchi
Takamori	"
Kushihama	"
Nakaseki	"
Ubé	"
Karita	Fukuoka
Wakamatsu	"
Kanezazaki	"
Hiyamizutogé	"

Organizations connected with Aviation

The Aviation Council This body is under the direct control of the Minister of Education and returns reports on matters submitted by him ; it also deliberates on important matters concerning the study of the basic theories of flying-machines and makes recommendations to the Cabinet Ministers concerned. It is composed of a president and 20 councillors, and, in case of particular need, councillors ad interim are appointed. The councillors are the Vice-Ministers of the Departments of War, Marine, Education, and Communications as well as those who have deep knowledge and wide experience, while the councillors ad interim are selected from among scholars and experts.

The Imperial Aeronautical Association The Imperial Aeronautical Association was established in 1913 with the object of encouraging and protecting the development of science and art pertaining to aviation and of flying machines and their parts and accessories as well as diffusing knowledge of, and cultivating taste for, aerial flight among the people. A sum of ¥500,000 granted from the Privy Purse was made a foundation-fund, and, with interest accruing from it and with receipts from dues paid by its members (¥2.00 per member), the Association carries on its undertaking, the principal items of which are presenting persons who fall victims to aviation and accidents connected thereto with condolence money, awarding bounties to persons connected with aviation, and giving lectures, cinema shows, and exhibitions concerning aviation. It also publishes a monthly journal containing aviation news at home and abroad. It has an Imperial Prince as patron and a board of directors of 30 members, including a president, two vice-presidents, and a managing-director. In addition, it has five auditors and over 105 councillors, from whom directors are elected. Its offices are located at No. 7, Sakurada-Hongo-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

The International Aviation Commission This Commission is a permanent organ created in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty relat-

ing to Aviation, and makes or receives proposals bearing on alterations and modifications of the provisions of the treaty to and from the signatory Powers, and reports to them such alterations and modifications as are adopted.

The International Aviation Federation This Federation consists of various corporations relating to aviation in different countries and chiefly aims at the progress of civil aviation through mutual consultation and also the promotion of mutual facilities. Besides, it undertakes recognition of world flying records. The Imperial Aeronautical Association represents Japan in the Federation.

The Aeronautical Institute The Aeronautical Institute was first established at Etchujima in Tokyo in April, 1918 by taking over the business of the Commission on Investigation of Aeronautics organized in the Tokyo Imperial University in April, 1916, with the object of making researches in aeroplanes, airships, balloons, motors, aviation psychology and other matters concerning aviation. Subsequently, in the earthquake and fire of 1923, the institute was destroyed and was newly constructed at Komaba in the grounds of the Department of Agriculture of the Tokyo Imperial University in 1927. It is divided into the departments of air pockets, aeroplanes, physics, chemistry, metallurgy and material, and ranks first in the world in point of equipment. The present president is Baron Chuzaburo Shiba, Doctor of Science and Professor at the Tokyo Imperial University.

Training Institutes Below are lists of institutes established for the training of aviators :

PRIVATE INSTITUTES AND SCHOOLS FOR THE TRAINING OF CIVILIAN AVIATORS

Name	Site	Representative
Japan Air Transport Institute	Shin-Koyenchi, Ohama, Sakai, Osaka prefecture.	Choichi Inouyé
Japan Flying School	Tachikawa-machi, Tokyo prefecture.	Tamotsu Aiba
Kita-Nippon Flying School	Ujiina-mura, Sapporo-gun, Hokkaido.	Takanori Nakamura
Nishida Aeroplane Institute	Kizugawajiri, Funamachi, Minato-ku, Osaka.	Chuyémon Nishida
Hamamatsu Aeroplane Works, Ltd.	Tomuzuka-mura, Hamana-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.	Tetsuo Hasegawa
Dai-ichi Aeronautical School	Funabashi-machi, Chiba prefecture.	Yetsutaro Munezato
Nagoya Flying School	Obatagahara, Higashi-Kasuga-gun, Aichi prefecture.	Fukuhi Mihara
Ando Flying Institute	Shin-Maiko, Asahi-mura, Chita-gun, Aichi prefecture.	Kozo Ando
Tokushima Aeronautical School	Kamona-machi near Tokushima	Tomokagé Sakata
Japan Light Aeroplane Club	Saminuma, Tanuma-machi, Chiba prefecture.	Otojiro Ito
Misono Flying School	Tachikawa-machi, Tokyo prefecture.	Nishio Suzuki
To-a Flying College	Tsudanuma-machi, Chiba prefecture.	Sami Kawabé
Dai-ichi Flying School	Susaki, Fukagawa-ku, Tokyo.	Tatsugoro Yendo
Japan Students' Aviation League	Tachikawa-machi, Tokyo prefecture.	—

FLYING MACHINE AND MOTOR MANUFACTURERS

Aeroplane Manufacturers

Name	Site of Factory
Mitsubishi Aeroplane Co., Ltd.	Oyé-machi, Minami-ku, Nagoya
Kawasaki Shipyard, Ltd.	Higashijiriiké, Hyogo, Kobé

Name	Site of Factory
Aichi Time-Piece and Electric Apparatus Co., Ltd.	No. 15 Funagata, Sennen-cho, Minami-ku, Nagoya
Nakajima Aeroplane Works	Ota-machi, Nitta-gun, Gumma prefecture
Ishikawajima Aeroplane Works, Ltd.	No. 7 Nishinaka-dori Kuchomé, Tsukijima, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo
Watanabé Iron Works, Ltd.	Naka-mura, Tsukushi-gun, Fukuoka prefecture

Motor Manufacturers

Mitsubishi Aeroplane Co., Ltd.	No. 7 Oyé-machi, Minami-ku, Nagoya
Kawasaki Shipyard, Ltd.	Higashijiriiké, Hyogo, Kobé
Tokyo Gas and Electric Industry Co., Ltd.	No. 100 Iriyamazu, Iriarai-machi, Yebara-ku Tokyo
Tokyo Factory of the Nakajima Aeroplane Works, Ltd.	Ogikubo, Suginami-ku, Tokyo

Balloon and Dirigible Manufacturers

Fujikura Industrial Co., Ltd.	No. 132 Osaki-machi, Yebara-ku, Tokyo
Tokyo E. C. Industrial Co., Ltd.	No. 437 Ikejiri-machi, Setagaya-ku, Tokyo

CHAPTER XXVII

SEA TRANSPORTATION

Historical Background

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

Ban on Shipping Activities Unfortunately, while the maritime prosperity of Japan was thus making progress by leaps and bounds, suspicion arose that the Roman Catholic emissaries, principally Jesuits, who were then propagating their religion in Japan, had a secret and ulterior object in fomenting political troubles among the people, and this was the signal for an abrupt ending of the hitherto increasing maritime activities. The Tokugawa Shogunate took the drastic measure of secluding the country and forbidding all foreign intercourse. Its first act was to place a strict ban on the propagation of Christianity in 1613. Subsequently, in 1634, all commercial relations with foreign countries were stopped, and in 1636 the construction of large ocean-going vessels was forbidden. The result was that the Japanese were absolutely deprived of the privilege of going abroad, and foreign vessels were barred from calling at Japanese ports, except only those of Chinese and Dutch nationalities, and these had to submit to the most restrictive conditions. For a long period of more than two centuries thereafter, the ocean trade of Japan was held in a state of forced suspension. That Japan for more than two hundred years after the determined closing of the country to the outside world enjoyed perfect peace, finds no parallel in history, but the progress of the civilized world in the nineteenth century would not permit the continuation of such a state of isolation, and with the beginning of last century vessels of various nationalities visited these shores one after another with demands for trade intercourse. But Japan was in a chronic state of isolation, and would listen to no reasonable demands, until 1853, when Commodore Mathew Perry made his

historic appearance in Tokyo Bay, with a squadron of warships, and formally demanded a treaty of friendship and commerce. The demand was preferred in such a manner as not to allow the Shogun's Government to entertain any doubts as to possible consequences.

The Well-timed Visit The Commodore's visit was well timed, inasmuch as by this time many Japanese amongst the intelligent class were dimly aware of the conditions outside Japan, and, therefore, of the futility of attempting further resistance. Contrary views were naturally and violently in evidence, but the Shogun's Government amid the confusion of opinion took a firm step and signed the treaty. This event was followed in 1854 by the conclusion of similar treaties with leading nations of Europe. Commercial intercourse with foreign countries was thus resumed, and the time-worn restrictions on navigation and shipbuilding were withdrawn. Then was formed the nucleus of the present mercantile marine of Japan. The Shogun's Government, finding the old Japanese systems of shipbuilding and navigation utterly out-of-date, promptly decided upon introducing the ideas of the outside world. For this purpose, students were sent abroad, while foreign experts were engaged to work in Japan. A shipbuilding yard was established in Yokosuka, and a naval school in Nagasaki. The Daimyo were not slow in following the example, but the bulk of the people were still far from taking an interest in the new movements.

After the Meiji Restoration

The Meiji Restoration is a boundary line in Japan both in politics and industry. During the seventy years which have followed the Restoration, Japan has made great progress in every field of industry but in the case of sea transportation she has made a progress that has seldom been equalled in history, in spite of the fact that there was the handicap of over two centuries of seclusion to be made up through the policy adopted by the Tokugawa Shogunate. After the ban on the construction of merchantman, which was placed by the Tokugawa Government in 1639, was removed in 1853, and stimulated by wars which occurred during the Meiji and Taisho Eras, the shipping business in Japan developed rapidly.

Mercantile Marine Regulation The new Government created following the Meiji Restoration made energetic efforts to introduce western learning and ideas and to apply these to the administration of State affairs and all possible branches of national life. As regards shipping, its efforts, which were warmly supported by the zeal of enterprising businessmen, gradually bore fruit, and Japan can now boast that its mercantile marine, after more than two centuries of forced seclusion, has made its reappearance in an improved form, and strengthened in every respect. In the third year of Meiji the Government promulgated the Mercantile Marine Regulations, which were the first indication of its policy of encouragement.

The First Steamship Co. In the same year, the pioneer steamship concern was inaugurated and a new leaf in the history of the Japanese mercantile marine was turned. The first company to be incorporated was the Kwaiso Kaisha, or Forwarding and Transport Company, which was later re-named the Teikoku Yusen Joki Kaisha (Imperial Mail Steamship Co.). Mampei Kimura was one of the chief promoters. A regular service was maintained between Tokyo and Yokohama and between

Osaka and Kobé. Yataro Iwasaki, founder of the Mitsubishi interests, incorporated a shipping company called Kutsumo Shokai, later renamed the Mitsubishi Shokai in 1870 and inaugurated a regular passenger service between Tokyo and Kochi in Shikoku, from which Iwasaki hailed. Three steamers formerly owned by Lord Yamanouchi, former feudal lord of Tosa, were employed in the service. When the Japanese Government sent a punitive force against Formosa in 1874, all foreign steamship companies interested in the Far Eastern shipping trade declared neutrality and rejected the Government's offer to charter their ships. Perplexed at this, the Government ordered the Mitsubishi Shokai and Teikoku Joki to offer their ships, and thus the transportation of troops was smoothly effected.

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

The O. S. K. About this time the Osaka Shosen Kaisha was established in Osaka. It was then a small concern maintaining services in the Inland Sea of Japan, but later developed into a large company. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha, while maintaining the services originally inaugurated by its predecessors, opened new lines to Korea and North China, and one between Shanghai and Vladivostok; and in 1891, it inaugurated the service between Kobé and Manila and commenced to dispatch occasional ships to Australia. In 1892, the N. Y. K. Japan-Bombay service was opened, the first regular Japanese steamship service with a far away foreign country. The rapid progress of Japanese shipping can be proved by the fact that in the beginning of 1891 the total tonnage owned in Japan was 100,000, and this figure was increased by 10,000, tons in the following year.

The Sino-Japanese War During the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, when the greater part of Japanese space was requisitioned for transport purposes, a large number of steamers

was purchased by Japanese owners and many others were chartered by them, and Japan, having complete command of the sea, was able to maintain its established oversea services. At the close of the war, Japan found its merchant marine had grown by 100 per cent. compared with the figures of before the war. Meanwhile, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha lost no time in consolidating its established lines and in 1896 it inaugurated three trunk lines, viz., the Yokohama-London-Antwerp line, the Hongkong-Japan-Seattle line and the Yokohama-Manila-Australia line. In 1898 the Toyo Kisen Kaisha was established, and it maintained a few regular fast service between Hongkong and San Francisco via Japanese ports with three fine new passenger boats. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha was not behindhand. It opened a new line on the Yangtze-kiang in 1898. In the following year, this company opened a line from Formosa to Hongkong, via Amoy and Swatow. The increase in Japanese tonnage at that time was remarkable. Whereas, at the end of 1897 it amounted to only 270,000 tons, it suddenly increased at the end of 1898, to 477,000 tons, the ratio of growth continuing, until the gross tonnage of steamers of 1,000 tons and over at the end of 1903 amounted to 521,000.

Foreigners' Services Mention must not be omitted of the valuable contribution made by foreign experts to the development of the Japanese mercantile marine. Through the remarkable foresight of Iwasaki, not only foreign captains, officers, engineers and pursers were freely engaged afloat, but numerous experts, business and technical, were employed on shore to conduct the business of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. A large number of these foreigners remained in the company's service for a considerable time after its formation. Foremost among them were A. R. Brown, Alexander Macmillan, T. H. James, J. W. Ekstrand, W. H. Hasewell, Hector Frazer, etc., whose names are still familiar to old timers in the Far Eastern shipping trade.

One noteworthy fact in connection with the development of the shipping business is the advance made by Japanese mariners. Japan imported the science of navigation from the West and early in the Meiji Era, captains, chief engineers and mates were mostly foreigners. When the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was first organized in 1884, the company owned 57 steamers with a total tonnage of 60,000 and employed about 174 foreigners, the number being increased to 224 during the Sino-Japanese War. During the Russo-Japanese War, Japanese mariners were centres of praise, and their credit was greatly raised. After the war, in 1907, the number of foreigners was reduced to 87 and in 1920 there was not a single foreigner in a Japanese ship.

The Russo-Japanese War The Russo-Japanese War broke out early in 1904, and Japan found itself compelled to undertake transport work of the biggest magnitude ever known in its history. This situation naturally created the necessity of purchasing additional tonnage, with the result that at the end of 1906 the total merchant marine reached a little more than one million gross tons, and Japan thus ranked sixth among the great maritime Powers of the world. Through the expansion of trade after the war, sufficient employment was found for these steamers. The Toyo Kisen Kaisha opened its South American service before the war terminated. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha started in 1909 its Far East—Puget Sound service. Elsewhere, the expansion was also pronounced, for in 1907 four large

Japanese companies trading on the Yangtze-kiang pooled their interests and formed the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha (Japan-China Steamship Company) and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha in the meantime inaugurated the Tsuruga-Vladivostok and the Osaka-Kobé-Moji-Dairen lines. The general slump in the shipping trade which prevailed all over the world during this period was felt in Japan, but the country was not so badly hit as to prevent its further growth, for, at the end of the year when the World War broke out, the total gross tonnage of ships flying the Japanese flag was 1,590,000, of which 1,310,000 tons represented ships of more than 1,000 gross tons each. Turning to the share which Japanese merchant shipping contributed to its foreign commerce, it was found that, whereas, prior to the Sino-Japanese war (1894-5), only 10 per cent. of imports and exports were carried by Japanese ships, the proportion increased to 40 per cent. after the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), and just before the commencement of the World War, it was further augumented to 48 per cent.

The World War An extensive dearth of tonnage and the consequent pressing demand for space all over the world, caused by the World War, created a unique situation for Japanese merchant shipping, so much so that the total gross tonnage suddenly swelled by a million tons within a brief period and the yearly shipbuilding capacity increased from 50,000 tons to a half million gross tons. The share contributed by Japanese vessels to the transportation of imports and exports increased to nearly 80 per cent., the remaining 20 per cent. being carried by foreign ships. Many new shipping services to all corners of the globe were opened one after another, and besides rendering distinguished service to the cause of the Allies, the Japanese mercantile marine maintained a regular fortnightly Japan-England mail service, and dispatched extra ships to European waters during the war. This undertaking was a risky one, resulting in the sinking of four mail steamers, including the Yasaka Maru, one of the finest N. Y. K. passenger boats, by German warships. Many lives also were lost. Other Japanese shipowners continually maintained their sailings from Japan to Europe during the War at great risks. Furthermore, in response to the call of the United States after that country participated in the War a group of Japanese shipowners delivered a number of steamers aggregating 150,000 tons to the United States Government on charter at rates considerably lower than those which shipowners at that time could have obtained in the open market.

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

Shipping and Wars An interesting point in the development of the Japanese shipping business is the very close relationship that exists between it and wars. After the Restoration, Japan engaged in several wars, both large and small, and in each case the shipping business rendered great service in the way of sea transportation. But wars offered also great opportunities for self-development. Each of the Formosan affairs, the Civil War of 1876, the Sino-Japanese War, the Russo-Japanese War and the World War gave Japan great opportunities for development, as the following figures show:

	Before the War	After the War	Percentage of increase
	tons	tons	
The Sino-Japanes War	95,748	265,696	177%
The Russo-Japanese War	511,770	826,703	61%
The World War	1,443,280	2,500,669	73%

(Figures include only those ships above 1,000 tons).

In brief, during wars, without exception, there were big demands for space, and both the Government and the people were busily engaged in constructing and purchasing more ships. Space naturally increased at a great rate, but was advantageously utilized in coping with the phenomenal expansion in trade and industry which followed each war. The shipping business in Japan therefore owes a great deal to wars.

Aid and Encouragement In 1874, the Government established the policy that the shipping business should receive Government subsidies and it gave to the Mitsubishi Co., which rendered great services during the Formosan affair, thirteen ships and guaranteed to subsidize the company with ¥250,000 for navigation and with ¥15,000 for training seamen for a term of fifteen years. In return for this, the company was to run regular ships on prescribed routes, carry mails without charge, and meet any requisition of ships by the Government. This was the origin of Japan's shipping policy, and therein lies the secret of Japan's expansion in the shipping business. Each succeeding Government has recognized the functions that shipping companies have to discharge in peace and war, and have never failed to apportion money from the national treasury even in times of retrenchment. Some of the principal decrees connected with the encouragement of shipping are as follows:

(1) The first subsidy to the Mitsubishi Company in September, 1874.

(2) The second and third orders to the same company in 1875 and 1881.

(3) The subsidy to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha in September, 1884.

(4) The subsidy order issued to the Osaka Shosen Kaisha in 1886.

(5) Enactment of the Navigation and Shipbuilding Act in 1895.

(6) Amounts to subsidize lines to Bombay, Australia, Europe and America were granted.

(7) Subsidized lines were extended later to the Inland Sea, the Kinkai (near seas), the Yangtze River route, Canton, Tientsin, Dalny, the South Seas, West Coast of America, the South American routes, etc.

Working Agreements

Japan's three largest shipping concerns, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Osaka Shosen Kaisha and the Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, the last-mentioned being a subsidiary of the first, entered into an agreement in April, 1931, on shipping co-operation as a counter-measure for the shipping depression. The basic principles involved in the agreement were the mutual respect of services operated by them, the readjustment of steamship routes, the extension of the pooling system and co-operative management. The agreement is to

last for 10 years. As the result of this agreement, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha abolished its South American Atlantic service, leaving its operation to the Osaka Shosen Kaisha. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha discontinued the operation of its Puget Sound line, leaving the entire interest of the service to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha entrusted the management of its North European line west of Suez to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. The mutual use of agents, joint acceptance of passenger and goods transportation, joint utilization of shipping, land and sea equipment, and the joint purchase of fuel and ships' materials were agreed on among them.

The Present State

Gold Embargo Raised In 1930, Japan raised the embargo on gold exports, and this placed the freight market of Japan in a depressed condition. This depression was further intensified by the world-wide depression which became worse in that year. Prior to 1930, the movement of goods in the world was gradually increasing, but in 1930, there was a sudden decrease. Unfortunately the space did not decrease along with it. This naturally led the freight market into a severe depression. The following statistics for freight show this :

	Europe	North America	South America	India	The Far East Pacific	Australia	Av.
Average freight during 1889-1913	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1923 av. 12mos	138	123	124	123	128	131	126
1924	128	138	130	125	128	143	132
1925	112	123	113	113	110	143	119
1926	118	132	134	124	107	134	123
1927	115	127	125	123	132	148	128
1928	108	111	111	110	117	133	115
1929	124	109	114	112	107	109	113
1930	93	89	94	99	81	96	92

As the above figures explain, the freight was lowered to a level such as never reached before. In fact, the year 1930 was a record year for the shipping business in Japan in the severity of its effects. The number of tramp steamers laid up in that year increased from 25 vessels, 105,000 tons, to 68 vessels, 358,000 tons. Regular liners were also badly affected. The decrease in purchasing power of the various countries in the world due to the depression and the increase in tariff walls naturally resulted in the decreased movement of cargoes and a keener competition amongst shipping companies with lower freights generally. Furthermore, the decrease in income from freight, due to the higher value of the yen caused through raising the ambargo on gold, severely affected the incomes of companies.

The Year 1931 The year 1931 opened with slightly improved conditions. On account of great movements of Australian wheat to India, and that of lumber from the Northern Sea district the demand for space was strong and freight rose to some degree. As regards regular liners, freight was maintained through agreements arrived at between the N. Y. K., O. S. K. and Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, Ltd. But during the latter part of the year, owing to the abandonment of the gold standard by Great Britain and the outburst in Manchuria, the shipping business of Japan received a double blow. The export of Japanese goods to Central China was drastically reduced, for example, the export of coal from September to December decreased to one half the quantity of the previous year. The losses of the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha, Ltd., which runs regular liners along the Chinese coast and in the Yangtse River, were especially severe. When Great Britain went off the gold standard and there was a consequent lowering of the value of sterling by 25 or 30% the income of the Japanese shipping companies was reduced by so much where the freight was quoted in sterling, besides which competition with British and other vessels became more difficult. Furthermore, the lowering of sterling made the import of old vessels easier and caused a delay in the adjustment of old vessels in Japan. While the shipping business in Japan was facing these difficulties there was, in December, a change of Government and the new Ministry, formed by the Seiyukai Party, immediately reimposed the embargo on the export of gold.

The Gold Embargo The relief which the shipping industry received from this was rather slow in being felt in the beginning, but a stronger tone was noticed in the latter part of 1932. Owing to the sharp decline of the yen larger vessels moved on to foreign routes, and reduced the space offering in nearby seas. Vessels which were in service on the European routes at the end of 1932 were 673,650 tons, showing an increase of 348,000 tons, while those on the North American-Atlantic and the India-Australia routes were 187,000 tons and 261,000 tons, showing increases of 30,000 tons and 81,000 tons respectively. Though the North America-Pacific and the South Sea routes showed decreases of 215,000 tons and 54,000 tons, still the market as a whole was very strong, vessels tied up being reduced by about 135,000 tons. The freight for coal from Muroran to Yokohama was increased from ¥0.65 to ¥1.30 per ton and that for bean cake from Dalny to Yokohama from ¥0.05 to ¥0.09 per picul (133lbs).

Tramp Ships The most important overseas work of Japanese tramp ships is connected with the shipment of Oregon lumber from Puget Sound to Japan and other Oriental countries ; of Australian wheat to British India and Japan ; of Manchurian staple products, mostly beans, to Europe ; grain from N. America to Europe ; coal from Wales to Port Said ; and of Saghalien lumber to Japan. In the near-sea service, the transportation of soy beans and bean cake from Dairen to Japan and Kyushu coal from Wakamatsu to different ports is the most important business. In the ocean-going service, the Oregon lumber freight is taken as the criterion for all other steamer freights and in the near-sea service the Wakamatsu-Yokohama coal rate is the important one.

1932 Shipping The allocation of Japanese freighters, each weighing more than 2,000 tons deadweight, for 1932 follows :

Services	Jan. 1	June 1	Dec. 1
Near-Sea	1,125,817	1,501,872	1,288,957
South Seas, Straits Settlements	399,043	469,121	312,188
North American-Pacific	526,356	315,286	380,169
Indian and Australian	285,183	178,020	248,738
North American-Atlantic	200,060	222,071	213,875
European waters	396,815	381,625	711,216

Japanese shipowners dispatched their ships to European waters in large numbers last year, taking advantage of the drop in the exchange rate following the replacement of the gold embargo. Of the total freights received by Japanese tramp ships abroad, 55 per cent. is paid in pounds. Ships dispatched to European waters nearly doubled during the year, an unprecedented occurrence for this country.

Government Subsidies

There are eight steamship companies working overseas and domestic services under Central Governmental subsidy. These concerns are the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha, the Nanyo Yusen Kaisha, the Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, the Harada Kisen Kaisha, the Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha and the Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha. The subsidy is paid to these companies for a period of one year from April to March in most cases. Some services are subject to receipt of subsidy for a period of three years and others for each year. The subsidized steamship services follow :

NIPPON YUSEN KAISHA

Lines	Number of ships on subsidized lines	Number of trips
Yokohama-London	10 ships (each over 9,000 tons)	26 trips a year
North American San Fransisco	3 ships (each over 13,000 tons)	17 " " "
North American Seattle	3 ships (each over 12,000 tons)	10 " " "
South American West Coast	4 ships (each over 7,000 tons)	10 " " "
Yokohama-Melbourne	3 ships (each over 5,000 tons)	12 " " "
Shanghai-Nagasaki	2 ships (each over 5,000 tons)	Every 4 days
Yokohama-Shanghai	3 ships	5 trips a month

OSAKA SHOSEN KAISHA

South American East Coast	5 ships (each over 7,000 tons)	11 trips a year
African East Coast	5 ships (each over 9,000 tons)	12 " " "
Dairen	4 ships (each over 5,000 tons)	2 trips a week
Osaka-Naha	2 ships (each over 1,200 tons)	104 trips a year
Kagoshima-Naha	2 ships	4 trips a week

The N. Y. K. Yokohama-London service has Kobé, Shanghai Hongkong, Singapore, Colombo, Suez, Port Said and Marseilles as intermediate ports of call. Its San Fransisco line has Honolulu as the only intermediate port of call on both outward and homeward (eastward-bound) trips. On the westward-bound trip it has Nagasaki, Shanghai, and Hongkong as such. The company's Yokohama-Seattle (eastward-bound) service has Victoria or Vancouver as ports of call and its westward-bound service has Kobé, Nagasaki and Shanghai as ports of call. Its South American Coast line between Yokohama and Valparaiso (eastward-bound) has Honolulu, Manzanillo, or Salina Cruz, Callao and Iquique as ports of call and its westward-bound line has as ports of call Kobé, Moji and Hongkong. The N. Y. K. Yokohama-Melbourne service has as ports of call Kobé, Nagasaki, Hongkong, Manila, Davao, Thursday Island, Brisbane and Sydney both ways.

The O. S. K. South American East Coast line (Yokohama-Buenos Aires) for its outward bound trip has as ports of call Kobé, Nagasaki, Hongkong, Singapore, Cape Town, Rio de Janeiro and Santos. On homeward bound the line has Santos, Rio de Janeiro and Christoval as ports of call. The O. S. K. African East Coast line operates between Kobé and Cape Town and on its outward bound has Moji, Hongkong, Singapore, Colombo, Mombasa, Zanzibar, Dar-Es-Salaam, Beira, Lourenço Marques and Durban. On homeward bound the line has Durban, Lourenço Marques, Mombasa, Zanzibar, Singapore and Moji as ports of call. These are the most important steamship lines operated under Government subsidy.

In addition, the Nanyo Yusen Kaisha operate under Government subsidy the South Sea Line between Kobé and Sourabaya and Java lines. The former line has Macassar, Sourabaya, Samarang and Batavia on outward trip. Ships sail direct for Kobé on homeward trip. The Nisshin Kisen Kaisha operates the China Coast line between Shanghai and Canton as southern line and between Shanghai and Tientsin or Taku as northern line. The company also maintains the Shanghai-Hankow line with Chenkiang and Nankiang as ports of call, the Hankow-Ichang line with Shasi as port of call, the Hankow-Hsiangtan line with Changsha as port of call, the Hankow-Chagteh line, and the Ichang-Chungching line, all these five lines being known as the Yangtze River services.

The Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, affiliated with the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, operates a subsidized regular service between Kobé and Tientsin or Taku during the winter time with Moji as port of call and also the Yokohama-Newchwang (Yingkow) service with Nagoya as port of call, both under Government subsidy. It also runs a regular service between Hakodaté and Odomari in Karafuto. The N. Y. K., O. S. K. and Harada Kisen Kaisha jointly maintains a Kobé-Tsingtao regular steamer service. The Tsuruga-Vladivostok regular service is operated by the Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha, which is affiliated with the Osaka Shosen Kaisha. The Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha, Hokkaido, operates a regular service between Hakodaté and Petropavlovsk in Kamchatka seven times a year during the warm season. Stores and other supplies of daily necessity are carried by ships on the service for Japanese fishermen engaged in Kamchatka fishery. A regular connecting service between Aomori and Muroran is maintained by the Kita Nippon.

Nippon Yusen Kaisha regular liners sailing between Japan and Europe will call on their outward trips at Istanbul and Beirut more than twice every three months, those sailing between the same places will call on their outward and homeward trips at Piraeus more than twice every three months, and those sailing between Japan and the United States will call on their homeward trips at Havana in Cuba once every two months, all under Government subsidy.

Ship Improvement Law One of the most noteworthy events in Japanese shipping in 1932 was the enforcement of the Ship Improvement Law in October following the adoption of the bill at the extraordinary Diet session held in August. The Ministry of Communications provided a plan for the construction of superior freighters to eliminate old ships which were increasing. For this purpose, the Ministry planned the construction of 200,000 tons of superior ships in exchange for the breaking-up of 400,000 tons of old ships aged more than 25 years. The Government is to give a subsidy over three years of ¥12,000,000 for the building of these 200,000 ton ships. Each ship to be built must be more than 4,000 gross tons and employed for ocean-going purposes. For the first year the Ministry has sanctioned subsidy grants for the building of 95,510 tons of new freighters,

providing double that tonnage of old ships is scrapped. The shipbuilding industry in Japan for 1932 was in its worst plight of recent years. Ships of more than 100 tons launched in Japan during 1932 numbered 63 with an aggregate of only 57,997 gross tons. This tonnage is less than one-tenth of Japan's total shipbuilding capacity. Ships in course of construction at the end of 1932 totalled 33 with an aggregate of 67,730 tons. Ships launched in Japan for the last 10 years follow:

	No. launched	Gross tonnage
1923	19	62,926
1924	20	63,790
1926	14	49,360
1927	15	47,539
1928	35	52,473
1929	53	109,664
1930	78	167,254
1931	49	84,004
1932	63	57,994

The number of qualified mariners in Japan at the end of 1931 was 227,366, of whom 222,346 were Japanese and 5,020 foreigners. In addition, the number of marine technicians at the end of that year was 85,953, of whom 85,821 were Japanese and 133 foreigners. These technicians were mates and engineers. The number of pilots in Japan at the end of 1931 was 57, all Japanese. Until the end of 1914 there were four foreign pilots in this country, but since then there has been none.

Open Ports The open ports in Japan are Yokohama, Kobé, Niigata, Ebisuko, Osaka, Nagasaki, Hakodaté, Shimizu, Takétoyo, Nagoya, Yokkaichi, Uno, Onomichi, Itozaki, Tokuyama, Imaharu, Shimonoseki, Hagi, Moji, Wakamatsu, Hakata, Karatsu, Suminoyé, Kuchinotsu, Miiké, Misumi, Kagoshima, Izuhara, Naha, Hamada, Sakai, Miyazu, Tsuruga, Nanao, Fushiki, Funakawa, Aomori, Otaru, Nemuro, Kushiro, Muroran, Otomari and Maoka.

Promotion of Seamen's Welfare

There are two important organizations for the promotion of seamen's welfare. They are subsidized by the Central Government. They are the Seamen's Aid Society of Japan and the Imperial Society of Life-Saving Service. Their business for the last 6 years follows:

BUSINESS OF THE SEAMEN'S AID SOCIETY OF JAPAN

Year	Executive organs	Lower class seamen trained	Higher class seamen trained	Seamen lodged	Patients cured in hospitals: in-patients	Patients cured in hospitals: out-patients	Seamen officially commended	Seamen rescued
1926	26	1,028	549	10,828	2,120	17,708	1,106	158
1927	27	970	432	13,601	1,898	23,150	869	122
1928	29	910	507	17,835	2,090	23,772	1,055	90
1929	29	896	547	18,464	1,653	22,174	864	98
1930	29	444	643	16,863	1,269	21,198	1,116	181
1931	29	318	528	11,532	1,403	22,158	1,001	136

BUSINESS OF THE IMPERIAL SOCIETY OF LIFE-SAVING SERVICE

Year	Saving offices: No.	Saving offices: Officers	Vessels, etc., rescued: No. of vessels	Vessels (Value in yen)	Cargoes (Value in yen)	Persons
1926	105	12,240	393	4,820,776	1,647,102	1,753
1927	107	14,079	427	2,397,611	422,905	2,201
1928	120	15,288	519	3,108,113	398,108	2,640
1929	130	15,783	434	4,466,760	563,173	2,303
1930	146	17,621	673	2,866,854	383,763	2,856
1931	149	12,853	592	2,255,254	525,132	2,947

BUSINESS OF THE MARINE COOPERATIVE ASSOCIATION FOR FINDING EMPLOYMENT FOR SEAMEN

Year	Employment offices	No. of applications: Higher class seamen	No. of applications: Lower class seamen	No. of men wanted: Higher class seamen	No. of men wanted: Lower class seamen	No. of applications filled: Higher class seamen	No. of applications filled: Lower class seamen
1927	13	4,945	33,991	1,539	23,202	1,408	22,225
1928	13	4,826	32,596	1,396	22,393	1,246	21,921
1929	17	3,908	31,879	1,496	23,033	1,388	22,410
1930	18	4,458	25,217	1,395	17,569	1,338	17,292
1931	18	5,108	24,087	1,622	18,227	1,596	17,927

Status of Steamship Companies

Business status of Japan's five largest steamship companies on March 31, 1931, as prepared by the Ministry of Communications, follows:

Description	Nippon Yusen Kaisha, Ltd.	Osaka Shosen Kaisha, Ltd.	Nisshin Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Nanyo Yusen Kaisha, Ltd.	Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.
Capital in yen	106,250,000	100,000,000	16,200,000	5,000,000	2,700,000
Capital paid up in yen	64,250,000	62,500,000	10,125,000	4,562,500	2,325,000
No. of steamers	102	134	25	4	18
Gross tonnage	729,610	525,574	53,838	16,063	25,023
No. of sailings	611	6,088	597	23	907
Total distance sailed in miles	5,251,891	7,357,763	624,580	203,317	608,077
No. of passengers	176,000	1,586,371	252,660	1,112	67,691
Cargoes shipped in tons	3,804,000	7,233,201	601,365	177,653	802,656
Receipts from passengers in yen	17,466,944	12,127,660	502,751	88,949	479,482
Receipt from freights in yen	49,980,688	43,216,649	4,120,575	1,233,312	3,391,068
Total receipts in yen	67,447,632	55,344,309	4,623,326	1,322,261	3,870,550

LIST OF LARGE N. Y. K. BOATS

	Gross tonnage	Passenger accommodation: 1st class	2nd class	3rd class	Steerage
M.S. Asama	17,000	207	80	—	500
M.S. Tatsuta	17,000	207	80	—	500
M.S. Chichibu	17,500	207	80	—	500
M.S. Terukuni	12,000	125	69	60	—
M.S. Yasukuni	12,000	125	69	60	—
M.S. Heian	11,616	Cabin class.	82	Tourist	260
M.S. Hikawa	11,622	,,	82	,,	260
M.S. Hiyé	11,622	,,	82	,,	260
M.S. Heiyo	10,000	Tourist cabin	84	3rd class	500
S.S. Taiyo	14,458	308	221	—	426
S.S. Tenyo	13,402	195	84	—	508
S.S. Shinyo	13,027	141	82	—	508
S.S. Korea	11,810	151	41	—	432
S.S. Siberia	11,790	143	41	—	432
S.S. Fushimi	10,936	132	59	31	54
S.S. Suwa	10,672	116	55	32	54
S.S. Haruna	10,421	116	55	32	88
S.S. Hakoné	10,421	116	55	32	88
S.S. Hakozaki	10,413	116	55	32	88
S.S. Hakusan	10,380	116	55	32	102
S.S. Kashima	9,908	122	52	37	64
S.S. Katori	9,849	120	52	30	64
S.S. Rakuyo	9,419	42	51	—	663
S.S. Anyo	9,257	32	62	—	596
S.S. Bokuyo	8,619	37	53	—	448
S.S. Ginyo	8,613	37	38	—	456

Business Conditions of Large Shipping Companies

Nippon Yusen Kaisha The business condition of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha has remained unchanged for several business terms and no dividend has been declared since the second half-yearly term of 1930. However, the concern's stock is being made an object of traditional popularity and, despite the drop in value, it forms a source of public investment. The concern's shares were quoted at ¥247 in 1920, the highest point as far reached, but they dropped to the low price of ¥25.2 in 1930. About 80 per cent. of the concern's freight and passenger income is paid in foreign currencies. The replacement of the gold embargo in December, 1931, was a rather welcome factor for the concern. Pessimism outstrips optimism on the concern's business prospects. The pessimistic factors are that the activity of its ships in Japan's trade with China has been completely sealed, due to the vigorous boycott movement in China following the Manchurian and Shanghai incidents; the world's shipping business has no immediate prospects of rehabilitation; import restrictions and high tariff walls; lack of control among Japanese shipowners; and increase of expenses following the drop in the exchange rate. Optimistic factors are very few. The Ship Improvement Law passed by the Imperial Diet in August, 1932, will benefit it; there should be an increase in freight income, due to the drop in exchange, but this is liable to be offset by a drop in freight rates; and the universal trend of scrapping old ships will alleviate surplus space. The concern's business results for the last 5 years follow:

	Subscribed capital	Paid-up capital (In ¥1,000)	Profit	Profit rate	Dividend rate
1928: 1st half	106,250	64,250	5,931	18.5	8
2nd half	106,250	64,250	5,577	17.4	8
1929: 1st half	106,250	64,250	4,736	14.7	8
2nd half	106,250	64,250	5,319	16.6	8
1930: 1st half	106,250	64,250	4,812	15.0	5
2nd half	106,250	64,250	1,604 (loss)	.5 (loss)	—
1931: 1st half	106,250	64,250	4,904	15.3	—
2nd half	106,250	64,250	5,174	16.1	—
1932: 1st half	106,250	64,250	5,124	15.9	—

The company's assets and liabilities in March, 1932, amounted to ¥212,913,001 each, as follows:

Liabilities (In ¥1,000)	
Capitalization	106,250
Reserves for ship insurance	8,972
Reserves	18,880
Special reserves	211
Debentures	60,000
Loans	990
Bills payable	1,015
Pensions for employees	3,261
Others and total	212,913

Assets (In ¥1,000)	
Unpaid capital	42,000
Ship value	109,443
Land and buildings	17,659
Securities	20,227
Bank deposits	2,762
Loans to others	7,858
Branches' accounts	4,888
Freights payable at destination	1,488
Accounts unsettled	4,766
Others and total	212,913

Osaka Shosen Kaisha Pessimism overrules optimism for the future business of the O. S. K. as is the case with the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. The China situation hit the concern's business hard, because the China shipping service was the most profitable of all its services. When the business prospered, it realized a freight income of nearly ¥10,000,000 a year from this service, but since the trouble the income has become insignificant. Since the financial reaction of 1920 the business has kept declining. Its net profit ranged between only ¥300,000 and ¥500,000 for the three years ending 1923. For several terms from 1926 to 1929 it earned a profit of ¥2,000,000 each term, but for the last few business terms business has grown worse and the concern has been unable to declare a dividend for these periods. The concern's stock price was ¥179, the highest, in 1920, but it went off to ¥17.9 in 1930, the lowest. The concern's business results for the last 5 years follow:

	Subscribed capital	Paid-up capital (In ¥1,000)	Profit	Profit rate	Dividend rate
1928: 1st half	100,000	62,500	4,676	15.0	6
2nd half	100,000	62,500	3,949	12.6	6
1929: 1st half	100,000	62,500	4,747	15.2	6
2nd half	100,000	62,500	4,626	14.8	6
1930: 1st half	100,000	62,500	2,183	7.0	—
2nd half	100,000	62,500	1,736	5.6	—
1931: 1st half	100,000	62,500	3,110	9.9	—
2nd half	100,000	62,500	1,698	5.4	—
1932: 1st half	100,000	62,500	2,317	7.4	—

The company's assets and liabilities in July, 1931, totalled ¥161,605,062 each, as follows:

Liabilities (In ¥1,000)	
Capitalization	100,000
Dedentures	32,250
Ship insurance reserve	1,783
Ship depreciation reserve	4,886
Other reserves	18,693
Profit for the term	19
Others and total	161,605

Assets (In ¥1,000)	
Unpaid capital	37,500
Ship value	84,815
Land and buildings	8,394
Securities	12,516
Suspense accounts	3,291
Loans	3,601
Deposits	2,661
Freights uncollected	2,763
Others and total	161,605

Toyo Kisen Kaisha Since the sale of its trans-Pacific passenger ships to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha in 1926, this concern has become quite insignificant internationally though still retaining a position among the leading shipping concerns of Japan as it has more than 10 freighters. It counts on the charterage of its cargo boats, and its profit for the first half of 1932 was small. The concern is in debt to the amount of ¥31,000,000 to the Yasuda Bank, most of its ships being held on mortgage by the creditor. It has not declared a dividend for the 20 terms since 1923. Its business results since 1928 follow:

	Subscribed capital	Paid-up capital (In ¥1,000)	Profit	Profit rate
1928: 1st half	8,125	5,688	308	10.8
2nd half	8,125	5,688	327	11.5

	Subscribed capital	Paid-up capital (In ¥1,000)	Profit	Profit rate
1929: 1st half	8,125	5,688	120 (loss)	4.2 (loss)
2nd half	8,125	5,688	253	8.9
1930: 1st half	8,125	5,688	67	2.4
2nd half	8,125	5,688	13	.5
1931: 1st half	8,125	5,688	127	4.5
2nd half	8,125	5,688	113	4.0
1932: 1st half	8,125	5,688	155	5.4

The profit for the 2nd half of 1926 included a profit of ¥17,063,000 resulting from the decrease of capitalization. Its assets and liabilities in June, 1932, totalled ¥40,269,970 each, as follows:

Liabilities (In ¥1,000)	
Capitalization	8,125
Bills payable	30,943
Unpaid accounts	671
Profit for the term	40
Others and total	40,269

Assets (In ¥1,000)	
Unpaid capital	2,437
Ship value	23,890
Bank deposits	754
Securities	12,861
Others and total	40,269

Some Statistics

In the following are attached the more important statistics in connection with shipping.

NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS

Year	Description	Steamers No.	Steamers Gross tonnage	Sailing vessels Of tonnage capacity No.	Sailing vessels Of tonnage capacity Gross tonnage	Sailing vessels Of koku capacity No.	Sailing vessels Of koku capacity Koku	Total No.	Total Gross tonnage
Dec. 31, 1921	Registered	2,955	3,167,737	14,280	960,947	830	264,419	18,065	4,155,126
	Unregistered	3,158	39,720	21,405	331,069	8,945	679,327	33,508	438,722
,, ,, 1922	,,	3,001	3,254,962	13,997	930,053	755	239,923	17,753	4,200,012
		3,311	40,900	21,632	328,934	7,755	726,632	32,698	442,497
,, ,, 1923	,,	3,049	3,322,764	13,840	904,081	706	233,907	17,595	4,249,236
		3,120	38,694	24,885	365,477	7,096	776,014	35,101	481,772
,, ,, 1924	,,	3,143	3,520,748	13,891	891,135	653	205,342	17,687	4,432,417
		3,573	44,119	25,975	371,399	6,382	701,513	35,930	485,669
,, ,, 1925	,,	3,187	3,496,262	14,084	883,353	607	190,105	17,878	4,398,625
		4,136	50,679	25,595	386,207	5,001	545,383	35,732	491,424
,, ,, 1926	,,	3,246	3,607,038	14,184	873,468	564	177,073	17,994	4,498,213
		4,533	55,409	27,977	393,133	4,961	535,786	37,471	502,121
,, ,, 1927	,,	3,287	3,670,097	14,257	866,923	514	161,929	18,058	4,553,213
		4,804	58,603	28,986	406,172	4,863	512,927	38,653	516,068
,, ,, 1928	,,	3,321	3,753,763	14,728	878,007	484	150,732	18,533	4,553,213
		4,828	58,045	30,374	424,744	4,765	493,045	39,967	532,094
,, ,, 1929	,,	3,350	3,820,316	15,048	885,988	449	138,879	18,847	4,702,192
		4,991	59,574	31,464	341,689	4,429	457,133	40,884	446,976
,, ,, 1930	,,	3,351	3,907,908	15,379	896,231	367	117,041	19,097	4,815,842
		5,160	60,688	32,424	439,443	4,411	450,163	41,995	545,147
,, ,, 1931	,,	3,358	3,918,289	15,290	885,041	342	109,193	18,990	4,814,249
		4,719	55,878	33,687	449,536	3,701	390,454	42,107	544,459

Note: The koku capacity is added to the total sum of gross tonnage on the basis of 10 koku = 1 ton

Registered ships { hold / certificate of nationality { Steamships above 20 tons / Sailing vessels { 1. above 20 tons / 2. above 200 koku

Unregistered ships { hold / ship license { Steamships under 20 tons / Sailing vessels { 1. under 20 tons above 5 tons / 2. under 200 koku above 50 koku

INCREASE AND DECREASE OF REGISTERED VESSELS

Year	Description	Steamers No.	Steamers Gross tonnage	Sailing vessels Of tonnage capacity No.	Sailing vessels Of tonnage capacity Gross tonnage	Sailing vessels Of koku capacity No.	Sailing vessels Of koku capacity Gross tonnage	Total No.	Total Gross tonnage
1921	Newly registered	153	256,852	455	30,321	—	—	608	287,173
	Register cancelled	129	100,813	595	43,621	—	—	724	144,343
	Increase or decrease	24	156,039	(−)140	(−)13,300	(−)68	(−)22,454	(−)184	140,494
1922	,,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		46	87,225	(−)283	(−)30,889	(−)75	(−)24,496	(−)312	53,886
1923	,,	160	135,849	(−)498	20,239	—	—	658	156,008
		112	66,199	655	46,328	49	16,016	816	114,129
		48	69,650	(−)157	(−)26,089	(−)49	(−)16,016	(−)158	41,959
1924	,,	207	190,480	804	37,724	—	—	1,011	328,204
		113	92,097	753	50,807	53	18,565	919	144,761
		94	198,383	51	(−)13,083	(−)53	(−)18,565	92	183,443
1925	,,	160	80,116	696	31,003	—	—	856	111,119
		116	104,321	503	39,154	46	15,237	665	144,999
		44	(−)24,205	193	(−)8,151	(−)46	(−)15,237	191	(−)33,880
1926	,,	194	178,874	644	27,496	—	—	793	206,370
		90	67,987	544	37,547	43	13,032	677	106,837
		59	110,887	100	(−)10,051	(−)43	(−)13,032	118	53,240
1927	,,	149	139,809	574	26,031	—	—	723	165,840
		105	78,080	501	33,006	50	15,144	659	112,600
		41	61,729	73	(−)6,975	(−)50	(−)15,144	64	53,240
1928	,,	149	176,930	950	40,064	—	—	1,099	216,994
		115	94,439	479	29,405	30	11,197	624	124,964
		54	82,491	471	10,650	(−)30	(−)11,197	475	92,030
1929	,,	159	134,188	1,256	55,441	—	—	1,415	189,629
		180	86,557	452	27,873	35	11,851	617	115,615
		29	47,631	804	27,568	(−)35	(−)11,851	798	74,014
1930	,,	158	218,118	886	45,490	—	—	1,044	263,608
		157	112,444	555	36,002	13	4,163	725	148,862
		1	105,674	331	9,488	(−)13	(−)4,163	319	114,746
1931	,,	134	96,544	—	—	—	—	—	—
		127	87,034	—	—	—	—	—	—
		7	9,510	—	—	—	—	—	—

IMPORTED VESSELS

Year	Japan Proper No.	Japan Proper Gross tonnage	Colonies No.	Colonies Gross tonnage	Total No.	Total Gross tonnage
1914	14	32,266	4	16,548	18	48,814
1926	31	112,717	3	9,276	34	121,993
1927	29	68,962	6	10,813	35	79,775
1928	31	93,359	1	28	32	93,387
1929	10	22,143	1	736	11	22,879
1930	3	8,320	2	2,446	5	10,766
1931	5	2,166	1	81	6	2,247

CLASSIFICATION OF IMPORTED VESSELS OVER 1,000 TONS ACCORDING TO CAPACITY

Capacity (tons)	1926 No.	1926 Gross ton.	1927 No.	1927 Gross ton.	1928 No.	1928 Gross ton.	1929 No.	1929 Gross ton.	1930 No.	1930 Gross ton.	1931 No.	1931 Gross ton.
1,000- 2,000	1	1,894	4	7,235	2	3,359	2	3,678	—	—	—	—
2,000- 3,000	3	19,877	11	23,858	6	13,909	1	2,469	—	—	—	—
3,000- 4,000	7	23,634	4	12,409	4	12,354	2	6,176	—	—	—	—
4,000- 5,000	4	17,899	—	—	2	9,702	2	9,121	—	—	—	—
5,000- 6,000	9	47,942	2	10,751	5	26,627	—		—	—	—	—
6,000- 7,000	—	—	—	—	—		—		—	—	—	—
7,000- 8,000	—	—	2	15,218	1	7,385	—	—	1	7,804	—	—
8,000- 9,000	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—

		Subscribed capital	Paid-up capital (In ¥1,000)	Profit	Profit rate
1929:	1st half	8,125	5,688	120 (loss)	4.2 (loss)
	2nd half	8,125	5,688	253	8.9
1930:	1st half	8,125	5,688	67	2.4
	2nd half	8,125	5,688	13	.5
1931:	1st half	8,125	5,688	127	4.5
	2nd half	8,125	5,688	113	4.0
1932:	1st half	8,125	5,688	155	5.4

The profit for the 2nd half of 1926 included a profit of ¥17,063,000 resulting from the decrease of capitalization. Its assets and liabilities in June, 1932, totalled ¥40,269,970 each, as follows:

Liabilities (In ¥1,000)	
Capitalization	8,125
Bills payable	30,943
Unpaid accounts	671
Profit for the term	40
Others and total	40,269

Assets (In ¥1,000)	
Unpaid capital	2,437
Ship value	23,890
Bank deposits	754
Securities	12,861
Others and total	40,269

Some Statistics

In the following are attached the more important statistics in connection with shipping.

NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS

Year	Description	Steamers No.	Steamers Gross tonnage	Sailing vessels Of tonnage capacity No.	Sailing vessels Of tonnage capacity Gross tonnage	Sailing vessels Of koku capacity No.	Sailing vessels Of koku capacity Koku	Total No.	Total Gross tonnage
Dec. 31, 1921	Registered	2,955	3,167,737	14,280	960,947	830	264,419	18,065	4,155,126
	Unregistered	3,158	39,720	21,405	331,069	8,945	679,327	33,508	438,722
.. .. 1922	..	3,001	3,254,962	13,997	930,058	755	239,923	17,753	4,209,012
		3,311	40,900	21,632	328,934	7,755	726,632	32,698	442,497
.. .. 1923	..	3,049	3,322,764	13,840	904,081	706	233,907	17,595	4,249,236
		3,120	38,694	24,885	365,477	7,096	776,014	35,101	481,772
.. .. 1924	..	3,143	3,520,748	13,891	891,135	653	205,342	17,687	4,432,417
		3,573	44,119	25,975	371,399	6,382	701,513	35,930	485,669
.. .. 1925	..	3,187	3,496,262	14,084	883,353	607	190,105	17,878	4,398,625
		4,136	50,679	26,595	386,207	5,001	545,383	35,732	491,424
.. .. 1926	..	3,246	3,607,038	14,184	873,468	564	177,073	17,994	4,498,213
		4,533	55,409	27,977	393,133	4,961	535,786	37,471	502,121
.. .. 1927	..	3,287	3,670,097	14,257	866,923	514	161,929	18,058	4,553,213
		4,504	58,603	28,986	406,172	4,863	512,927	38,653	516,068
.. .. 1928	..	3,321	3,753,763	14,728	876,007	484	150,732	18,533	4,553,213
		4,828	58,045	30,374	424,744	4,765	493,045	39,967	532,094
.. .. 1929	..	3,350	3,820,316	15,048	885,988	449	138,879	18,847	4,702,192
		4,991	59,574	31,464	341,689	4,429	457,133	40,884	446,976
.. .. 1930	..	3,351	3,907,908	15,879	896,231	367	117,041	19,097	4,815,842
		5,160	60,688	32,424	439,443	4,411	450,163	41,995	545,147
.. .. 1931	..	3,358	3,918,289	15,290	885,041	342	109,193	18,990	4,814,249
		4,719	55,878	33,687	449,536	3,701	390,454	42,107	544,459

Note: The koku capacity is added to the total sum of gross tonnage on the basis of 10 koku = 1 ton

Registered ships { hold / certificate of nationality { Steamships above 20 tons / Sailing vessels { 1. above 20 tons / 2. above 200 koku

Unregistered ships { hold / ship license { Steamships under 20 tons / Sailing vessels { 1. under 20 tons above 5 tons / 2. under 200 koku above 50 koku

INCREASE AND DECREASE OF REGISTERED VESSELS

Year	Description	Steamers No.	Steamers Gross tonnage	Sailing vessels Of tonnage capacity No.	Sailing vessels Of tonnage capacity Gross tonnage	Sailing vessels Of koku capacity No.	Sailing vessels Of koku capacity Gross tonnage	Total No.	Total Gross tonnage
1921	Newly registered	153	256,852	455	30,321	—	—	608	287,173
	Register cancelled	129	100,813	595	43,621	—	—	724	144,343
	Increase or decrease	24	156,039	(−)140	(−)13,300	(−)68	(−)22,454	(−)184	140,494
1922	..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		46	87,225	(−)288	(−)30,889	(−)75	(−)24,496	(−)312	53,886
1923	..	160	185,849	(−)498	20,239	—	—	658	156,008
		112	66,199	655	46,328	49	16,016	816	114,129
		48	69,650	(−)157	(−)26,089	(−)49	(−)16,016	(−)158	41,959
1924	..	207	190,480	804	37,724	—	—	1,011	326,204
		113	92,097	753	50,807	53	18,565	919	144,761
		94	198,383	51	(−)13,083	(−)53	(−)18,565	92	183,443
1925	..	160	80,116	696	31,003	—	—	856	111,119
		116	104,321	503	39,154	46	15,237	665	144,999
		44	(−)24,205	193	(−)8,151	(−)46	(−)15,237	191	(−)33,880
1926	..	194	178,974	644	27,496	—	—	793	206,370
		90	67,987	544	37,547	43	13,032	677	106,837
		59	110,887	100	(−)10,051	(−)43	(−)13,032	118	53,240
1927	..	149	139,809	574	26,031	—	—	723	165,840
		105	78,080	501	33,006	50	15,144	659	112,600
		41	61,729	73	(−)6,975	(−)50	(−)15,144	64	53,240
1928	..	149	176,930	950	40,064	—	—	1,099	216,994
		115	94,439	479	29,405	30	11,197	624	124,964
		54	82,491	471	10,659	(−)30	(−)11,197	475	92,039
1929	..	159	134,188	1,256	55,441	—	—	1,415	189,629
		130	86,557	452	27,873	35	11,851	617	115,615
		29	47,631	804	27,568	(−)35	(−)11,851	798	74,014
1930	..	158	218,118	886	45,490	—	—	1,044	263,608
		157	112,444	555	36,002	13	4,163	725	148,862
		1	105,674	331	9,488	(−)13	(−)4,163	319	114,746
1931	..	134	96,544	—	—	—	—	—	—
		127	87,034	—	—	—	—	—	—
		7	9,510	—	—	—	—	—	—

IMPORTED VESSELS

Year	Japan Proper No.	Japan Proper Gross tonnage	Colonies No.	Colonies Gross tonnage	Total No.	Total Gross tonnage
1914	14	32,266	4	16,548	18	48,814
1926	31	112,717	3	9,276	34	121,993
1927	29	66,962	6	10,813	35	79,775
1928	31	93,359	1	28	32	93,387
1929	10	22,143	1	736	11	22,879
1930	3	8,320	2	2,446	5	10,766
1931	5	2,166	1	81	6	2,247

CLASSIFICATION OF IMPORTED VESSELS OVER 1,000 TONS ACCORDING TO CAPACITY

Capacity (tons)	1925 No.	1925 Gross ton.	1927 No.	1927 Gross ton.	1928 No.	1928 Gross ton.	1929 No.	1929 Gross ton.	1930 No.	1930 Gross ton.	1931 No.	1931 Gross ton.
1,000– 2,000	1	1,894	4	7,235	2	3,359	2	3,678	—	—	—	—
2,000– 3,000	3	19,877	11	23,858	6	13,909	1	2,469	—	—	—	—
3,000– 4,000	7	23,634	4	12,409	4	12,354	2	6,176	—	—	—	—
4,000– 5,000	4	17,899	—	—	2	9,702	2	9,121	—	—	—	—
5,000– 6,000	9	47,942	2	10,751	5	26,627	—	—	—	—	—	—
6,000– 7,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	7,804	—	—
7,000– 8,000	—	—	2	15,218	1	7,385	—	—	—	—	—	—
8,000– 9,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Capacity (tons)	1926 No.	1926 Gross ton.	1927 No.	1927 Gross ton.	1928 No.	1928 Gross ton.	1929 No.	1929 Gross ton.	1930 No.	1930 Gross ton.	1931 No.	1931 Gross ton.
9,000–10,000	—	—	—	—	2	18,514	—	—	—	—	—	—
over 10,000	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	29	111,246	23	69,471	22	91,950	7	21,447	1	7,804	—	—

Note:—Vessels imported by Colonies are

1926	1,000–2,000 tons	1. 1,728 tons	Total 3	9,276 tons
	3,000–4,000 ,,	1. 3,334 ,,		
	4,000–5,000 ,,	1. 4,168 ,,		
1927	1,000–2,000 tons	1. 1,218 tons	Total 4	10,316 tons
	2,000–3,000 ,,	1. 2,105 ,,		
	3,000–4,000 ,,	2. 7,393 ,,		
1930	2,000–3,000 tons	1. 2,417 ,,	Total 1	2,417 tons

PRINCIPAL SHIPOWNERS

Shipowners	Location of Head Office	No. of ships	Tonnage
Nippon Yusen Kaisha, Ltd.	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	100	730,095
Osaka Shosen ,,	Sosemachi, Kita-ku, Osaka	104	496,514
Kokusai Kisen ,,	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	43	236,222
Kinkai Yusen ,, (Coastwise Mail Steamship Co., Ltd.)	,, ,, ,,	46	134,321
Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, Ltd.	Honmachi, Nihonbashi-ku, Tokyo	31	111,252
Kawasaki Dockyard Co., Ltd.	Higashi-Kawasaki machi, Kobé	12	70,565
Kawasaki Steamship Co., ,,	Kaigandori, Kobé	18	65,834
Oriental Steamship Co., ,,	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	11	64,775
Tatsuma ,, ,, ,,	Honmachi, Nishinomiya, Hyogo-prefecture	15	62,484
Nihon Godo Kisen Kaisha,,	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	19	60,837
Ishihara Gomei Kaisha ,,	Nishiura-machi, Kichijo-in, Shimokyo-ku, Kyoto	10	52,128
Nisshin Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	21	50,138
The Railway Department	,, ,, ,,	14	41,211
Yamashita Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Sakaemachi, Kobé-ku, Kobé	9	39,442
Kita Nihon Kisen ,, ,, (North Japan Steamship Co., Ltd.)	Odomari-machi, Odomari-gun, Saghalien Island	18	35,709
Nihon Tank Co., Ltd.	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	5	34,531
Kyoritsu Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Honmachi, Nihonbashi, Tokyo	12	34,331
Kishimoto Kisen ,, ,,	Minami-Horie-dori, Nishi-ku, Osaka	6	34,303
Karafuto Kisen ,,	Tomarioru-machi, Tomarioru-gun, Saghalien Island	7	33,916
Mitsubishi Trading Co., Ltd.	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	5	33,026
Kokai Shoji Kaisha, Ltd.	Enoko-Higashino-machi, Nishi-ku, Osaka	7	29,571
Shimatani Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Maemachi, Kobé-ku, Kobé	7	28,845
Matsuoka ,, ,, ,,	Seidomura, Mukogori, Hyogo-prefecture	6	26,083
Meiji Kaiun Kaisha, Ltd.	Akashi-machi, Kobé	7	25,011
Shimomura Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Sozecho, Kita-ku, Osaka	4	23,055
Kuribayashi Shosen ,, ,,	Kaigan-dori, Muroran	10	23,007
Kokura Sekiyu Kaisha, Ltd.	Kofuné-cho, Nihonbashi-ku, Tokyo	3	21,931
Nihon Kyodo Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, ,,	4	20,245
Okazaki ,,	Edomachi, Kobé	10	19,628
Settsu Shosen Kaisha, Ltd.	Sozecho, Kita-ku, Osaka	12	19,571
Harada Kisen ,, ,,	Nakanoshima, Kita-ku, Osaka	6	18,495
Naigai ,, ,, ,,	Kitasagasa-dori, Kobé	4	17,734
Yamamoto,, ,, ,,	Andojibashi-dori, Minami-ku, Osaka	4	16,788
Nanyo Yusen Kaisha, Ltd.	Kobikicho, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo	4	16,083
Yamamoto Trading Co., Ltd.	Minami Ajigawa-dori, Minato-ku, Osaka	4	15,654
Jino ,, ,, ,,	Naka Maizurumachi, Kasa-gun, Kyoto-pre.	2	15,358
Itaya Shosen Kaisha, Ltd.	Takahamamachi, Niigata-prefecture	4	15,293
Others		303	777,242
Total number of vessels		907	3,551,228

VESSELS WHICH ENTERED OPEN PORTS IN JAPAN

Year	Description	Yokohama No.	Yokohama Gross tonnage	Kobé No.	Kobé Gross tonnage	Nagasaki No.	Nagasaki Gross tonnage
1914	Japanese vessels	2,510	6,630,148	13,997	14,225,125	2,721	3,224,590
	Foreign vessels	560	3,632,271	791	4,957,469	445	2,547,750
1926	,,	3,442	12,218,281	18,245	25,412,894	4,350	3,324,517
		963	7,955,113	1,160	9,485,648	107	913,645
1927	,,	4,206	13,103,260	19,188	26,564,993	4,585	3,718,165
		945	7,682,566	1,158	9,357,725	114	919,592
1928	,,	9,549	14,235,537	20,756	27,685,154	5,066	2,927,426
		1,018	8,192,246	1,216	9,854,657	141	1,108,023
1929	,,	9,404	14,030,243	22,616	30,994,344	5,427	3,015,174
		1,038	8,331,510	1,276	10,211,775	140	1,151,491
1930	,,	8,051	14,109,415	22,637	32,330,148	4,945	2,754,978
		980	8,249,875	1,254	10,249,221	122	1,017,729
1931	,,	4,092	14,384,798	23,175	32,933,888	4,223	2,770,978
		919	7,988,357	1,133	9,889,786	71	731,447

Year	Description	Moji No.	Moji Gross tonnage	Osaka No.	Osaka Gross tonnage	Total No.	Total Gross tonnage
1914	Japanese vessels	5,121	11,016,469	—	—	24,349	35,096,332
	Foreign vessels	552	2,653,247	—	—	2,348	13,790,737
1926	,,	6,872	15,968,391	11,913	16,498,464	44,822	73,422,547
		485	3,128,042	292	1,786,041	3,008	23,268,487
1927	,,	7,441	16,895,028	5,067	12,758,787	40,487	72,540,233
		455	3,056,967	248	1,543,071	2,920	22,559,921
1928	,,	7,293	17,455,329	5,460	14,244,170	48,124	76,547,611
		482	3,227,383	266	1,597,507	3,123	23,979,816
1929	,,	7,525	18,181,511	5,409	14,612,159	50,381	80,833,431
		518	3,414,630	333	1,936,578	3,305	25,045,984
1930	,,	7,480	18,136,392	6,028	15,209,309	49,141	82,540,242
		486	3,275,593	318	1,922,244	3,160	24,714,662
1931	,,	7,319	17,708,156	6,469	16,816,268	45,278	84,614,088
		320	2,257,537	337	2,026,359	2,780	22,893,486

VESSELS WHICH ENTERED OPEN PORTS IN JAPAN IN 1931

Country			Yokohama No.	Yokohama Gross tonnage	Kobé No.	Kobé Gross tonnage
Japan	Steamer	Inner harbour	2,364	5,060,600	20,370	18,652,240
		Outer harbour	1,658	9,293,446	2,799	14,171,649
	Sailing vessels	Inner harbour	65	23,148	3	2,680
		Outer harbour	5	7,604	3	7,319
Great Britain	Steamers		364	3,521,248	539	4,795,188
U.S.A.	Steamers		206	2,160,261	224	2,416,436
	Sailing vessels		1	12	—	—
France	Steamers		38	424,573	63	761,964
Holland	,,		53	349,103	60	397,976
Germany	Steamers		54	423,785	86	655,321
	Sailing vessels		—	—	—	—
Belgium	Steamers		2	216	1	5,245
Sweden	,,		20	123,668	18	109,519
Norway	,,		103	568,103	63	334,090
Denmark	,,		31	179,328	31	185,962
Italy	,,		16	120,307	17	125,666
Soviet Russia	,,		19	50,616	22	59,905
China	,,		7	23,034	4	8,590
Panama	,,		5	34,103	5	33,915
Total	Steamers		4,940	22,342,391	24,302	42,713,675
	Sailing vessels		71	30,764	6	9,999

Country			Nagasaki No.	Nagasaki Gross tonnage	Moji No.	Moji Gross tonnage	Osaka No.	Osaka Gross tonnage
Japan	Steamer	Inner harbour	2,998	913,407	4,156	8,571,912	4,211	6,981,132
		Outer harbour	357	1,791,769	2,236	9,079,369	2,258	9,835,136
	Sailing vessels	Inner harbour	868	65,802	927	56,875	—	—
		Outer harbour	—	—	—	—	—	—
Great Britain		Steamers	43	542,378	188	1,421,212	161	1,040,871
U.S.A.		Steamers	3	28,230	8	54,703	61	364,408
		Sailing vessels	1	25	—	—	—	—
France		Steamers	1	5,493	—	—	1	5,961
Holland		,,	1	7,833	39	254,978	45	303,933
Germany		Steamers	6	54,657	39	281,995	2	14,750
		Sailing vessels	1	27	—	—	—	—
Belgium		Steamers	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sweden		,,	—	—	11	64,382	1	5,629
Norway		,,	10	70,777	17	78,742	37	175,515
Denmark		,,	3	9,759	4	32,560	4	22,793
Italy		,,	—	—	7	51,853	3	21,389
Soviet Russia		,,	2	12,268	3	8,031	17	56,369
China		,,	—	—	4	9,083	5	14,744
Panama		,,	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total		Steamers	3,242	3,436,571	6,712	19,908,818	5,806	18,842,627
		Sailing vessels	870	65,854	927	56,875	—	—

HOLDERS OF MARINER'S SERVICE BOOK

Year	Japanese	Foreigners	Total
1914	231,679	2,289	233,968
1926	(446,900 includes foreigners)		446,900

Year	Japanese	Foreigners	Total
1927	155,044	3,246	158,290
1928	170,696	3,673	174,369
1929	189,465	4,517	193,983
1930	212,917	4,823	217,740
1931	222,346	5,020	227,366

HOLDERS OF CERTIFICATE OF COMPETENCY

Year		First grade Master	First grade First mate	First grade Second mate	Second grade Master	Second grade First mate	Second grade Second mate	Third grade Master	Third grade Mate
1914	Japanese	1,223	770	1,332	747	1,604	3,399	95	12,167
	Foreigners	178	31	11	—	3	1	—	1
1926	,,	2,893	1,658	2,477	1,700	2,684	6,195	145	19,796
		1	—	—	—	3	2	—	—
1927	,,	3,022	1,712	2,689	1,746	2,772	6,701	147	20,810
		1	—	—	—	3	2	—	—
1928	,,	3,126	1,804	2,861	1,794	2,842	7,092	151	21,971
		1	—	—	—	3	2	—	—
1929	,,	3,264	1,871	3,003	1,849	2,915	7,422	150	22,880
		1	—	—	—	3	2	—	—
1930	,,	3,403	1,909	2,991	1,865	2,948	8,480	163	24,405
		1	—	—	—	3	2	—	—
1931	,,	3,493	2,000	3,075	1,882	2,989	9,919	163	27,439
		1	—	—	—	3	2	—	—

Year		Chief engineer	First class engineer	Second class engineer	Third class engineer	Total
1914	Japanese	1,114	2,030	1,608	3,995	30,083
	Foreigners	79	43	2	2	351
1926	,,	2,241	3,788	3,091	13,485	60,154
		79	43	2	2	132
1927	,,	2,327	3,974	3,183	14,879	63,961
		79	43	2	2	132
1928	,,	2,440	4,164	3,244	16,429	67,918
		79	43	2	2	132

Year		Chief engineer	First class engineer	Second class engineer	Third class engineer	Total
1929	,,	2,566	4,306	3,344	18,060	71,630
		79	43	2	2	132
1930	,,	2,593	4,260	3,388	20,382	76,787
		79	43	2	2	132
1931	,,	2,697	4,227	3,558	24,376	85,821
		79	43	2	2	132

NUMBER OF HOLDERS OF PILOT'S LICENSE

Year		Pilotage districts: Tokyo Bay district	Sumida River district	Izumi Bay district	Inland Sea district	Inland Sea district & Nagasaki Harbour district	Tokyo Bay, Inland Sea & Nagasaki Harbour districts.
1914	Japanese	3	—	—	5	4	1
	Foreigners	—	—	—	2	1	1
1926	Japanese	5	3	5	18	1	—
1927	,,	5	3	5	18	1	—
1928	,,	5	4	5	22	—	—
1929	,,	5	4	5	19	1	—
1930	,,	5	4	5	19	1	—
1931	,,	5	4	3	19	1	—

Year		Pilotage districts: Nagasaki Harbour district	Shimonoseki district	Shimabara Bay district	Inland Sea and Shimabara Bay districts	Inland Sea, Nagasaki Bay and Shimabara Bay districts	Hakodaté Harbour district
1914	Japanese	2	5	2	1	2	—
	Foreigners	—	—	—	—	—	—
1926	Japanese	1	6	2	—	2	—
1927	,,	1	6	2	—	2	—
1928	,,	1	6	2	—	—	2
1929	,,	1	6	3	—	—	2
1930	,,	1	6	3	—	1	2
1931	,,	1	6	3	—	1	2

Year		Pilotage districts: Muroran Harbour district	Yokkaichi Harbour district	Otaru Harbour district	Fushiki Harbour district	Nagoya Harbour district	Total
1914	Japanese	—	—	—	—	—	25
	Foreigners	—	—	—	—	—	4
1926	Japanese	—	—	—	—	—	43
1927	,,	—	—	—	—	—	43
1928	,,	1	—	1	3	—	52
1929	,,	1	—	1	3	—	51
1930	,,	1	—	1	3	—	52
1931	,,	1	1	1	3	6	57

Note: No foreign pilot since 1925.

PLACING OF JAPANESE TRAMP STEAMERS OVER 2,000 TONS

	Sailed out to Europe				Sailed out to North America and Atlantic Ocean			
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1929	1930	1931	1932
as of 1st Jan.	25	27	32	47	30	19	34	22
,, Feb.	28	23	32	38	30	23	27	19
,, Mar.	30	18	30	37	29	23	23	23
,, Apr.	27	16	24	40	30	22	24	21
,, May	27	12	23	43	24	23	27	25
,, June	22	10	23	40	21	21	25	22
,, July	20	9	22	47	17	17	20	22
,, Aug.	15	10	25	49	14	19	17	23
,, Sept.	13	12	29	59	13	32	17	23
,, Oct.	16	16	31	69	18	32	17	21
,, Nov.	20	22	36	77	16	34	18	21
,, Dec.	23	24	40	77	17	38	21	27

	Sailed out to Japan-North America and Pacific Ocean				Sailed out to Australia and India			
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1929	1930	1931	1932
as of 1st Jan.	96	70	40	52	27	37	38	43
,, Feb.	110	63	44	46	35	42	60	55
,, May.	102	57	48	52	43	41	73	47
,, Apr.	80	54	40	44	43	41	71	40
,, May	72	54	40	37	36	26	62	27
,, June	66	58	40	33	28	17	50	20
,, July	65	52	46	34	20	10	28	15
,, Aug.	56	53	46	33	12	11	21	14
,, Sept.	53	50	50	36	10	13	20	21
,, Oct.	65	47	57	38	12	17	29	30
,, Nov.	65	50	60	41	21	19	25	31
,, Dec.	65	42	60	38	28	26	26	34

	Sailed out to the South Seas and Straits Settlements				Sailed out to the Kinkai (Nearby Seas)			
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1929	1930	1931	1932
as of 1st Jan.	55	73	70	59	336	322	291	278
,, Feb.	53	73	65	50	312	302	261	300
,, Mar.	58	90	60	58	300	300	269	309
,, Apr.	60	10	56	55	324	307	296	319
,, May	68	20	50	72	340	329	329	317
,, June	56	189	42	60	366	380	358	345
,, July	64	170	48	53	392	410	380	360
,, Aug.	61	43	52	42	417	400	390	366
,, Sept.	54	45	52	47	435	396	370	336
,, Oct.	57	52	52	41	406	372	320	321
,, Nov.	57	60	50	41	388	334	296	306
,, Dec.	65	64	54	50	355	315	275	302

	No. of vessels tied up				Total number of vessels including those in docks			
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1929	1930	1931	1932
as of 1st Jan.	14	17	94	55	616	610	595	584
,, Feb.	14	26	63	53	616	610	595	588
,, Mar.	14	27	49	35	616	610	595	590
,, Apr.	10	19	30	35	616	606	595	589
,, May	10	12	23	35	616	606	595	590
,, June	10	7	20	36	616	602	590	590
,, July	6	9	20	26	616	602	590	584
,, Aug.	6	40	18	26	616	602	590	574
,, Sept.	6	40	19	30	610	600	590	575
,, Oct.	6	44	19	32	610	600	594	574
,, Nov.	6	62	47	27	610	600	590	560
,, Dec.	15	63	70	21	610	600	590	572

TIME-CHARTER RATES IN JAPAN

Year		Large-sized vessels per ton yen	Medium-sized vessels per ton yen		Small-sized vessels per ton yen
1921	Highest	4.10	3.70		3.20
	Lowest	2.80	2.50		2.50
1922	,,	3.00	2.65	Kinkai (the Nearby Sea) District No. 1	4.10
			3.00	No. 1	5.00
1923	,,	2.50	1.65		1.60
		1.65	3.00	No. 1	4.50
1924	,,	2.80	1.30		2.50
		1.10	2.30	No. 1	3.50
1925	,,	2.00	1.30		3.00
		1.10	2.60	No. 1	3.80
1926	,,	2.00	2.00		3.00
		1.40	2.80	No. 1	3.70
1927	,,	2.50	1.40		2.50
		1.20	2.80	No. 1	4.00
1928	,,	2.50	1.40		3.00
		1.20	3.00	No. 1	4.00
1929	,,	2.50	1.50		2.80
		1.30	2.50	No. 1	3.80
1930	,,	1.70	1.00		2.80
		.90	2.50	No. 1	3.00
1931	,,	2.50	1.00		2.00
		.70	2.80	No. 1	3.80
1932	,,	2.35	1.00		2.00
		.70			

CHAPTER XXVIII

JUSTICE AND POLICE

Judicature

The Judicature's Position

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

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

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

Composition of the Courts

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

District Courts The District Courts are presided over by single judges. A three instance system is adopted in the adjudication of all ordinary cases, and any one may lodge an appeal against a judgment rendered in the first instance and demand revision of that rendered in the second instance.

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

1. Demands for money less than 1,000 yen or for articles, the value of which is less than 1,000 yen.
2. The following cases irrespective of value :

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

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

(c) Legal actions only concerning occupations.

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

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

(f) Matters concerning bankruptcy.

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

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

Local Courts In civil cases, the Local Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters :

1. In the first instance :

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

2. In the second instance :

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

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

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

1. In the first instance :

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

2. In the second instance :

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

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

Courts of Appeal The Courts of Appeal possess judicial power concerning the following matters :

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

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

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

1. In the final instance :

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

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

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

2. In the first, and at the same time, final instance : Preliminary examination and adjudication of offences against the Imperial House, offences of internal disturbance, and offences committed by members of the Imperial Family, for which punishment heavier than imprisonment should be imposed.

Public Procurators

A public procurator's office, with the necessary number of procura-

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

Court Officials and Procurators

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

The following are not to be appointed as either judges or public procurators.

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

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

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

Position of Judges and Public Procurators Judges are permanent officials appointed by His Majesty directly, or by His Majesty's order indirectly, or by His Majesty's approval, according to the grade of their position. Unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment judges are not to be moved to another post or place, be suspended from office, be deprived of position, or receive a reduction of salary, without their consent, except in so far as the Minister of Justice may order retirement from service by the decision of a general meeting of the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court on account of disability caused through weakness of body or mind.

The retiring age is for the President of the Supreme Court 65 years, and for other judges 63 years.

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

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

The Jury System

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

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

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

(3) Violations of the Peace Maintenance Law.

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

(5) Violations of the Public Election Laws.

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

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

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

Penal System

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

With the downfall of the Tokugawa Shogunate the Great Emperor Meiji abolished the system of intimidation and reformed the old penal code. The codification of Civil Law was carried on under the advice

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

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

The classified number of penalties imposed during the ten years 1922-31 follows:

Year	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude for life	Penal Servitude for a term	Imprisonment for life	Imprisonment for a term	Detention	Monetary Penalties and Fines	Total
1922	32	49	22,343	—	170	192	99,541	122,287
1923	33	44	20,379	—	87	207	104,048	124,797
1924	13	49	25,736	—	294	359	121,951	146,402
1925	19	44	24,389	—	159	290	125,908	151,408
1926	29	48	24,159	—	141	347	133,161	157,885
1927	12	55	25,734	1	73	286	132,551	158,662
1928	21	49	23,267	5	194	163	132,734	156,433
1929	13	38	24,428	1	105	133	126,036	150,755
1930	15	42	27,229	5	326	108	—	—
1931	19	38	28,284	6	289	74	120,869	149,579

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

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

Release on parole was practised as early as 1790 in the House of Correction at Ishikawajima, Yedo; the present law admits it and it is widely practised. As reformation is one of the chief aims of punishment, when convicts are evidently repentant and there is no fear of their committing further crimes, it is unnecessary to continue the punishment. Therefore, it is stated in the present Penal Code, "when the convicts who are under penal servitude or imprisonment are found to be evidently repentant, provisional release may be authorized by the administrative office after they have finished one-third of the limited term or ten years of the term for life" (Article 28).

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

Juvenile Criminals Article 27 of the Code of Criminal Procedure says, "public suit may not be instituted when the suit is found unnecessary because of the character of the criminal, his age and environment, the condition of his crime and his behaviour after the incident," and leaves the decision as to whether proceedings should be taken to the public procurator. The existing criminal system of Japan is thus inclined to some extent to subjectivism, putting emphasis on the offender himself rather than on the offence. Its evident expression is found in dealing with young offenders. According to the provisions of the Juvenile Criminal Law, 1922, young boys or girls who are under 18 years of age are called juveniles and their offences are dealt with, not under the penalty system, but by a system of protection. Even when they are punished, the penalty is inflicted in a special way. Protective measures are (1) to give

admonitions, (2) to leave them to the guidance of school principals, (3) to let them solemnly declare their sincere repentance in a written statement, (4) to place them, under certain conditions, in the care of their parents, (5) to place them under the care of temples, churches, protective bodies or other proper persons, (6) to hand them over to the care of the juvenile probation officers, (7) to send them to reformatories, (8) to send them to houses of correction, and (9) to put them under proper treatment in hospitals. These measures may be continued till the juveniles reach the age of 23 years. When juveniles are admitted to probation or provisional release they are not put under police supervision as is the case with the adults, but are left to the care of the juvenile probation officers. For the protective disposition of juvenile offenders juvenile courts have been established.

Special Measures for Juveniles Special measures for the penal punishment of juvenile offenders are:

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

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

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

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

(5) Juveniles are not sent to work houses.

Second and Habitual Offenders

In case of those who repeat criminal deeds and commit other offences, especially in the case of professional and habitual offenders, it is necessary to put them into confinement for considerable lengths of time in order to give them time to reform their character and at the same time protect society at large from their depravations. To deal with these people Japanese criminal law provides a system of aggravating penalties for the recidivists and admits special dealing with habitual thieves as a complementary system.

Repetitious Offenders (Art. 56-59, Penal Code) When a person commits another crime and is sentenced to limited penal servitude within five years from the day of release from former penal servitude or from remission of execution of a penalty, he is classified as a second offender. Under the name of repetitious offenders come all second offenders and up. The cases of remission of penal execution are extinction of prescription, special pardon and the case stated in the Penal Code, Art. 5. Amnesty and probation not only remit penal execution, but also cancel the effect of the penalty altogether, and the crimes concerned cannot be taken as the basis for forming a repetitious offence. Again, when a person commits a crime during a term of probation the offence for which the probation was admitted is not counted as the first offence. The penalty inflicted on a repetitious offender is aggravated.

Habitual Thieves Habitual offenders are most numerous in burglary and larceny cases. The habitual offenders often regard prison as their residence and repeat crimes immediately after their release, to the great harm of the community, in order to get back "home". They have, therefore, to be separated from society by the infliction of comparatively long sentences. In many cases it has been impossible to increase the penalty, or when it has been increased it has still been too short, and as there is no provision in the existing Penal Code for unlimited imprisonment the Thief Prevention Law was enacted in 1930. According to this law, when persons commit burglary or larceny habitually by the use of weapons, or by forming a band of more than two, or stealthily breaking into houses by night, they are punished by being sent to penal servitude for more than 2 years in the case of a thief and more than 7 years in that of a burglar. The draft of the revised penal law of 1931 adopts the system of incarceration for unlimited terms for habitual offenders (draft, Article 91-95).

Peace Preservation

Penalties are imposed as deterrents, but are not always effective, especially in the case of insane people and habitual drunkards, as well as in that of habitual offenders. For that reason it is advisable that, in addition to meting out punishment for any wrong-doings, it should be possible to segregate such people from law-abiding society. To meet this need, most of the countries of the world have a supplementary system of Peace Preservation Laws, which restricts to a certain extent the freedom of released persons as long as their dangerous character is unimproved. In Japan the existing Penal Code makes no provision for such a system, but the draft of 1931 suggests four kinds of peace preservation regulations, namely, preventive surveillance, curative treatment, compulsory labour, and preventive detention.

Surveillance When persons who are defective in mind or body or are deaf-and-dumb are to be sentenced to imprisonment or some heavier penalty, the Court can decide to place them under surveillance. In case the sentence has already been passed for one reason or other, surveillance will follow the execution of the sentence, but in some cases it may be carried out before the commencement of execution or at any time during its course, (draft, Art. 127). Those who are put under this measure are to be kept in the surveillance house and receive treatment for their defectiveness, while being under surveillance. They may be released when further surveillance is found unnecessary by order of the administrative offices. In principle the time of surveillance is 5 years, but this may be renewed by the Court when thought necessary. When the sentence of penalty and the surveillance disposition are pronounced at the same time, the Court may choose either one of them as either of the two became unnecessary by the enforcement of the other.

Curative Treatment When drunkards or users of narcotics commit

offences while in a state of intoxication or insensibility and it is found necessary to correct them of their bad habits, the Court may order them to be kept in Homes of Correction for a period of 2 years and receive proper curative treatment.

Compulsory Labour When persons who habitually commit crimes because of vagrancy or hatred of labour are to be sentenced, the Court may order compulsory labour together with the regular sentence for a period of 3 years, during which time they are to be kept in compulsory labour houses and compelled to work diligently under strict discipline in order to acquire the good habit of work. The chief official of the labour house may send them to work for the Government or to public or private factories, to farms or other places of labour, allowing them to stay outside the Compulsory Labour Houses, if deemed expedient.

Preventive Detention When the convicts who are to be released at the expiration of a term of penal servitude are found to be addicting to incendiarism or likely to commit murder or burglary, the Court may order them to undergo preventive detention, (draft, Art. 139). They are to be kept in Houses of Prevention and get the treatment necessary for leading them to full repentance. The duration of the treatment is 2 years in principle, but may be prolonged by the Court. This measure is to take effect after the expiration of the regular term of penal servitude, (draft, Art. 140-142).

Criminal Compensation System

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Statistics

In the following there are attached a number of statistics relevant to the judicature of the country for reference:

I NUMBER OF COURTS (Oct. 1, 1932)

	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	Local Courts	Branch Courts	District Courts	Branch Offices
	1	Tokyo	11	17	64	413
		Osaka	9	11	43	277
		Nagoya	6	9	30	203
		Hiroshima	6	13	36	252
		Nagasaki	8	17	53	285
		Miyagi	6	16	36	228
		Sapporo	5	3	20	96
Total	1	7	51	86	282	1,754

II CLASSIFIED NUMBER OF CASES INVESTIGATED BY THE PUBLIC PROCURATORS (1931)

Name of Offence	Number of cases new	old	Persons examined	Prosecutions cases	persons
Criminal Code Offences					
Against the Imperial House	55	3	65	5	6
Against the execution of official duties	804	20	1,033	187	359
Escaping from prison, etc.	28	—	33	16	18
Giving shelter to a criminal or destroying evidence	98	—	215	22	35
Sedition	21	1	1,085	15	325
Fires through incendiarism or negligence	13,909	85	14,806	3,092	3,182
Inundating and interfering with irrigation	169	11	534	10	11
Interfering with traffic	871	23	1,173	156	189
House-breaking	4,415	54	6,209	1,130	1,303
Disclosing a secret of another person	73	—	100	3	5
Opium smoking	56	—	121	29	52
Polluting drinking water	41	—	52	13	13
Forgery of currency	97	3	138	34	53
Forgery of documents	4,950	264	8,208	614	798
Forgery of negotiable securities	739	52	1,170	154	263
Forgery of seals or stamps	555	13	685	21	31
Perjury	1,719	195	3,093	111	192
False accusation	1,176	52	1,745	33	45
Obscenity, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	2,830	39	4,193	779	1,110
Gambling and lotteries	18,963	142	83,429	12,197	49,854
Disturbing worship, etc.	303	2	512	42	81
Malversation	565	26	1,816	99	366
Murder	2,219	26	2,554	1,069	1,178
Inflicting injury	26,015	284	37,429	6,910	8,470
Inflicting injury by negligence	17,671	204	18,782	5,214	5,320
Criminal abortion	349	12	982	98	194
Desertion of children, etc.	289	2	399	15	17
Arresting or confining others unlawfully	144	6	262	9	17
Intimidation	1,594	39	2,639	290	319

Name of Offence	Number of cases new	old	Persons examined	Prosecutions cases	persons
Kidnapping and abduction	1,539	37	2,344	111	144
Defamation	2,325	90	3,461	157	177
Unlawful interference with another man's credit and business	975	54	1,975	58	122
Theft and burglary	98,424	354	110,308	16,397	17,910
Fraud and blackmail	82,793	1,533	112,900	5,039	6,434
Usurpation	43,268	585	49,485	1,883	2,040
Receiving stolen property	3,345	26	4,348	388	513
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	2,234	76	3,525	107	143
Total	635,619	4,322	482,798	56,507	101,289
Offences against Special Laws	99,798	838	134,673	39,203	52,569

	Non-prosecutions cases	persons	Miscellaneous cases	persons	Total cases	persons	Not yet decided cases	persons
Criminal Code Offences								
Against the Imperial House	28	32	18	18	51	56	7	9
Against the execution of official duties	520	1,309	76	145	783	1,813	50	120
Escaping from prison, etc.	2	3	10	12	28	33	—	—
Giving shelter to a criminal or destroying evidence	68	153	8	24	98	212	—	—
Sedition	4	433	2	283	21	1,041	1	44
Fires through incendiarism or negligence	10,244	10,918	479	506	13,815	14,606	179	200
Inundating and interfering with irrigation	151	444	12	37	173	492	7	42
Interfering with traffic	435	635	284	323	875	1,147	19	26
House-breaking	2,908	4,241	357	495	4,395	6,039	74	170
Disclosing a secret of another person	61	84	9	11	78	100	—	—
Opium smoking	23	62	4	7	56	121	—	—
Polluting drinking water	27	38	1	1	41	52	—	—
Forgery of currency	35	45	30	36	99	135	1	3
Forgery of documents	3,432	5,553	860	1,265	4,906	7,616	308	682
Forgery of negotiable securities	436	596	140	206	730	1,065	61	105
Forgery of seals or stamps	487	572	43	51	551	654	17	31
Perjury	1,274	2,020	276	452	1,661	2,664	253	429
False accusation	1,011	1,412	105	155	1,149	1,612	79	133
Obscenity, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	1,644	2,390	383	598	2,806	4,098	63	95
Gambling and lotteries	5,980	26,616	827	6,376	19,004	82,846	101	583
Disturbing worship, etc.	203	362	51	55	296	498	9	14
Malversation	357	937	82	283	538	1,586	53	230
Murder	882	1,034	266	307	2,217	2,519	28	35
Inflicting injury	16,666	24,468	2,299	3,871	25,975	36,809	324	620
Inflicting injury by negligence	10,320	10,953	2,024	2,153	17,558	18,426	317	356
Criminal abortion	231	695	18	54	347	943	14	39
Desertion of children, etc.	200	280	71	90	286	387	5	12
Arresting or confining others unlawfully	112	183	16	37	137	237	13	25
Intimidation	1,123	1,968	159	228	1,572	2,515	61	124
Kidnapping and abduction	880	1,318	545	805	1,536	2,267	40	77
Defamation	1,988	2,834	168	247	2,313	3,258	100	203
Unlawful interference with another man's credit and business	804	1,528	99	207	961	1,857	68	118
Theft and burglary	68,006	76,557	13,976	15,252	98,379	109,719	399	589
Fraud and blackmail	56,471	73,615	20,443	28,445	81,953	108,494	2,373	4,406

	Non-prosecutions cases	persons	Miscellaneous cases	persons	Total cases	persons	Not yet decided cases	persons
Usurpation	32,994	37,087	8,033	8,978	42,910	48,105	943	1,380
Receiving stolen property	2,668	3,391	247	353	3,303	4,257	68	91
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	1,914	2,905	182	280	2,203	3,328	107	197
Total	224,589	297,672	52,703	72,646	333,799	471,607	6,142	11,191
Offences against Special Laws	36,656	50,616	23,647	29,157	99,506	132,342	1,130	2,331

III BOYS AND GIRLS DEALT WITH IN JUVENILE COURTS

Year	Number of persons dealt with		Number of persons who finished examination: Not put on trial	Put under protective disposition	Sent to the public procurator	Sent to other courts	Total
1927	Boys	13,325	8,371	4,326	4	19	12,720
	Girls	1,209	681	477	—	2	1,160
1928	Boys	12,493	7,841	4,200	9	20	12,070
	Girls	1,005	564	405	—	—	969
1929	Boys	12,346	7,752	4,227	2	52	12,006
	Girls	1,019	573	409	—	1	983
1930	Boys	12,835	8,328	4,123	3	17	12,471
	Girls	998	565	405	—	—	970
1931	Boys	13,141	8,572	4,218	7	22	12,819
	Girls	1,015	555	429	—	1	985

IV NUMBER OF JUVENILES DEALT WITH IN THE HOUSES OF CORRECTION

Year	Persons received	Number of persons who went out of the House of Correction: Released	Provisional release	Cancel of decision or its revision	Abscondence	Death	Sent to other house	Misc.	Total
1927	579	31	39	24	54	—	—	16	164
1928	1,004	72	80	405	98	2	—	21	678
1929	1,224	43	76	666	66	3	—	9	863
1930	1,252	65	82	745	83	1	—	1	977
1931	1,259	71	65	774	52	1	—	3	966

V NUMBER OF PRISONS (Oct. 1, 1932)

Prisons	Branches	Total
52	102	154

VI YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CASES

Year	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Criminal Code Offences					
Theft	12,763	12,069	12,970	14,807	15,493
Gambling and lotteries	2,020	1,527	1,514	1,444	1,379
Fraud and usurpation	4,681	4,269	4,503	5,175	5,441
Forgery of documents, negotiable securities and seals or stamps	513	451	417	495	484
Injury	1,430	1,346	1,342	1,460	1,402
Receiving stolen articles	251	288	245	303	350
Murder	699	625	413	490	558
Burglary	578	612	641	673	651
Incendiarism	512	416	416	444	613
Interference with the execution of official duties	85	65	82	55	97
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	32	22	16	14	11

/ Year	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Forgery of currency	27	27	37	26	31
Abortion	52	43	24	26	39
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	236	178	183	221	204
House-breaking	226	212	261	298	248
Perjury	42	41	35	37	38
False accusation	19	15	12	10	15
Offences against Special Laws					
Criminal law of the army and navy	53	46	42	41	28
The forest law	39	55	44	40	37
The military service law	13	6	9	18	8
The mail and telegraphy law	2	5	1	7	7
Others	419	567	559	924	858
	6,179	5,591	5,222	5,744	5,504
Total	31,311	28,899	29,354	33,190	33,938

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

/ Year	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Penal Servitude					
Penal servitude for life	57	43	38	43	38
Over 15 years	32	44	5	20	52
Less than 15 years	92	60	55	57	58
Under 10 years	857	851	692	765	760
Under 5 years	1,596	1,587	1,693	1,764	1,723
„ 3 „	2,540	2,361	2,628	2,719	2,766
„ 2 „	4,964	4,855	5,244	5,560	5,745
„ 1 year	8,419	7,627	8,288	9,894	10,668
„ 6 months	4,416	3,864	3,686	4,390	4,464
„ 3 „	2,029	1,790	1,641	1,838	1,829
Total	25,002	23,082	23,970	27,050	28,103
Imprisonment					
Over 15 years	—	—	—	—	—
Less than 15 years	—	—	—	—	—
Under 10 years	—	—	—	—	—
Under 5 years	—	—	—	—	—
„ 3 „	—	—	1	—	—
„ 2 „	—	—	4	5	7
„ 1 year	6	3	2	11	6
„ 6 months	9	13	17	28	54
„ 3 „	73	179	110	316	249
Total	88	195	134	360	316
Detention	6,199	5,601	5,237	5,765	5,500
Death Penalty	22	21	13	15	19
Total	31,311	28,899	29,354	33,190	33,938

VIII YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS ACCORDING TO THE NATURE OF CRIMES

	1927		1928		1929	
	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists
Theft	5,560	7,203	5,267	6,802	5,358	7,612
Burglary	376	189	374	238	389	243
Gambling and lotteries	1,327	693	974	553	963	551
Fraud and terrorism	1,955	1,533	1,743	1,402	1,750	1,585
Usurpation	848	345	798	326	804	364
Receiving stolen goods	176	75	203	85	153	92
Forgery of currency	21	6	20	7	25	12
Forgery of documents, seals or stamps	393	120	354	97	330	87

	1927		1928		1929	
	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	199	37	153	25	149	34
Injury	1,111	319	1,035	311	1,034	307
Murder	615	75	562	51	375	34
Abortion	45	7	34	9	20	4
Sedition	100	9	69	1	25	7
Incendiarism	480	32	385	31	380	36
Others	517	216	480	219	501	239
Offences against special laws	410	98	575	94	540	101
Total	14,133	10,957	13,026	10,251	12,796	11,308

	1930		1931		Average of five years	
	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists
Theft	6,585	8,222	6,771	8,727	5,908	7,713
Burglary	455	215	436	207	406	218
Gambling and lotteries	931	513	856	523	1,010	567
Fraud and terrorism	2,133	1,734	2,264	1,861	1,969	1,623
Usurpation	933	375	974	342	872	350
Receiving stolen goods	216	87	225	125	195	93
Forgery of currency	19	7	21	10	21	8
Forgery of documents, seals or stamps	391	104	389	95	371	101
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	189	32	167	37	171	33
Injury	1,117	341	1,100	302	1,080	316
Murder	423	55	498	49	495	53
Abortion	23	3	34	5	31	6
Sedition	18	—	19	1	46	4
Incendiarism	423	21	567	46	447	33
Others	569	265	578	248	529	237
Offences against special laws	894	117	826	116	649	105
Total	15,319	12,091	15,725	12,694	14,200	11,460

IX YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF CONVICTS

Classes / Year		1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Convicts	men	37,288	35,779	36,859	40,595	41,671
	women	702	632	634	593	582
Accused	men	2,605	2,860	3,916	4,628	4,611
	women	86	81	103	133	131
Detained in the house of labour	men	285	259	317	472	492
	women	8	6	5	9	13
Infants	boys	4	2	5	5	4
	girls	3	5	3	4	3
Total	men	40,182	38,900	41,097	45,700	46,778
	women	799	724	745	739	729
Sum Total		40,981	39,624	41,842	46,439	47,507

X YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS

Classes / Year	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Convicts	31,311	28,899	29,344	33,190	33,938
Suspects	17,466	18,132	16,644	16,864	16,635
Accused	27,755	27,085	27,995	34,413	33,737
Kept in the house of labour	5,062	5,261	5,456	7,909	9,658
Infants (a) born in prison	2	2	3	2	6
„ (b) taken in with mother	31	31	27	29	26
Total	33	33	30	31	32
Sum Total	81,627	79,410	79,469	92,407	94,000

Prison System

Historical Background

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

Up till recent times the idea at the root of the Japanese penal system was minatory. In other words, the so-called principle of general prevention by warning the people at large against the commission of crimes by imposing heavy punishments upon criminals was adopted. Accordingly, the punishments were principally capital and corporal and extremely cruel in character. For instance, the Criminal Code of the Yedo Period (1502-1867) recognized the exposing in public of the heads of persons executed; crucifying, burning at the stake and other similar cruel punishments were imposed. In those days the jails were used merely as places of detention for various offenders until their trial, not as places for reforming offenders. Imprisonment was a very unusual form of punishment, for prisons were unknown and imprisonment was not a legal penalty.

Exile and Banishment Punishments which brought loss of liberty for specified periods to the criminal were exile and banishment. Persons punished with exile were sent to distant islands and places such as Satsuma, islands of the Goto group, Oki, Iki and Amakusa, and there they were forced to work under such miserable conditions that most of them died of starvation. Banishment was a penalty designed to expel persons convicted of crimes from certain fixed areas, and, as the result of the enforcement of this punishment in certain districts industries declined and farms and fields lay waste, giving rise to many social evils such as the increase in the number of ronin (masterless samurai), mushukumono (vagabonds) and other dangerous elements. In 1778, therefore, as a remedial measure, the Tokugawa Shogunate instituted the system of kozan-yékifu (mine labour) and, in 1790, that of ninsoku-yoseba (places for the detention of convict-coolies). The system of kozan-yékifu dealt with vagabonds with no previous convictions. These were sent as coolies to pump water out of the Sado gold-mine. In and after 1788, those who had been punished with flogging or marked with tattooes as ex-convicts and were homeless or those who, it was feared, might perpetrate crimes in the future were sent there also.

Prototype of Present Prisons The ninsoku-yoseba were to all intents and purposes the prototype of present day prisons and penal servitude. These places for the detention of convict-coolies were located at Ishikawajima and Tsukudajima in Yedo and at Kamigo-mura, Tsukuba-gun, Hitachi province, and there vagabonds and those who had been punished with flogging or marked with tattooes as ex-convicts were detailed to work as oil pressers or at other kinds of labour for a fixed wage, with the ulterior object of giving them such instruction and training as would fit them to lead the lives of respectable members of society. In and after 1820 those who were punished with banishment heavier than that from the confines of Yedo (Tokyo) were put to forced labour for a fixed period of time in lieu of that punishment. Thus the ninsoku-yoseba, which had been instituted as workhouses for vagabonds, were turned into prisons for the reclamation of criminals through ordered life and labour. In its correctional idea ninsoku-yoseba was entirely identical with the London "Bridewell," which was established in England in 1550 "to punish, correct, and reform by labour of a diversified nature," and the Amsterdam workhouse (tuchthuis) founded at the end of the 16th century and well known for its motto, "Schrick niet! ick wreeck geen quaet, maer dwing tot goedt, straf ist myn handt, mar lieflijck myn gemoedt." (Do not fear! I will not take revenge upon you for your misdeed; on the contrary, I wish to lead you to good. Although I am rigorous in handling you, my heart is filled with kindliness towards you.) In and after 1790 the prisoners detained in the ninsoku-yoseba who behaved well and showed notable signs of penitence were liberated on certain conditions and this may be taken as the enforcement of provisional release of prisoners for the first time in Japan. When it is remembered that the system of provisional release of prisoners in Europe originated in a favoured release of prisoners from a convicts' colony in Australia in 1791, it is an interesting coincidence that the same system was inaugurated simultaneously both in the West and the East.

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

Management of Prisons

Prisons are placed under the control of the Minister of Justice. Prior to 1900, they were under the control of the Minister of Home Affairs, but, since that year, they have come under the supervision of the Minister of Justice. With the transfer of affairs relating to prisons from the Department of Home Affairs to the Department of Justice, the Bureau of Prisons was established in the latter Department for the administration of matters concerning the execution of sentences, prisons, provisional releases of prisoners, and the identification of criminals by finger-prints. A Director, several secretaries and a hygiene official of the Department, several clerks and three assistant-experts in finger-prints were appointed to conduct the business of the Bureau.

Today there are 43 ordinary prisons, 9 reformatory prisons for minors, and 103 branch-prisons, and the number of the inmates as on January 1, 1933, was as follows :

Convicted persons	Males	45,730
	Females	594
Suspected persons	Males	74
	Females	3
Accused persons	Males	5,462
	Females	162
Persons detained in workhouses	Males	461
	Females	16
Infants	Males	2
	Females	4
Total		52,508

The kinds and regular number of prison officials are as follows :

Kind	Number
Governor (officials of sonin rank)	43
Assistant-governors (officials of sonin rank)	34
Doctors (accorded treatment as officials of sonin rank)	93
Chaplains (accorded treatment as officials of sonin and hannin ranks)	137
Instructors (accorded treatment as officials of hannin rank)	57
Industrial work experts (accorded treatment as officials of sonin rank)	19
Assistant industrial work experts (accorded treatment as officials of hannin rank)	405
Assistant doctors (accorded treatment as officials of hannin rank)	37
Pharmacists (accorded treatment as officials of hannin rank)	10
Chief warders (officials of hannin rank) (including 5 chief wardresses)	475
Interpreters (officials of hannin rank	4
Warders (accorded treatment as officials of hannin rank) (including 171 wardresses)	6,708

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

Classification

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

Treatment of Prisoners

Object of Treatment As to what is the primary and fundamental purpose of punishment of imprisonment, nothing is stated in the Criminal Code or in the Prison Code now in force. Some Japanese jurists are of opinion that punishment must remain in its essence retributive and deterrent, accordingly a prisoner must be made to expiate his offence by a dull, soulless, and monotonous servitude, but such new scholars of criminal law and penology as Dr. Yeiichi Makino, Professor of Criminal Law, Tokyo Imperial University, Prof. Kameji Kimura and Dr. Akira Masaki, Assistant Director, Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice, interpret it as a form of education and emphasize its socializing effects. Be that as it may, Japanese juridical authorities have for more than ten years endeavoured to reform prisons on the latter principle. On April 4, 1924, Dr. Kisaburo Suzuki, the then Minister of Justice, declared at a meeting of officials connected with prisons and criminal affairs, "The enforcement of punishments consists in the adoption of such measures as may improve the quality of convicted persons and socialize them as good and law-abiding members of society." Further, at a meeting of the governors of prisons and reformatory prisons for minors held on October 11, 1927, Dr. Kado Hara, the then Minister of Justice, gave the following instructions :

"The object of enforcing punishments on the inmates of prisons is to cause them to reflect on and repent their offences and to turn them into good members of society. There are many and various means of attaining this object, but they are, in the final analysis, to cultivate their character, to give them training for different occupations, and to maintain their health in good condition, while improving the circumstances which constitute the causes of their offences so as to enable them to lead a decent life. In order to realize the end aimed at, therefore, a mere confinement and watching of them is not sufficient ; on the contrary, it is necessary to know their individual characteristics and to inquire into and ascertain the motives and causes of their crimes, giving them thereby appropriate treatment."

Classification System Inasmuch as punishment by the restriction of personal liberty is enforced today principally with a view to education, criminals are properly classified according to ages, characteristics, terms of imprisonment, numbers and kinds of offences, and are then confined in different prisons so as to facilitate the enforcement of adequate measures for their education in accordance with their categories and, further, to prevent prisons from becoming breeding-places of crime through mutual contact and contagion as the result of promiscuous confinement of all grades. When it is impossible to distribute them among independent prisons and they are confined in the same area, prisoners are usually classified strictly and confined separately according to their categories. There are prisons for minors at Odawara, Kawagoyé, Himéji, Okazaki, Iwakuni, Kurumé, Morioka, and Hachioji and in Hokkaido for the confinement of those under 18 years of age sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment, prisons for aged persons at Hamamatsu and Yonago and for women at Tochigi, Miyoshi and Miyazu. Further, there are prisons for the confinement of persons sentenced to terms of imprisonment exceeding 10 years at Kosugé, Takamatsu, Hiroshima, Okayama, Miyagi, and Abashiri ; the Abashiri agricultural prison is intended for training prisoners as agricultural labourers. At Uraga, located in an old warship anchored off the port, is a branch of the Odawara prison for minors. There juvenile offenders are given training as fishermen, and sometimes engage in coastal and deep-sea fishing in sailing-vessels or steamers.

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

Progressive System A treatment on the progressive system is accorded to convicts who form the bulk of the inmates of prisons. This treatment aims at leading them to repent and their treatment is graded in proportion to their aspiration and

diligence, thereby gradually bringing them to the conditions of ordinary social life. The relaxation of the enforcement of penalties not merely extends the scope of the personal liberty of convicts, but serves to cultivate a sense of responsibility on their part and strengthens their will for self-reclamation. In short, its chief purpose is not to make "good convicts", but to turn them into "good citizens." The treatment in question does not apply to persons who are sentenced to imprisonment for less than 6 months, aged and decrepit persons, and those of unsound mental or physical faculties. Any prisoner committed for the first time is kept in solitary confinement for a certain period of time and a close study is made of him. In the basis of the results he is classified according to character, physical and mental condition, number of convictions, age, nature of crimes, term of service, home, health and thought.

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

The Treatment Governors of prisons may cause convicts in each workshop to elect some from among them to keep the workshop in good order and look after other necessary matters. The elected ones must be popular, trustworthy and belong to the third class. Prisoners belonging to the third class must jointly, once a month, carry out the work of cleaning and sweeping of prison grounds and keeping them in order. Except in cases of special need, prisoners belonging to the fourth class do not undergo physical examination or have their cells searched, and, further, are permitted to talk with one another so long as it does not interfere with the maintenance of discipline. They are also permitted to elect two representatives that they may express their desires to the authorities. These representatives are nominated by the governor of the prison concerned from among several candidates elected by prisoners belonging to the fourth class. Prisoners of the fourth class may be permitted to take a walk in a place designated for that purpose in the prison grounds in hours of recess, or hold meetings, take a walk in a group, or hold athletic meetings on days free from labour. They give a pledge to the governor, holding themselves responsible for the physical examination of those of their own class, for the search of their cells and keeping them in order, and the maintenance of order among themselves. In case of any one of them violating the pledge, the privileged treatment will be suspended for a part or all of them. Any one of those belonging to the first class who earns more than ¥5.00 for labour may be permitted to use less than one-fifth of the monthly total in buying postage stamps and in other ways that are deemed necessary; any one of those belonging to the second class less than one-fourth of the monthly total; any one of those belonging to the third class less than one-third of the monthly total; and any one of those belonging to the fourth class less than one-half of the monthly total. While those of the first class are not permitted to change the kinds of labour they engage in, those of the second class and up are permitted to do so. Those who have superior skill or high efficiency and belong to the third class are charged with the task of directing industrial work and those who are similarly qualified in the fourth class are given the task of directing and supervising it. Those of the third class who have particularly superior skill and high efficiency are permitted to work for their own profit in time other than working hours, but that time is limited to two hours per day.

Moral Education Prisoners belonging to the first and fourth classes are chiefly given individual moral and religious instruction, while those belonging to the second and third classes receive the same instruction en masse. Listening to music broadcast on the radio and listening to the playing of gramophone records is permitted to those belonging to the second and higher classes. The time for the enjoyment of this privilege is fixed at twice a month for those belonging to the second class, which may be increased to three times and four times for those belonging to the third and fourth classes respectively. The governor may permit members of the third and fourth classes to hold moral cultural meetings, the number of times being limited to once for those belonging to the third class and twice for those belonging to the fourth. Prisoners of the fourth class are permitted to read books or see pictures in the prison library on days free from labour and may also borrow suitable newspapers and magazines from it. Those of the third and fourth classes may be permitted to play athletic games, the number of times for such amusements being limited to once a month for those of the third and twice for those of the fourth class. While those belonging to the first class are permitted to interview or send letters only to their relatives and those who are concerned with their protection, those belonging to the second and higher classes are permitted to interview or send letters to those who do not interfere with their moral instruction, besides their relatives. The number of times of interviews and of writing letters increases in proportion to advances in class.

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

Suspension of Progress In case any prisoner violates the prison regulations, the treatment on the progressive system may be suspended for up to a period of 3 months, but, in case it is recognized that there are certain circumstances which have to be taken into consideration before the suspension or in case the prisoner shows signs of sincere penitence, the enforcement of the sentence of suspension may be postponed for a fixed period of time. If he further violates the prison regulations during that period, the sentence of suspension will be enforced, but, if he

passes the said period without any further violation, it will not be carried out. Further, in case a prisoner shows marked signs of penitence after the sentence has been delivered, this will be taken into consideration and the sentence repealed in full or in part. In case a prisoner who has been punished with suspension of the treatment again violates the prison regulations, he may be transferred to a lower class according to the circumstances of the case. When a prisoner who has been punished with such degradation shows marked signs of penitence, he will be restored to his former category without reckoning his marks.

When any person of the fourth class has served one-third of his term of imprisonment and the prison governor considers him fit for provisional release, his case should be reported on to the Minister of Justice. Even one who belongs to lower classes and who has served one-third of his term and shows notable signs of penitence and is considered to be fully adapted to social life may be specifically granted provisional release, subject to the approval of the conference for provisional treatment on the progressive system.

Prison Labour

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

The Three Systems Industrial work in prisons is managed on three systems, viz.: the public account system, the "made-to-order" system, and the contract system. Under the public account system, a prison itself purchases materials, provides itself with the necessary machinery, implements and tools and makes prisoners manufacture or repair articles or carry on labour under the direction of prison officials, and sells the products. Under the "made-to-order" system, the chief materials are supplied by the outside buyers and prisoners either manufacture or repair articles under the direction of industrial work experts and assistant industrial work experts on the prison staff, and, when the articles are either manufactured or repaired, the wages of the workers and the cost of requisites in the manufacture or repair are calculated and the prices of the articles fixed by the standard of current prices. The articles are then delivered to the buyers on payment of the account. Under the contract system, applicants have to supply not only materials, machinery, implements and tools, but also experts for the direction of work, a prison only offering the labour of prisoners and receiving their wages in exchange. In the contract system now in force in Japan, the prison authorities undertake the supply of provisions, etc. to prisoners as well as their supervision and selection for work and nothing like the lease system that was in vogue in South American countries at one time is recognized.

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

Current Prices Considered When the selling prices of the articles produced in prisons are lower than current market prices, there is a fear of their adversely affecting private undertakings generally. Paragraph 17 of the prison industrial work regulations, therefore, provides: "The selling prices of the manufactures and agricultural products turned out under the public account system shall be calculated by the standard of current market prices, after taking into account the cost of materials and wages paid for the work, but the prices of articles intended for self-supply need not be fixed by the standard of current market prices." As, however, prisoners' wages are low, the selling prices are liable to become low, and the cry that prison products compete unfairly with products of private industries was heard many years ago, and as early as 1891, the competent authorities issued to the prisons throughout the country the following instructions, "As industrial work by prisoners may, it is feared, obstruct the business of the local people by reason of the methods adopted for its execution, care shall be exercised lest the local industrialists of minor standing should suffer or those private undertakings that bid fair to develop be nipped in the bud by using an excessive number of prisoners in one line of industry or by starting such industries as have hitherto been carried on by many local inhabitants and conducting them on a large scale." At the present day, the prisons principally adopt the "State use system", namely, a policy of manufacturing articles needed by the Government offices and public organizations and are taking pains to avoid competition with private undertakings as much as possible.

Training for Occupation In imposing work on prisoners, the most suitable kinds of work are given them not only by taking into consideration health, economy, terms of imprisonment, ability, occupations in free life, and future means of livelihood, but also by scientifically examining their individual adaptabilities to occupations. Industrial work in prisons is the most suitable means of giving moral instruction to prisoners; in particular, to train them in certain lines of work in the course of detention is the best way to prevent their again perpetrating crimes. Since 1926, therefore, houses for the training of prisoners for occupations have been erected in different prisons throughout the country and there prisoners have been trained for occupations requiring special skill such as those of carpenters, joiners, furniture-makers, tin-smiths, plasterers, timber-mill workers, painters, smiths, shoemakers, etc. The term of training is 6 months, during which fundamental theories and practice are taught.

Reward Given as Favour Working hours are from 12 to 13 hours a day and differ according to months. It is permitted to give educational or moral instruction to prisoners or allow them to take exercise within these hours. A time of recess—15

minutes in the morning and 25 minutes in the afternoon—is given them. All the income from the work of prisoners goes into the national treasury, irrespective of whether it arises from work or from wages. A prisoner who has worked may receive a reward as a favour. This gratuity varies from ¥0.20 to ¥10.00 per month and the sums are fixed according to conduct, character, kinds of work, and the results of the work done. Any one who does particularly superior work is given an additional reward not exceeding ¥10.00. The reward for his work is, in principle, not given a prisoner until he is released from prison, but (1) in case a prisoner is entitled to ¥10.00 a month or more, and the money is needed to support his father, mother, wife, child, or to compensate the sufferer from his crime, or to purchase books or other necessary articles, one-third of the amount may be given him while in confinement, and (2) in case it is particularly necessary to do so for the sake of a prisoner, the entire reward may be handed over to him, irrespective of its amount and the way of spending it. In case a prisoner has been injured or has fallen sick while at work, and has died in consequence or has become unable to carry on any work, he may be entitled to a pecuniary reward according to the circumstances of the case. This reward is fixed within the limit of from ¥50 to ¥180 according to the details of the case.

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

Aid of Discharged Prisoners

In its initial stage of development, the aid of discharged prisoners was largely undertaken by the Government. As already stated, the systems of "kozan-yekifu" and of "ninsoku-yosebs" were the origin of punishment by the restriction of personal liberty and incidentally of Government provision for the protection of ex-convicts. After the Meiji Restoration, in 1881, a system called "betsubo-ryuchi" (detention of discharged prisoners in separate quarters) was instituted, under which discharged prisoners who, after the expiration of their terms of sentence, had no one to go to, were detained in special quarters in prisons to enable them to make a living and to be protected by the authorities. As, subsequently, the number of these ex-convicts increased, this system had to be abolished in 1888, but, feeling that if those who had served their terms and had no one to look to or live with were allowed to live as they were inclined after their liberation, they might, it was feared, again lead a life of crime, the Government encouraged charitably disposed persons to carry on work for their welfare. Thus, the aiding of discharged prisoners by individuals and private organizations grew in scope.

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

The Beneficiaries The persons protected by these organizations are not limited to those who have served the terms of their sentences, but include those who have been provisionally released; those, whose prosecution is suspended; those, the enforcement of whose sentences is suspended; and those who have been released from punishment for minor offences; as well as the members of the families of those who are detained in prisons. The method of protection is roughly classified into (a) quarters and protection, (b) indirect protection, and (c) temporary protection. Those to whom the method (a) is applied are quartered in places specially selected by the above-mentioned organizations and are given board, lodging and clothes as well as employment. Those to whom the method (b) is applied are not directly protected, but visits are paid to their fixed places of residence from time to time so as to give them advice and suggestions. Those to whom the method (c) is applied are given only temporary help at the time of liberation from prisons such as providing them with clothes and other necessaries and journey money.

Today, there exists in the Department of Justice the Section for the Protection of Ex-Prisoners which undertakes the direction and supervision of the welfare work of various associations, but as it cannot be expected that a small Section can thoroughly undertake such widespread work, it is increasingly advocated in different quarters that a system for the promotion of the welfare of ex-convicts should be instituted and the work connected therewith conducted by the State.

Police System

Its Fundamentals

There are two aims of the national administration. One is the administration of political affairs for the direct benefit of the nation as a whole, and the other is to protect the public welfare of the individuals who compose the nation. The function of the police is to look after the latter. There is a judicial function of the police that goes side by side with the first one, but the principal significance of the estab-

lishment of the police system is in its protection of public welfare. The work it performs can be considered more in a negative aspect than a positive one for it does not promote welfare work so much as it prevents and roots out matters which are, or may be, detrimental to peaceful social life. The police are endowed with authority to enforce the law or to give orders to the people. Police authority forms a part of the sovereign power of the State.

Authority Vested in State In Japan police authority is entirely invested in the State and is not delegated to other public bodies. In European countries, there are commonly the state police and the local police, the latter being under the jurisdiction of local authorities. In Japan all the police come under the direct administration of the State and no chiefs of local governments or local governments themselves have power over them except in a very few limited subjects. The police are administered in the name of the Emperor by the Minister of Home Affairs through the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police, in Tokyo prefecture, Governors of other prefectures and the Hokkaido Procurator. Although nominally under the Governor of Tokyo prefecture, the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police Board in Tokyo takes his orders direct from the Home Minister as the Board has many political responsibilities unknown in other prefectures. The appointment is actually a political one, the ordinary police business being carried out by the Chief of Police. In the Hokkaido and other prefectures the highest police official is the Chief of the Police Division. Under the Chiefs of Police are the police superintendents, inspectors, assistant inspectors and policemen. A police superintendent is appointed chief of a police station or secretary of a Police Division or in Tokyo and Osaka Prefectures he may be appointed inspector over several police stations. A police inspector or an assistant police inspector may in some cases be appointed chief or secretary of a police station. Policemen are divided into sergeants, indoor and outdoor service men, special service men, and police-detectives.

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

In Time of Peace, and Crisis In times of peace the maintenance of public order rests with the police. Individual policemen wear sabres. Pistols are carried only in special cases though in the police force there are troops of armed constables, while if matters become too serious and on special occasions, the gendarmerie is called on for help. The gendarme is a kind of military policeman, but at such times as the police force is too weak to keep public order, a Governor may ask for the aid of the gendarmerie. Moreover, at a time of crisis or extraordinary social disturbance, the army takes the place of the usual police force and acts with a despotic authority without limitation of the Law. The occasions which may call forth the military power for keeping public order are as follows: (1) when the country or a district is placed under martial law in times of war, (2) when a district is put under martial law for the maintenance of public order, (3) when the governor asks for the help of the army for subduing social disturbances, and (4) when a Divisional Commander recognizes the need of military power for keeping local order in an emergency in which the request from other authorities is too late.

Police Business

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

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

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

(c) Supervision of businesses or commercial shops. Most businesses are free, but in some cases some kind of police supervision is necessary in the interests of public welfare, hygiene, prevention of damage, the safety of traffic, and social economy. For instance, such shops and businesses as inns, public baths, employment exchanges for geisha and prostitutes, credit information businesses, barbers, seal or stamp engravers, old clothes dealers, peddlers and stall-holders are inspected or taken care of by the police. Pawnshops and curio or second-hand shops are under special regulations and police inspection and supervision is thoroughly practised as many stolen articles find their way into these shops, and lead to excellent results in the arrest of thieves and burglars. Guides, scribes and employment exchanges for profit are also under special regulations and strict supervision.

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

(e) Accidents. The police take charge in cases of fire, floods, explosions, people being injured etc. Regulations are issued on the handling of guns and explosives; the wearing of swords or the like is strictly forbidden; the handling or selling of poison is under a special regulation. Sulphur and oil businesses are under police care also. Buildings are under police supervision for their beauty, fire-proofness,

and hygiene; factories, warehouses, theatres, and public resorts receive special attention. Crematories, slaughter-houses and incinerators must not be within residential or commercial districts of cities. Regulations regarding buildings are stricter than in Western countries because of the large number of wooden houses liable to fire and the constant fear of earthquakes. Electricity and gas businesses must not endanger the lives of people. Mines are under a special police regulation as they are most liable to fatal accidents. Prevention of floods also comes into the sphere of police business.

For the prevention and extinction of fires, fire-brigades are established in cities under the control of the Chief of the Police Division in the prefecture. In Tokyo Prefecture, a fire division is established in the Metropolitan Police Board and fire-brigade stations are located in different parts of Tokyo. In the larger cities, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Kobé and Nagoya special fire-brigade stations are established by the State. In the smaller municipalities fire-guilds are established at the expense of local self-governments, the firemen are volunteers and differ from those in the said cities who are officials of the State.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(e) The aviation police are put under the management of the Minister of Communications also, while,

(f) Colonial police come under the control of the Minister of Overseas Affairs except in some cases which may come under the supervision of local governments.

Police and the People

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

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

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

(c) The hygiene and prevention of epidemics among domestic animals is looked after by the police. Many laws are enforced regarding the improvement of animals, and police power is needed for a proper practice of them, especially in connection with horse-racing.

(d) Forestry police mainly pre-

vent damage to the forests.

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

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

(g) For the protection of labourers there are numerous laws in force, for instance, the Factory Law, Laws on the limitation of age of factory or marine workers, the Labour Accident Prevention Law, the Mine Law, Ordinance regarding the enlistment of workers. Policemen either help factory or mine inspectors or directly handle matters mentioned in these laws. Labour movements and disputes many times call for the use of police power.

Police Stations and Officials

There were in 1932, 1,208 police stations, of which 22 being water-police stations, 4,936 branch stations, 14,177 police-boxes.

At the same time there were 51 chiefs of police divisions, 307 police-superintendents, 1,504 police inspectors, 3,272 assistant police inspectors, 57,069 police sergeants, and policemen, total being 62,151.

CHAPTER XXIX

EDUCATION

Historical Background

Ever since Japan emerged from her long centuries of seclusion to take her place with the foremost of the Western Powers, two views, both erroneous, have been more or less prevalent in Europe and America concerning the present state of her civilization and culture. According to one view, this was attained at a single bound in response to the summons of the American admiral who knocked unceremoniously at her doors in the summer of 1853. The other theory is that, granting that Japan had some sort of civilization in pre-Meiji days, it was derived in toto from China. The first is so absurd on the face of it that few among the educated would countenance it nowadays; such a miraculous transformation would pass the bounds of possibility. But the second view is hardly less mistaken, though certain things may give colour to it—notably the fact that Japan's written characters are mainly the same as those used by her continental neighbour.

It is true that Japan obtained her letter-writing and first books from China many centuries ago, and has continued cultural intercourse with her ever since; but she never merely adopted this alien culture, dressing herself in it as a man might in another man's garments, or contenting herself with altering it here and there to make it fit better her own spiritual and national form and stature. Rather, by shaping the imported ideas, customs and beliefs on her own mould she has developed a culture and civilization unique, peculiar to herself. To compare her present position in the world with that of her former instructress is sufficient to prove the diversity of the forces that have impelled them.

Primitive Japan seems, as far as we can tell, to have enjoyed peace with her neighbours, surrounded as she was by her water-walls for defence. Yet her condition was not one of undisturbed peace, for, as with England in early Anglo-Saxon days, almost continuous fighting went on among the small tribes that made up her population. Traditions give us clues which help us to get some vague ideas on those unwritten days. Shintoism already existed in a primitive state, stressing ancestral worship and filial piety, loyalty to the Ruler and some sort of moral code, many centuries before the islands came under the influence of the Chinese sages.

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

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

These were the earliest schools of Japan.

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

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

"Tera-koya" Education

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

The word "tera" means Buddhist temple and "koya" children's house, so the tera-koya was a school for children established by a Buddhist temple. It was originated many years before the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate by Buddhist monks, but at first it was rather for the privileged class of people and the number of these schools was limited. The orderly system of national politics of the Tokugawa Shogunate inaugurated an age of peaceful life for all classes of the people, and civilization and culture made unusual progress. Side by side with the governmental schools for the samurai class, tera-koya education spread among the common folks in business and farm quarters. It gradually ceased to be entirely in the hands of the monks, and assumed a form and nature quite different from the original.

The school-house was no longer in or attached to a temple; teaching was not restricted to the monks; the teacher might be a samurai, monk, doctor or Shinto priest. "Tera-koya" became merely a general name, and the founders of tera-koya schools chose any name they liked for their own. The size of the schools was diverse, the largest one accommodating as many as two or three hundred pupils. There was rarely more than one teacher, but in the larger schools there might be an assistant. The age of the pupils ranged from 6 to 15 years. It was co-education, although the sexes sat apart. The courses of study were commonly penmanship, Japanese literature, and the use of the abacus, with such optional subjects as Chinese literature, poem compositon, sewing, flower-arrangement or tea ceremonies. Many textbooks on moral precepts and letter writing were published and used in these schools. When a boy or girl reached the age of six or seven, the parents took the child to the tera-yoka with a desk (no need of a chair, since pupils and teacher squatted on the mats), a flat black oblong stone with its tiny water-well for rubbing the stick of Chinese ink, and paper, and gave a small amount of money to the school master as entrance fee. School lasted daily from about 7 a. m. to 2 p. m. There was no Sunday rest, but the 1st, 15th and 25th of every month were holidays, in addition to some festival days and the winter vacation. There was a system of examinations, too. These schools were usually kept up largely out of the pocket of the school master himself, for his work was entirely voluntary, inspired by pure devotion to service, for which he gained the honour and respect of the community. Part of the expenses was sometimes defrayed by contributions of gratitude from the parents of the pupils. In some cases, parents united to support schools. In larger towns there were some in which regular tuition fees were collected. The system was very simple, but the school masters were leading men of their communities and by their unselfish labours educated the boys and girls, over whom they had strong influence, keeping in the closest personal touch with them. According to the report of the Department of Education, there were 15,862 tera-koyas in Japan at the beginning of the Meiji Era, or just before the establishment of the new elementary school system. No wonder that the rate of school attendance falls little short of 100%, although it is compulsory now.

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

Educational Administration

The present educational system of Japan dates from 1872, the 5th year of Meiji, when elementary education was made compulsory. Its principles are stated in the Imperial Rescript on Education issued on Oct. 30, 1890. This world-renowned rescript was published to lay down leading ideas and principles for the guidance of the Japanese, because at the beginning of the Meiji Era people were so eager to take in all things Western that they were in danger of forgetting their own characteristics and national constitution; and it firmly established the route along which Japanese education should travel for ages to come.

The Imperial Rescript of the Great Emperor Meiji is written in a very simple language and it is considered as a masterpiece of style. It reads as follows.

"Know ye, Our Subjects!

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

These were the earliest schools of Japan.

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

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

"Tera-koya" Education

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

The word "tera" means Buddhist temple and "koya" children's house, so the tera-koya was a school for children established by a Buddhist temple. It was originated many years before the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate by Buddhist monks, but at first it was rather for the privileged class of people and the number of these schools was limited. The orderly system of national politics of the Tokugawa Shogunate inaugurated an age of peaceful life for all classes of the people, and civilization and culture made unusual progress. Side by side with the governmental schools for the samurai class, tera-koya education spread among the common folks in business and farm quarters. It gradually ceased to be entirely in the hands of the monks, and assumed a form and nature quite different from the original.

The school-house was no longer in or attached to a temple; teaching was not restricted to the monks; the teacher might be a samurai, monk, doctor or Shinto priest. "Tera-koya" became merely a general name, and the founders of tera-koya schools chose any name they liked for their own. The size of the schools was diverse, the largest one accommodating as many as two or three hundred pupils. There was rarely more than one teacher, but in the larger schools there might be an assistant. The age of the pupils ranged from 6 to 15 years. It was co-education, although the sexes sat apart. The courses of study were commonly penmanship, Japanese literature, and the use of the abacus, with such optional subjects as Chinese literature, poem compositon, sewing, flower-arrangement or tea ceremonies. Many textbooks on moral precepts and letter writing were published and used in these schools. When a boy or girl reached the age of six or seven, the parents took the child to the tera-yoka with a desk (no need of a chair, since pupils and teacher squatted on the mats), a flat black oblong stone with its tiny water-well for rubbing the stick of Chinese ink, and paper, and gave a small amount of money to the school master as entrance fee. School lasted daily from about 7 a. m. to 2 p. m. There was no Sunday rest, but the 1st, 15th and 25th of every month were holidays, in addition to some festival days and the winter vacation. There was a system of examinations, too. These schools were usually kept up largely out of the pocket of the school master himself, for his work was entirely voluntary, inspired by pure devotion to service, for which he gained the honour and respect of the community. Part of the expenses was sometimes defrayed by contributions of gratitude from the parents of the pupils. In some cases, parents united to support schools. In larger towns there were some in which regular tuition fees were collected. The system was very simple, but the school masters were leading men of their communities and by their unselfish labours educated the boys and girls, over whom they had strong influence, keeping in the closest personal touch with them. According to the report of the Department of Education, there were 15,862 tera-koyas in Japan at the beginning of the Meiji Era, or just before the establishment of the new elementary school system. No wonder that the rate of school attendance falls little short of 100%, although it is compulsory now.

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

Educational Administration

The present educational system of Japan dates from 1872, the 5th year of Meiji, when elementary education was made compulsory. Its principles are stated in the Imperial Rescript on Education issued on Oct. 30, 1890. This world-renowned rescript was published to lay down leading ideas and principles for the guidance of the Japanese, because at the beginning of the Meiji Era people were so eager to take in all things Western that they were in danger of forgetting their own characteristics and national constitution; and it firmly established the route along which Japanese education should travel for ages to come.

The Imperial Rescript of the Great Emperor Meiji is written in a very simple language and it is considered as a masterpiece of style. It reads as follows.

"Know ye, Our Subjects!

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

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

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

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

(Imperial Sign Manual)

(Imperial Seal)

All school education in Japan is supervised by the State, being partly entrusted to local public bodies such as the prefectural councils, towns and villages, so that they may look after the schools in different localities in such a way as to meet the local needs. But it must be said that Government supervision in educational matters is rather too strict to admit of much local colour in the various schools, wherever situated.

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

The points entrusted to local public bodies are chiefly financial matters, pertaining to the establishment and maintenance of schools, some of which are obligatory while some are left to the discretion of local bodies. The obligatory matters are the establishment by Hokkaido and the prefectures of normal schools, middle schools for boys and girls, schools for the blind and for the deaf-and-dumb, technical schools by order of the Minister of Education, and that of ordinary elementary schools by cities, towns and villages. Municipalities may not establish higher normal schools, and Hokkaido and the prefectures alone are authorized to establish universities, higher schools and normal schools.

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

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

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

Of the affairs within the jurisdiction of the Department, those that are related to education, art, science, and literature are distributed respectively among the Bureaux of Higher Education, General Education, Technical Education, Social Education, School Books, and Student Control, and those pertaining to religion are under the direction of the Bureau of Religion. Those affairs which do not properly belong to any one of these bureaux are dealt with in the Minister's Secretariat. In addition there are a parliamentary councellor, who participates in affairs connected with the Imperial Diet and other political matters; school superintendents, who inspect schools and directly supervise educational affairs; supervisors of social education who direct and supervise social educational affairs; superintendents of compilation who compile and examine text-books; and supervisors of school hygiene who look after the sanitary conditions of schools. Various advisory committees with prominent men in and out of office as members are instituted to help the Minister of Education in matters of wider scope.

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

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

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

School Education

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

Conditions are different when we come to secondary education, for

which there exist a considerable number of private schools, and in the case of schools of the highest grade the private establishments quite outrange in numbers those under official control.

Only 17 out of the 46 existing universities were built by the Government, 5 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies. In quality, however, we must admit that Government schools are in general somewhat better than the others. Parents are apt to send their boys and girls to Government schools in preference to others, so that it is sometimes hard for private schools to attract promising students even if they can aspire to rival the governmental establishments in equipment and the standard of their teaching staff. Moreover, it is very hard to get substantial contributions from wealthy people, because there is a widespread feeling that such a matter as school education is far better left to the State or other public bodies. Most private schools therefore are in financial difficulties and are far from accomplishing their ideals as educational institutions.

The total number of schools in Japan proper and their enrolment in the last five years, 1927-1931, is shown below:

Year	Schools	Students
1931	45,898	12,847,730
1930	45,803	12,549,320
1929	45,610	12,287,660
1928	45,439	12,044,220
1927	45,209	11,733,688

Classified according to types, the number of schools in Japan proper in the year 1931, with the number of students enrolled, was as follows:

	Schools	Students
Elementary Schools	25,673	10,112,226
Middle Schools	557	345,691
	Schools	Students
Girls' High Schools	975	368,999
Business Schools	975	288,681
Business Continuation Schools	15,248	1,277,338
Higher Schools	32	20,551
Universities	46	69,606
Colleges	111	70,148
Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges	51	20,033
Normal Schools	105	43,852
Higher Normal Schools	2	1,875
Higher Normal Schools for Women	2	841
Special Institutes for the Training of Teachers	14	898
Institutes for the Training of Business School Teachers	6	365
Institutes for the Training of Business Continuation School Teachers	44	1,232
Schools for the Blind	74	4,306
Schools for the Deaf and Dumb	51	3,831
Miscellaneous Schools	1,932	217,257
Total	45,898	12,847,730

The figures for schools refer to those existing on March 31, while the figures for students refer to those on March 1.

Elementary Education

Elementary education in Japan is compulsory and has attained to its present high level of excellence through many improvements since the promulgation of the School Ordinance in 1872. In the Imperial Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools the object of elementary education is defined as follows:

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

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

The responsibility of establishing ordinary elementary schools is placed upon cities, towns and villages, and they are making efforts to maintain schools even in the dire depression of the past few years. At the same time, however, special provisions permit the State Treasury to bear part of the expense, and the diffusion of elementary school education in Japan proper is all but ideal, the number of the school-age children attending schools maintaining the rate of 99% for the past five years.

The full figures are as follows:

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

Year	School-age Children	Children Attending Schools	Children not Attending Schools	Percentage of Children Attending Schools
1931	10,105,941	10,056,530	49,411	99.51
1930	9,883,785	9,832,847	50,938	99.48
1929	9,717,057	9,663,586	53,471	99.45
1928	9,565,952	9,514,737	51,225	99.46
1927	9,401,906	9,348,865	53,041	99.44

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

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

Under the present system of compulsory education the father's responsibility ends when his child has graduated from the lower elementary school. But the ordinary elementary education of children is not sufficient for the existing conditions of society, and many cities, towns and villages establish higher elementary schools either independently or in connection with ordinary ones. For the same reason, many business continuation schools are established to give elementary school graduates such education as may be of use in various trades.

The following tables will give a general idea of the conditions of elementary schools as they were in 1931.

Schools	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Ordinary Schools	—	7,042	72	7,114
Ordinary and Higher Schools	4	18,371	22	18,397
Higher Schools	—	161	1	162
Total	4	25,574	95	25,673
Classes				
Ordinary and supplementary	55	176,883	613	177,551
Higher and supplementary	7	32,463	36	32,506
Total	62	209,346	649	210,057
Teachers	94	233,856	849	234,799
Pupils	2,389	10,081,720	28,117	10,112,226
Graduates	470	1,812,334	4,324	1,817,128
Entrants	495	2,344,029	6,030	2,350,554
Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	2,062	8,460,552	25,572	8,488,186
Higher	218	1,290,445	1,268	1,291,931
Total	2,280	9,750,997	26,840	9,780,117
Percentage of Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	95.07	96.56	95.39	96.59
Higher	96.46	96.23	96.87	96.23
Average	95.20	96.54	95.45	96.54

Teachers and Salaries There are more male teachers than female in the Japanese elementary schools, and they are classified according to their education and special abilities, as (1) elementary school teachers (2) lower elementary school teachers, (3) teachers on special subjects, (4) assistant teachers and (5) substitute teachers. The teachers belonging to the first two classes are regular teachers properly qualified for the elementary education of children.

Ordinary Elementary Schools

Numbers of teachers	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Male	83,374	21,280	3,476	5,442	8,250
Female	37,651	14,953	6,669	3,234	8,070
Total	121,025	36,233	10,145	8,676	16,320
Monthly Salary					
Maximum, Male	¥240	¥130	¥130	¥63	¥135
„ Female	120	110	110	65	80
Minimum, Male	10	23	1	10	1
„ Female	10	8	1	6	1
Average					
Male	70	53	53	40	39
Female	50	43	41	36	27

Higher Elementary Schools

	(1)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Teachers, Male	32,962	1,860	91	992
„ Female	2,549	1,250	13	330
Total	35,511	3,110	104	1,322
Maximum Salary, Male	¥240	¥160	¥65	¥110
„ Female	120	110	55	115
Minimum Salary, Male	12	1	28	1

Higher Elementary Schools

	(1)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Minimum Salary, Female	33	1	17	1
Average Male	73	55	43	41
Female	54	46	36	37

Secondary Education

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

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

From the fourth year upwards, the subjects are selected and arranged into two groups, the pupils making choice between the two. Under special circumstances, however, the Minister of Education may authorize a school in which either of the two groups may be dispensed with. This dual system of curriculum is of benefit on the one hand to the pupils who wish to take up employment immediately upon graduation, and on the other to those who wish to advance to higher-grade schools.

To the regular course a supplementary course of one year or less may be added, and, if local circumstances require, a preparatory course of two years may also be provided. A boy who desires to enter a middle school must complete either its preparatory course or the full course of an ordinary elementary school. Those who are twelve or more years of age and in possession of adequate scholastic attainments may be admitted upon examination. Those who have completed the fifth year (the course of the ordinary elementary school ends with the sixth year as mentioned above) of an ordinary elementary school and are physically well developed and have shown excellent scholarship are allowed to apply for the entrance examination, even though under twelve years of age; this is to give a chance to specially gifted boys.

The following are the figures for middle schools and their pupils in the years 1927-1931:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1931	557	345,691
1930	555	348,584
1929	546	343,709
1928	532	331,651
1927	518	316,759

A general idea of the condition of the middle schools in 1930-1931 may be obtained by the following table of figures:

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Schools	2	434	121	553
Classes, regular course	25	6,562	1,425	8,012
Number of boys in one class	39.84	43.05	43.54	43.12
Teachers, licensed	59	9,688	2,086	11,833
„ non-licensed	—	1,345	665	2,010
Total	59	11,033	2,751	13,843
Pupils, regular course	996	282,474	62,038	345,508

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
		Preparatory	37	37
Pupils Supplementary course	—	121	25	146
Total	196	282,595	62,100	345,691
Graduates, regular course	179	46,548	11,738	58,465
		Preparatory	17	17
,, Supplementary course	—	271	54	325
Total	179	46,819	11,809	58,807
Applicants, regular course	1,042	84,889	22,697	108,628
		Preparatory	33	33
,, Supplementary course	—	1,719	68	1,787
Total	1,042	86,608	22,798	110,448
Admitted, regular course	216	62,815	12,031	75,062
		Preparatory	20	20
,, Supplementary Course	—	1,023	68	1,091
Total	216	63,838	12,119	79,173
Left school, regular course	45	23,502	9,082	32,629

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

The subjects taught in a girls' high school are the same as those taught in the middle schools, but with the addition of domestic science and sewing, the required hours of study being from 28 to 29 a week. In the case of the Girls' Domestic High School, technical study is added and the hours for domestic science and sewing are double those of the ordinary high school, the time allowed for other subjects being shortened, and foreign languages omitted altogether. Under special circumstances the foreign language, drawing and music may be omitted, and if local circumstances require, pedagogics, manual arts, technical studies and other useful subjects may be taught in addition to the normal curriculum. In such cases the total weekly hours may be increased to a little over 30. The curriculum of a domestic course of three years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the first year of the higher elementary school, is to be suitably drawn up on the basis of that of a domestic course of two years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the higher elementary school, and be submitted to the Minister of Education for approval.

The progress of female education is phenomenal in modern Japan and girls' high schools have taken very marked strides in recent years both in number and quality. At the end of March, 1931, there were 975 girls' high schools in Japan proper, many of them being provided with, or contemplating the provision of, a post-graduate course or a higher course.

The number of schools and girl students in the years 1927-1931 was as follows:

Year	Schools	Girls
1931	975	368,999
1930	970	367,726
1929	940	359,269
1928	899	343,578
1927	862	326,208

GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOLS, 1930—1931

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Schools:				
High School	2	546	222	770
Domestic H. S.	1	185	19	205
Total	3	731	241	975
Classes:				
Regular course	29	5,374	1,972	7,366
In a class, average	46.80	46.06	43.40	45.34
Post graduate	—	35	—	35
In a class, average	—	26.26	—	26.26
Domestic High School	4	652	128	784
In a class, average	47.00	36.33	38.72	36.77
Teachers, licensed:				
High School, regular course, male	19	4,557	1,552	6,128
female	33	3,775	1,730	5,538
Post graduate, male	—	80	—	80
female	—	11	—	11
Domestic High School, male	4	305	75	384
female	2	545	75	622
Teachers, unlicensed:				
High School, regular course, male	—	749	543	1,292
female	—	322	478	800
Post graduate, male	—	12	—	12
female	—	7	—	7
Domestic High School, male	—	155	50	205
female	—	100	44	144
Total, male	23	5,858	2,220	8,101
female	35	4,760	2,327	7,122
Total	58	10,618	4,547	15,223
Pupils:				
Regular course	936	247,500	85,587	334,023
Post graduate course	—	919	—	919
Higher course	111	543	485	1,139
Domestic H. School	188	23,687	4,956	28,831
Elective pupils	—	231	37	268
Supplementary course	23	3,291	505	3,819
Total	1,258	276,171	91,570	368,999
Graduates:				
Regular course	189	54,531	18,939	73,659
Post graduate course	—	360	—	360
Higher course	32	111	176	319
Domestic H. School	44	7,355	1,425	8,824
Elective pupils	—	152	18	170
Supplementary course	23	3,229	505	3,757
Total	288	65,738	21,063	87,089

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Applicants:				
Regular course	984	87,764	37,730	126,478
Post graduate course	—	493	—	493
Higher course	125	356	398	879
Domestic H. School	139	9,265	1,463	10,867
Elective pupils	—	195	30	225
Supplementary course	23	3,941	705	4,669
Total	1,271	102,014	40,326	143,611
Admitted:				
Regular course	189	62,683	19,354	82,226
Post graduate course	—	412	—	412
Higher course	50	302	349	701
Domestic H. School	48	8,164	1,130	9,342
Elective pupils	—	195	30	225
Supplementary course	23	3,810	610	4,443
Total	310	75,566	21,473	97,349
Left school in the school year:				
Regular course	29	13,135	7,058	20,222
Domestic H. School	1	1,969	414	2,384
Total	30	15,104	7,472	22,606

Business Schools Business schools of secondary grade are established for the purpose of giving young people the practical knowledge and skill necessary in various vocations, and much is left to the discretion of the founders as to the systems of schools in order to suit the special needs of different industries, trades and localities. The courses may extend from two to five years according to the nature of the school. A period of not longer than one year may be added to the maximum prescribed course. Further provisions are allowed to meet the needs of those who desire to take only a part of the curriculum, for those who, after completing the prescribed course, still desire to remain for further study, and for those who wish after completing the course of a middle school or girls' high school, to enter a business school with the object of receiving business education; and lastly for those who wish to receive instruction in a simple way for only a short period.

At the end of March, 1931, there were 975 business schools. The figures for the years 1927-1931 are given below:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1931	975	288,681
1930	957	280,904
1929	911	267,041
1928	877	249,705
1927	853	233,483

Business schools are divided into two classes, A and B. Those schools which belong to A class admit boys and girls who have completed the course of the ordinary elementary school, while those which belong to B class admit those who have completed the course of the higher elementary school. And they are of six kinds, namely, Technical, Agricultural, Fisheries, Commercial, Navigation and Practical. Figures relating to these business schools in 1930-1931 are given below.

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (A)[1]

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left school
Technical schools	92	2,059	31,822	6,388	21,930	9,722	2,242
Agricultural ,,	232	2,637	48,196	14,199	22,120	17,035	3,348
Fisheries ,,	14	155	1,977	405	743	583	152
Commercial ,,	271	5,732	132,196	22,584	57,912	34,588	13,919
Navigation ,,	11	154	2,635	533	1,309	916	208
Practical ,,	166	2,145	36,140	13,884	19,295	15,753	2,722
Total	786	12,882	252,965	57,993	123,309	78,597	22,591

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (B)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left school
Technical schools	27	317	4,435	1,191	4,293	1,990	511
Agricultural ,,	103	803	17,507	5,829	7,221	6,472	1,319
Commercial ,,	36	348	9,047	2,832	4,365	3,344	1,074
Navigation ,,	1	8	140	81	262	262	177
Practical ,,	22	234	4,587	2,549	3,085	2,771	360
Total	189	1,710	35,716	12,482	19,226	14,839	3,441

Of these schools, 4 technical, 6 agricultural, 12 commercial, and 8 practical schools were under private management.

Business Continuation Schools The object of these schools is to give to boys and girls engaged in vocations after graduation from the ordinary elementary school useful knowledge and skill relating to these vocations and at the same time to furnish education necessary in daily life. Their courses are technical, agricultural, commercial, navigation, fisheries and sewing; each school providing one or even all of these. The whole course is divided into two terms, the first extending over two years and the second over two or three years according to the nature of studies. The number of hours taught in a year ranges between 200 and 420 in the first term, and 160 and 420 in the second, according to studies and the grade of the class. Those who have completed the ordinary elementary school or are up to that standard may be admitted to the first term, and those who have completed the course of the first term and the higher elementary school or are up to the same standard may be admitted to the second term.

A business continuation school may, if local circumstances require, provide itself only with the first or the second term. It may give further instruction to those who have completed the second term. Under special circumstances, a business continuation school of higher grade may be established for the purpose of giving specialized teaching.

The number of business continuation schools and that of their pupils for the years 1927-1931 were as follows:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1931	15,248	1,277,338
1930	15,284	1,226,835
1929	15,297	1,181,907
1928	15,361	1,182,024
1927	15,301	1,130,929

1 Note: The schools established and maintained by private bodies were 8 technical schools, 6 agricultural schools, 104 commercial schools, and 91 practical schools.

BUSINESS CONTINUATION SCHOOLS, 1931.

Schools		Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Entrants	Left School
Technical	101 (19 private)	392	13,822	6,320	12,553	4,727
Agricultural	12,630 (22 ")	14,426	1,016,797	335,476	489,548	81,878
Commercial	527 (3 ")	889	51,755	19,679	45,163	18,085
Navigation	2	2	179	164	85	16
Fisheries	247 (1 ")	142	16,586	4,901	8,359	1,580
Sewing	355 (5 ")	703	20,905	8,784	13,521	3,049
Tech. & Agri.	77	93	8,540	2,873	4,897	1,053
Tech. & Comm.	169 (1 ")	567	30,093	14,942	33,990	11,918
Tech. & Fisheries	2	6	201	56	99	11
Agri. & Comm.	583 (1 ")	1,113	59,611	19,862	31,300	7,334
Agri. & Fisheries	419	403	40,263	12,423	20,216	3,847
Comm. & Fisheries	27	45	2,546	792	1,490	375
Navi. & Fisheries	1	—	155	18	92	11
Tech. Agri. Comm.	52	157	7,405	2,448	4,872	949
Tech. Agri. Fish.	2	1	167	63	106	37
Tech. Comm. Fish.	7	27	1,125	389	615	109
Agri. Comm. Fish.	37	79	6,010	2,449	3,370	718
Tech. Agri. Comm. Fish.	10	33	1,178	431	558	122
Total	15,248 (52 private)	19,078	1,277,338	432,070	670,834	135,730

Higher Education

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

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

The number of schools which belong to the proper category of the organs of higher education and that of students for the years 1927-1931 were as follows:

Year	Schools	Students	Schools (included under other headings as well as here)	Students
1931	553	192,535	312	12,197
1930	533	187,710	305	12,708
1929	530	179,510	306	13,664
1928	508	165,876	293	13,223
1927	483	157,418	276	13,258

Higher Schools (Koto Gakko) The higher school is primarily an institution whose object is to complete the general education of young men. But it is as a matter of fact a preparatory school for universities or higher trade and industrial colleges in present-day Japan. No women are admitted. It is divided into two courses, the higher and the lower. The former extends over three and the latter over four years, making seven in all. A post-graduate course of one year may be taken after the higher course. Some schools have the higher course alone. In March, 1931, the higher schools with the higher course alone numbered 24, while those with both lower and higher courses numbered 8.

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

There are about the same number of preparatory course of universities which correspond to higher schools and are directly attached to universities. The following figures for 1930-1931 refer to the higher schools only.

HIGHER SCHOOLS

Schools	Teachers	Students	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left School
32	1,283	18,278	5,266	35,283	6,155	690
Lower Course	135	2,273	478	3,093	609	58

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

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

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

A university is authorized to confer a doctor's degree on persons who have pursued studies for a period of two years or more in the post-graduate course and whose theses have been approved by the faculty council. Those who have not pursued studies in the post-graduate course may also submit theses and apply for doctor's degrees. The degree is conferred when the faculty council is satisfied with the theses.

UNIVERSITIES, 1930-1931

SCHOOLS GOVERNMENTAL:	Professors	Students & Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left school
Tokyo Imperial	651	8,064	2,290	5,074	2,749	339
Kyoto Imperial	492	5,552	1,382	2,637	1,866	462
Tohoku Imperial	249	1,618	425	1,108	579	142
Kyushu Imperial	265	1,956	604	1,362	703	189
Hokkaido Imperial	281	2,263	641	5,062	802	61
Niigata Medical	36	272	61	114	73	4
Okayama Medical	43	348	62	167	101	2
Chiba Medical	51	507	127	500	167	12
Kanazawa Medical	54	382	96	452	115	16
Nagasaki Medical	57	458	111	474	136	5
Kumamoto Medical	33	297	66	70	70	3

		Professors	Students & Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left school
GOVERNMENTAL:							
Tokyo Commercial		187	2,092	660	2,595	747	96
Kobé Commercial		65	940	203	390	217	25
Tokyo Technical		131	648	299	586	181	25
Osaka Technical		119	450	209	188	137	17
Tokyo Literature and Science		95	217	—	139	105	7
Hiroshima Literature and Science		45	205	—	227	92	4
Total	17	2,854	26,269	7,246	21,230	8,840	1,409
PUBLIC:							
Osaka Medical		65	617	169	371	159	17
Aichi Medical		53	648	153	2,133	194	10
Kyoto Medical		46	630	168	1,836	196	25
Kumamoto Medical		9	80	80	—	—	1
Osaka Commercial		38	585	106	730	246	16
Total	5	211	2,560	676	5,070	795	69
PRIVATE:							
Keio-Gijuku		296	6,772	2,168	5,021	2,221	445
Waseda		350	7,631	2,399	9,351	3,068	387
Meiji		172	3,618	1,105	2,333	1,580	339
Hosei		172	2,767	934	1,604	1,182	497
Chuo		114	1,880	646	1,136	762	442
Nippon		330	3,963	1,175	3,315	2,160	554
Kokugaku-in		89	537	199	599	253	15
Doshi-sha		105	1,451	394	883	596	184
Tokyo Jikei-kai Medical		49	1,205	302	3,810	357	32
Ryukoku		93	838	232	446	347	128
Otani		74	632	174	291	239	55
Rikkyo		117	1,203	330	708	466	57
Kansai		116	1,574	455	876	743	279
Taku-shoku		85	935	320	502	416	168
Senshu		84	834	201	724	515	445
Ryumei-kan		92	1,046	287	757	577	305
Risshio		88	397	132	178	155	19
Komazawa		77	652	212	161	153	99
Tokyo Agricultural		65	561	179	481	258	59
Nippon Medical		54	897	267	2,825	321	7
Koya-san		49	197	75	114	103	31
Taisho		110	573	172	246	205	41
Toyo		52	334	94	183	156	12
Jochi		43	280	49	257	182	77
Total	24	2,876	40,777	12,501	36,801	17,015	4,677
Grand Total	46	5,941	69,606	20,423	63,101	26,650	6,155

The oldest of the 46 universities is Tokyo Imperial University, which was founded in 1886. Keio-Gijuku and Waseda were founded much earlier, but they were raised to the present standard in 1920 according to the ordinances enacted at that time.

In the foregoing table, the universities for which no graduate-figures are given are newly-established ones, none of their students having yet graduated.

Of the total number of students and pupils, that of students was 43,256 and that of pupils in the preparatory course or elective courses was 26,350.

The following figures for 1930-1931 show the number of students in these universities classified according to faculties.

Post graduate course	1,964
Law	7,607
Medical Science	6,564
Science	934
Agriculture	1,842
Economy	4,869
Commerce	4,535
Law and Literature	3,097
Politics and Economy	1,187
Technology	3,221
Literature	4,873
Law and Economy	580
Science and Technology	669
Literature and Science	414
Total	43,256

Summary of Doctor's Degrees The following is a summary of doctor's degrees awarded during the past 43 years, or from May, 1888 to March, 1931.

Name	totals	dead	surviving March, 1931
Dr. of Laws	262	72	190
" " Literature	250	78	172
" " Science	385	64	321
" " Technology	575	123	452
" " Agriculture	233	28	205
" " Forestry	47	10	37
" " Medicine	4,670	268	4,402
" " Pharmacology	71	16	55
" " Veterinary	33	15	18
" " Economics	21	—	21
" " Commerce	5	—	5
" " Political Science	2	—	2
Total	6,554	674	5,880

Colleges, and Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges "College" is the usual translation of the Japanese "Semmon Gakko" or Speciality School, but they are very different from colleges among Western nations and are organs for training the young people in some kind of professional studies. The general trend of present-day civilization and the economical cost of living in Japan give no room for the existence of the old-fashioned college mainly for character building.

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

The following gives the number of colleges, higher trade and industrial colleges, and higher grade schools mentioned in the section on "other education", and that of their students in the years 1927-1931 :

Year	Schools	Students	Those also given under "other education"	
			Schools	Students
1931	185	94,128	23	3,947
1930	179	91,784	23	4,593
1929	174	87,603	21	2,888
1928	165	79,665	18	2,594
1927	157	67,688	18	2,800

In March, 1931, there were 111 colleges, 8 of them being founded and maintained by the Government, 8 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies. They may be classified as follows according to their nature :

Pharmacy	6
" for women	4
Medical Science	5
" " for women	3
Dentistry	5
" for women	2
Medical and pharmacy, for women	1
Nursing for women	1
Languages	3
Literature	6
" for women	5
Religion	11
Christian Theology	3
Painting and other fine arts	1
Music	2
Commerce	1
Commerce, Literature, Religion or Theology	7
Law, Economy, Commerce, Industry	13
Agriculture	1
Colonization	1
Mathematics and Chemistry	1
Meteorology	1

Athletics	2
Fencing and Judo	1
Literature and Domestic Science, for women	12
Literature and Science, for women	2
Domestic economy, for women	1
Sewing and Handiwork, for women	10
Total	111

The following table shows the movement of the college students, classified according to their course of study, in 1930-1931.

Course of Study	Students male	Students female	Graduates male	Graduates female	Applicants male	Applicants female	Entrants male	Entrants female	Left school male	Left school female
Medical Science	3,762	1,963	328	286	13,845	1,078	971	447	57	55
Pharmacy	2,581	1,491	766	243	5,714	814	817	492	118	85
Dentistry	3,512	604	750	209	3,343	375	991	369	121	86
Law	12,400	166	2,858	—	7,812	65	6,062	55	4,084	65
Economy	2,345	—	535	—	1,332	—	1,130	—	1,043	—
Commerce	10,131	12	2,387	—	7,807	10	4,512	8	1,675	6
Literature	11,059	5,034	3,121	1,251	10,090	3,408	4,620	1,866	2,178	681
Mathematics and Chemistry	1,538	45	155	6	3,670	34	1,001	13	864	1
Domestic Science	—	3,018	—	764	—	2,444	—	1,216	—	425
Sewing	—	3,912	—	1,400	—	3,320	—	1,988	—	635
Handiwork	—	100	—	24	—	66	—	54	—	33
Religion	2,302	23	495	5	1,239	13	896	9	328	2
Fine arts	1,079	280	180	54	1,520	136	269	108	93	47
Music	240	588	25	58	333	619	151	293	74	115
Athletics	308	127	31	53	403	88	155	57	30	4
Agriculture	619	—	—	—	835	—	237	—	57	—
Colonization	107	—	33	—	99	—	90	—	68	—
Nursing	—	49	—	8	—	47	—	26	—	8
Meteorology	178	—	10	—	552	—	13	—	4	—
Industry	575	—	—	—	1,120	—	320	—	57	—
Total	52,736	17,412	11,654	4,361	59,721	12,517	22,235	7,001	10,851	2,249

The number of Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges and that of the professors and students was as follows in the same school year.

Kind	Colleges	Professors	Students	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left school
Technical	19	845	7,025	1,971	16,822	2,510	253
Agricultural	12	429	3,403	1,111	7,456	1,397	97
Commercial	18	576	7,917	2,349	13,318	3,165	438
Navigation	2	124	1,688	114	2,456	320	40
Total	51	1,974	20,033	5,545	40,052	7,392	808

Other Education

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

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

The following table gives the number of kindergartens and that of children attending in the years 1927-1931 :

Year	Kindergartens	Children
1931	1,510	121,975
1930	1,397	114,749
1929	1,294	107,236
1928	1,182	99,374
1927	1,066	94,422

Education for the Blind and the Dumb It has been the educational policy of the Japanese Government since the beginning of the Meiji Era that there shall be no illiterates in the country. Therefore, even persons with physical defects are admitted to elementary, middle or girls' high schools, provided that they are fit to attend a greater part of the lessons. But boys and girls who are blind or deaf and dumb are encouraged to enter schools specially founded for them. A special ordinance relating to the schools for the blind, and schools for the deaf and dumb has lately been issued for the purpose of perfecting their elementary and secondary education. The following table gives the number of them and that of their pupils in the years 1927-1931.

Year	Schools	Pupils	Blind	Deaf & Dumb
1931	125	8,137	4,306	3,831
1930	122	7,728	4,088	3,640
1929	119	7,232	3,768	3,464
1928	118	6,643	3,475	3,168
1927	117	6,405	3,412	2,993

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

The following table gives the number of miscellaneous schools and that of their pupils in the years 1927-1931 :

Year	Schools	Pupils
1931	1,932	217,257
1930	1,879	228,512
1929	1,795	227,104
1928	1,721	224,890
1927	1,724	234,054

Since the establishment of miscellaneous schools is left to the discretion of the founders, there can be no uniformity as to the courses and subjects of study. Some aim at simple and quick completion, while some keep high standards and their work is equivalent to or even higher than that of colleges mentioned in the foregoing passages. Some, again, resemble the middle school, the girls' high school, or the technical school. Among miscellaneous schools, there are not a few which are to be highly estimated as educational institutions in their ideals and new methods of education. Many of the Christian schools are included among them.

The following table gives the number of miscellaneous schools and that of their pupils and students in March, 1931 :

	Schools	Pupils
Those resembling the Elementary School	290	24,313
" " Middle School	85	17,286
" " Girls' High School	69	16,827
" " College	12	1,109
" " Technical School	76	19,177
Others	1,400	138,545
Total	1,932	217,257

Training of Teachers

The Japanese Government, alive to the necessity of having a large supply of capable teachers, has spared no efforts in the completion of organs for their training. To give an outline of the present system, Hokkaido and the prefectures are called upon to establish and maintain at least one normal school each, and an institution for the training of business continuation school teachers when circumstances make

it necessary, a responsibility which is also imposed on the cities. The Government itself undertakes the training of teachers of normal schools, middle schools, girls' high schools and technical schools by establishing and maintaining higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for the training of teachers, etc., and the students of these schools are given scholarships, covering part of their expenses, either by the Government or by the local public bodies. Moreover, such of the students of universities, colleges and the like as intend to become teachers, receive aid out of public funds or may be exempted from the payment of fees. Persons who have proved themselves deserving extended aid are chosen for studying abroad in order that they may be better qualified to teach higher arts and sciences.

The following table gives the number of schools for training teachers and that of their students in the years 1927-1931 :

Year	Schools[1]	Students
1931	175	49,226
1930	178	53,308
1929	174	54,983
1928	173	55,112
1927	170	54,139

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

A normal school consists of the regular and the post-graduate courses, the former is divided into the first and second sections. The course of study of the first section extends over five years and it takes in the graduates of higher elementary schools of a two years' course or persons of over 14 years of age who have similar attainments. The course of study of the second section runs for two years and it takes in graduates of middle schools, girls' high schools and persons of similar scholastic attainments.

The following table gives the number of normal schools and that of their students in the years 1927-1931 :

Year	Schools	Students
1931	105	43,852
1930	105	47,444
1929	104	48,930
1928	102	49,394
1927	102	48,647

Organs for Training Teachers for Secondary Education As organs for training the teachers of secondary education, there are the higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for training teachers, the training course in drawing of the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts and the training course, grade A of the Tokyo Academy of Music. The systems differ more or less with the schools or the main subjects taught, but their entrance requirements are, generally speaking, the completion of middle school, girls' high school and normal school, or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments, and their courses extend over four, three or two years, with additional post-graduate and special investigation courses.

The following table gives the number of the schools for the training of secondary school teachers and that of their students in the years 1927-1931 :

1 Note: There are 2 colleges and their students are included in this as well as in the number of the table on colleges.

Year	Schools	Students
1931	20	3,777
1930	22	4,189
1929	21	4,432
1928	21	4,050
1927	20	3,991

In addition to the foregoing, teachers' certificates are issued without examination to graduates of high grade schools both in Japan and in other countries in order to meet the deficiency in the supply of secondary school teachers. The main conditions are that the schools in question must be equal to or higher than the higher normal schools of Japan in entrance requirements and in curricula.

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

The following table gives the number of such institutes and that of their students in the years 1927-1931 :

Year	Agricultural		Technical		Commercial		Total	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
1931	1	117	4	151	1	97	6	365
1930	1	120	4	157	1	96	6	373
1929	1	80	2	162	1	90	4	341
1928	1	119	2	155	1	93	4	367
1927	1	115	2	156	1	96	4	367

As further means of providing business school teachers, certificates are issued without examination to graduates of certain specified schools.

Organs for Training Teachers of Business Continuation Schools For this purpose there are institutes which Hokkaido, the prefectures and cities alone are authorized to establish. They are of one or two year course above the secondary education. The following table shows the number of these institutes and that of their students since the system was introduced in 1927 :

Year	Institutes	Students
1931	44	1,232
1930	45	1,299
1929	45	1,280
1928	46	1,301
1927	44	1,196

Training of High-grade Professors No particular schools are instituted for the training of high-grade teachers. Scholarships, however, are given to students of the post-graduate courses of higher normal schools for training such professors. Further, persons of adequate career and experience are sent to foreign countries for a further prosecution of studies, their expenses being met by the Government. The following are figures concerning such persons :

Year	Students abroad	Year	Students abroad
1931	219	1928	437
1930	361	1927	405
1929	428		

As a further means of supplying higher grade professors, a professor's licence is granted to persons holding doctor's degrees and those who have graduated from universities and colleges.

Training of Special School Teachers and Teachers of Kindergartens Teachers for the blind and the deaf and dumb are trained in the training courses in the Tokyo School for

the Blind and the Tokyo School for the Deaf and Dumb. The teachers of kindergartens are trained in the training courses provided in women's normal schools, special courses in the higher normal schools for women and in the special institutions for the purpose established by private bodies.

Teacher's Certificate Given by Examination Persons who have similar scholastic attainments with the graduates of the schools mentioned above, may ask for an examination to get a teacher's licence. They have to undergo a strict examination by the special examination committees of the Educational Department.

Physical Education and School Hygiene

With a view to promoting the rational development of the young and to encourage and further the spread of gymnastics, games and athletic sports, both eastern and western, there was established in 1924 a national Institute for Research in Physical Training, where research work is now in active progress.

For school hygiene, special attention is paid to buildings and equipments, and efforts are being made to improve and strengthen the physical constitution of pupils and students by employing school physicians, dentists and nurses, by taking measures for the prevention of infectious diseases in schools, by making plans for open-air schools, vacation colonies, school feeding, school clinics and the like.

For the administrative organs responsible for the work referred to, Hokkaido and prefectures have school hygienic experts and directors of physical training, while the Department of Education has the Section of Physical Training, Supervisors of School Hygiene and the Institute for Research in Physical Training. In addition, there are provided in the Educational Department a School Hygiene Investigation Committee and a Physical Training Investigation Council, which investigate and make researches in important questions submitted to them by the Minister of Education.

Social Education

For the diffusion and development of social education there has been created a Bureau of Social Education in the Department of Education, and a certain number of supervisors of social education are appointed in the Department, and directors of the same in the local governments.

Adult Education For the benefit of those adults who have had little or no chance to receive regular education, the Department has requested some of the schools under its direct control or under that of the local governments to start a series of lectures. Most of the adults who are gathered to these lectures are labourers or farmers, and fuller reference to this is made in the chapter on labour.

Libraries The spread of libraries in Japan has been rather slow because of many reasons, but the place of the library in social education has been understood more and more clearly with the advancement of national and international life in recent years. The Government, therefore, established a national library at Ueno, Tokyo, and at the same time has given encouragement to local public bodies for establishing their own libraries by granting subsidies to them. It also tries to help them by holding short period courses for training capable librarians. The results of these efforts has been a notable

progress in libraries, as may be observed in the following table:

Year	Libraries	Readers (units of 1,000)	Number of Libraries per 1,000 Square miles
1931	4,609	23,355	30.8
1930	4,553	22,835	30.4
1929	4,490	22,847	30.0
1928	4,306	22,164	28.8
1927	4,337	20,264	26.0

Cultural Work In order to promote the national spirit, as well as to effect the betterment of manners and mode of living, the Department of Education has taken up the task of furthering cultural work by giving encouragement to the activities of bodies and individual persons connected generally with national education and social enlightenment. Special efforts are being made to attain the object in view by establishing institutions and organs of various kinds, thus forming a cultural network throughout the country.

Young Men's Training Institutes A young men's training institute is designed to give mental and physical culture to young men with a view to maintaining and improving national standards. These institutions which are found all over Japan, side by side with the business continuation schools, are now reaping a good result. The following are the figures for such institutes and their pupils in the years 1927-1931.

Year	Training Institutes	Students
1931	15,617	794,171
1930	15,687	806,454
1929	15,766	843,702
1928	15,753	883,607
1927	15,588	891,555

Young Men's and Young Women's Associations With the object of giving mental and moral culture to those young men and women who are no longer cared for in the schools, the organization of young men's and young women's associations has been encouraged so that there is at present hardly any city, town, or village where they are not established. These associations work, on the whole, according to the principle of self-government, quite different from the foregoing Training Institutes, and along the lines which they choose in view of the circumstances peculiar to themselves.

The following table shows the number of young men's and young women's associations and that of their members in the years 1927-1931:

Year	Y.M.A.	Members	Y.W.A.	Members
1931	15,202	2,495,709	13,225	1,567,123
1930	15,144	2,558,192	13,322	1,550,460
1929	15,295	2,534,326	13,043	1,514,459
1928	15,210	2,595,422	12,647	1,477,863
1927	14,915	2,570,455	10,851	1,241,282

Boy Scouts and Girl Guides The boy scout movement, which is also an important item in the social education of the young, has made much progress since the organization of the Japan Federation of Boy Scouts in 1922. The President of the Federation was the late Count Shimpei Goto, and its head office was located in the Department of Education building. The boy scouts which are affiliated with the Federation are scattered all over the Empire except 4 prefectures in Japan proper and the South Sea Mandated Islands. In 1925, the Marine Branch was established and it owns a training-ship.

The number of boy scout organizations and that of the members were 1,081 and 77,976 respectively on Oct. 1, 1932. The Federation is led by Count Yoshinori Futara at present.

The girl guide movement was first introduced into Japan in 1920. The earliest organizations appeared in

Tokyo and Morioka prefecture, and the movement gradually spread over different parts of the country, although it has not yet achieved such progress as the boy scout movement, having only 27 guides with about 300 girls in 1931.

Educational Expenditure

Education in Japan, as previously mentioned, is principally controlled by the State, though it is partly delegated to local public bodies and partly carried on by private individuals or organizations by permission of the Government, and the expenditure incurred is met from these three different financial sources.

Part of the educational expenses of local public bodies, however, is met by the State Treasury in order that the teachers may be sufficiently paid and the burdens on the ratepayers may not be too heavy. Formerly the sum of ¥10,000,000 was yearly defrayed for this purpose, but it has been recently increased to ¥75,000,000 or more, and destitute municipalities receive special consideration in the apportionment of the grant.

Local government are required to pay additional salaries at certain rates for long service to the teachers of schools for which they are directly responsible. To meet part of these expenditures, the Government allocates a sum of money fixed annually in the National Budget and divides it among Hokkaido and the prefectures in proportion to the number of teachers. In cases where a city, town or a village undertakes to pay for residences of elementary school teachers, the higher local body is required to share part of the expense.

No investigation having been made, by any authoritative body, as to the amount of private money spent on education, the figures given in the following tables refer only to the amounts expended by the Government and local public bodies. In recent years educational undertakings have been greatly extended and the treatment of teachers considerably improved in accordance with the post-war programme of the country, and this has caused the educational expenditures to swell in a remarkable degree. The following table shows the total governmental and public educational expenditures during the years 1927-1931 :

Year	State Treasury	Prefectures	Cities	Towns and Villages	School Associations	Total
1931	¥ 143,320,002	111,298,987	81,642,411	213,334,298	71,733	549,667,431[1]
1930	144,373,338	114,502,616	96,687,293	235,899,221	79,182	591,542,150
1929	134,902,101	113,295,483	101,832,676	256,132,052	61,740	606,224,052
1928	139,150,682	111,887,548	106,493,406	241,213,420	138,955	598,884,011
1927	131,764,727	109,151,851	100,195,128	231,682,461	46,702	573,040,869

The above table does not include the amounts expended on local educational administration.

In order to show the total expenditures, both governmental and local, the year 1930-31 is taken and full details of the items of expenditures are shown :

GOVERNMENTAL EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITUE[2]

Administration	¥ 8,115,06
Elementary education	92,433,809

1 Note: The figures refer to the settled accounts of the fiscal years. For instance, the year 1931 means the fiscal year April, 1930—March, 1931.

2 Note: The grants allowed by the State Treasury to local public bodies, which amounted to ¥ 85,000,000 is not included.

Secondary education	1,469,975	Blind, Deaf and Dumb education	194,961
Normal education	805,108	Imperial Library	127,647
Business education	2,002,227	Miscellaneous	7,461,816
Universities & Colleges	35,708,363	Total	143,320,002

PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURES BORNE BY LOCAL PUBLIC BODIES

Kind of Education	Hokkaido & Prefectures	Cities	Towns & Villages	School Associations of Municipalities	Total
Elementary Schools	—	¥65,337,598	185,255,964	16,124	250,609,686
Normal Schools	13,462,375	—	—	—	13,462,375
Middle Schools	23,782,689	329,698	255,607	50,433	24,388,427
Girls' High Schools	15,976,788	2,176,926	2,589,102	—	20,742,815
Colleges	799,424	—	—	—	799,424
Universities	3,916,476	492,299	—	—	4,408,775
Industrial Colleges	384,620	181,356	—	—	565,976
Business Schools	17,596,738	7,733,242	15,008,087	3,015	40,341,082
Teachers' Training Schools	445,473	—	—	—	445,473
Blind Schools	626,403	138,800	12	—	765,215
Deaf and Dumb Schools	94,635	102,016	—	—	196,651
Miscellaneous Schools	41,683	267,428	102,165	—	411,276
Young Men's Training Institutes	—	974,963	4,293,550	—	5,268,513
Kindergartens	—	975,547	491,971	—	1,467,518
Libraries	669,792	661,200	304,135	—	1,635,127
Miscellaneous	33,501,891	2,271,338	5,063,706	2,161	40,839,096
Total	111,298,987	81,642,411	213,334,298	71,733	406,347,429

Other Schools

There are schools in Japan proper which do not come under the control of the Educational Department, and they have been excluded from the foregoing sections. But to complete the chapter on education we cannot pass without some mention of them. Fuller explanations may also be found in other chapters.

Peers' Schools They belong to the Department of the Imperial Household, and the purpose of their establishment is the education of the nobility, but admission to them is by no means restricted to children of titled families. They are called the Gakushu-in and Joshi (woman) Gakushu-in. The former is for boys and is composed of three departments, namely, elementary, middle school, and college. At the end of 1931, it had 94 teachers and 904 pupils. The latter is composed of two departments, namely, high school and college. At the end of 1931, it had 79 teachers and 731 pupils.

Two Special Schools The Department of Foreign Affairs has two schools ; one is the To-a Dobun Shoin (Tung Wen College) in Shanghai and the other the Russo-Japanese Association School at Harbin.

The Jingu-kogakkan This was established by the Home Department and is a Shinto seminary.

The Fisheries Institute This is under the Department of Agriculture and Forestry.

In the Territories, schools are under the control of the Territorial Governments, as a matter of course, and full descriptions of them may be found in the chapters on Territories. However, a list of the various universities and colleges is here appended.

CHOSEN
- Keijo (Seoul) Imperial University
- Keijo Imperial University Preparatory School
- Keijo Law College

Keijo Medical College
Keijo Technical College
Suigen Agricultural and Forestry College
Keijo Commercial College
Eight private colleges
TAIWAN
Taihoku Imperial University
Taihoku College
Four other colleges
KWANTUNG
Ryojun (Port Arthur) Technical University
Preparatory College for the same
Four private colleges

Foreign Teachers and Students

The number of teachers and professors from Western countries engaged by Japanese schools or sent by Christian denominations in foreign lands in recent years was on the increase, and the fact shows that Japan and the Japanese are still eager to learn from the West. It may be safely said that the relations between Japan and the Western nations are becoming more intimate with the advancement of Japanese civilization and the international spirit of the people at large. The number of foreign students is also on the increase, the majority being young men from China. The following table does not include the last two years, but the Manchurian problem has not affected their stay in Japan to any material degree. The number of foreign teachers and students at the end of March, 1931, was as follows:

SCHOOLS	Teachers male	Teachers female	Total	Pupils & Students male	Pupils & Students female	Total
Elementary	—	3	3	152	102	254
Higher Normal	5	—	5	172	—	172
Woman's Higher Normal	—	1	1	—	35	35
Teachers' Training	3	—	3	—	—	—
Middle Schools	46	12	58	6	—	6
Girls' High Schools	3	49	52	—	2	2
College and Higher Schools	188	64	252	678	82	760
Universities	131	2	133	705	26	731
Business Colleges	65	—	65	148	—	148
Business Schools	39	16	55	6	—	6
Business Continuation Schools	—	—	—	3	—	3
Miscellaneous	118	195	313	1,991	875	2,866
Total	598	342	940	3,861	1,122	4,983

The comparison for the five years, 1927-1931, is as follows:

Year	Teachers	Students
1931	940	4,983
1930	871	3,588
1929	902	3,252
1928	809	2,588
1927	810	1,750

Sundry Problems

Co-education In Japan, generally speaking co-education is allowed only in the elementary schools. In the schools for secondary education it is almost entirely prohibited, except in some business schools. As regards higher education, some Government Universities allow young ladies to be special students, while many private universities and colleges take them in the classes with boys. In spite of these few exceptions, it can hardly be said that women are allowed to become regular students of universities. As the statistic tables show, there are many colleges established for women, but no regular university. For the realization of co-education in all schools, the general standard of female education must be raised to the same level as that of male education. The common trend of educational ideas is perhaps in favour of the gradual introduction of co-education, but there is still strong antagonism to it, prompted chiefly by anxiety regarding sex problems which it may involve. The leading woman's associations and circles, however, are making efforts to get all the universities and colleges open to female students as soon as possible.

Narrow Gates of Admission Elementary education is compulsory as mentioned above, and there is no difficulty in getting admittance to the schools, for the local municipalities have to provide as many classes and schools as are needed for the number of school-age children. But when we read the foregoing tables on the number of students desiring secondary education and higher education, there is a great gap between the number of applicants and that of entrants or those who have been allowed to enter the schools by examination. The entrance percentage is about 65% in the middle schools, 17% in the higher schools, 42% in universities and 37% in colleges (men only). And it has become a matter of common knowledge that there is a great difficulty in entering schools for the Japanese boys and girls; every year the fact is commented on and deplored in the newspapers, but it ought not to be unduly exaggerated, for the truth is that the difficulty is not so much in gaining admission to schools in general, as in entering the one which happens to be the student's first choice.

Graduates and Entrants It is generally the case that most boys and girls send in application papers to several schools at once, and therefore it may be reckoned that the total number of applications made is at least double that of the actual applicants. As a matter of fact, there is never very much difference between the number of graduates of the lower schools and that of entrants to the higher schools in the same year. If for the sake of convenience we consider the number of boys only, the number of ordinary elementary school graduates in March, 1930, was about 640,000 and the total number of entrants to secondary educational institutions in April of the same year was about 478,000, that is, 74.7% went on to take secondary education; so it may be said that almost all the boys who wished to enter a secondary school got admittance thereto.

Even for the middle school graduates the entrance-gates to higher seats of learning are not so narrow as it is supposed. The number of middle school graduates in March, 1930, was 56,471, and the higher educational institutions received 51,622 boys in April of the same year. Some of the other secondary school graduates must be included in the number of these entrants, but, at the same time, it is pretty sure that not all the middle school graduates advance to higher education; a considerable portion of them either stay at home or directly enter practical life on graduation. Again, a number of boys who were left behind in the previous years has to be taken into consideration. It may be inferred from this that higher education has sufficient capacity to receive almost all the secondary school graduates who wish to take it up.

Universities In the case of university education, the gate of admittance is much wider. Take the relation between the Higher Schools, which are really preparatory schools for universities, and the Imperial and Governmental Universities. The foregoing table of statistics on universities shows that the number of applicants was 21,230 and that of entrants 8,840, in April, 1930. But the number of regular students was a lit-

tle smaller; 12,112 of the total applicants were graduates of colleges and higher schools and 7,400 of them gained admittance. Now, in March of the same year, there were 5,299 boys graduated from higher schools, and the number of entrants to the Imperial and Governmental Universities exceeds this by 2,101. These must have contained some of those who tried the examination for the second time, as well as the graduates of other colleges.

Yet, the fact remains incontestable that with regard to the best schools, the schools whose graduates are benefited by special privileges, the schools whose graduates can get easier access to a better employment on graduation, and the schools the number of which is small in the same line of study, it is still a difficult matter to gain entrance, no matter how many new schools may be established year after year.

Night Schools There are many kinds of night schools for those who have no time or opportunity for further study by day. Especially a need was felt for night schools of middle school grade and the Government has given recognition as such, in 1932, to the night schools which are mostly attached to public middle schools. Their course of study extends over 5 years in cases where they admit ordinary elementary school graduates and over 4 years where they admit higher elementary school graduates. Subjects of study are similar to those of the day middle school, "A" classification, except that "practical work" may be omitted and the hours of drill in gymnastics may be lessened. The establishment of a five-year-course business night school has been permitted also.

Medical Colleges and Educational Department The financial depression of the past few years has made its mark upon the schools, in common with other things and many private schools and colleges have been hard put to it for their own support. Rumours spread that some colleges in the larger cities were raising funds by illegal means.

On April 21 and 26, 1932, the officials of the Educational Department made inspection of 15 medical and dentistry colleges and reported some undesirable doings in 12 of them. Some sympathy was felt for these schools, in that they needed to spend far more for expensive equipment than similar schools of law or literature, and the Minister of Education did not deal with them severely, but warnings were given to their boards of trustees and presidents with regard to improvement in their future procedure.

Difficult Employment Another effect of the financial depression showed itself in the difficulty that the school graduates of 1932 had in finding employment. According to the report of the Central Employment Exchange on conditions in May, the result of investigation in 449 business schools, colleges and universities, only 15,972 out of 52,194 graduates who wanted employment succeeded in getting any. Even normal school and higher normal school graduates are left unemployed to a considerable extent. The surplus of marine workers resulted in a request among the unemployed for a temporary closing of the existing navigation schools.

But recently a new outlet for these school graduates has opened in Manchoukuo, and some 160 graduates of universities were sent there in May.

Student Control In view of the increase of communistic ideas among students and middle school boys a Bureau of Student Control has been established in the Department of Education.

According to the report of the Minister of Justice to the Cabinet, 2,499 students of various ages have been indicted on charges of communism during the four years, April, 1928—March, 1933. There have been several hundreds of students who have been arrested temporarily, and the classification of the total number according to the kinds of schools is as follows :

Governmental school students	2,221
Public school students	351
Private school students	726
Total	3,298

The new Bureau, therefore, is busily at work, on the one hand, to keep in constant touch with all the schools, from universities down to elementary schools, where there are many so-called "red" teachers, and on the other to improve the measures necessary for the instruction and guidance of the students. It tries to bring about or revive a closer relation between the teacher and the taught, and takes care to impart to students sound and sane knowledge and information on problems of thought as viewed from different angles, and to promote the welfare and happiness of the students in schools, relieving them where necessary from distress and the effects of adverse circumstances. No small pains are taken, also, in fostering the spirit of independence among them by encouraging student bodies formed for purposes of research and culture, mental and moral.

CHAPTER XXX

RELIGION

General Survey

From prehistoric ages Japan has had an indigenous cult which is now known as Shinto. Confucianism and Buddhism were introduced through Korea and China later, and Christianity more recently still. Islam, however, never gained a footing on her soil, though its literature has been introduced to some slight extent.

Shintoism has had nothing to do with the thought and life of the people, apart from its relations with the functions of the guardian deities of the nation and communities. It resembles the primitive Greek or Roman cults, but is much simpler and purer, both as regards the nature of its deities and the motives of its worshippers. It is now divided into two, namely, national Shintoism, which is represented by the shrines, and sectarian Shintoism, which developed towards the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

Confucianism is rather a code of moral precepts than a religion, except in that it teaches some vague ideas regarding a heavenly God. In the realm of moral culture it has exerted great influence on the minds of the Japanese people and on their principles of daily life; that influence being very noticeable in the Imperial Rescript on Education of the Emperor Meiji. Further mention of Confucianism will be omitted here because it has no meaning as a religious cult.

Buddhism has had still greater influence on all phases of Japanese life. Its fatalism has had a retarding effect on the material progress of the Japanese as with other Oriental nations, but has induced a habit of dauntless composure in their behaviour, and its broad philanthropy gave rise to a spirit of mutual help among the people, subduing egoism or individualism. Its philosophical literature fed the national thought, while its fine art has left many masterpieces enriching the cultural life of the Japanese. This cult is still the most powerful among religions in Japan.

Christianity has made valuable contributions toward the civilization of Japan with its world-wide nature and positive teachings on human life. The number of believers is comparatively small, but its influence on the people's thought and morals is said to be even greater than that of Buddhism. It has raised Japan's moral standards, waging war against licensed prostitution, the low position of women, drinking and smoking, and polygamy as practised in a certain section of society. It has still to amalgamate itself with the life of the people in order to exert great influence upon them, but its future is hopeful.

Shinto Shrines

Most Shinto shrines are supervised by the Shrine Bureau of the Home Department, which consists of one chief official and 64 minor officials. The budget of the Bureau for the fiscal year 1933-1934 is as follows:

Running expenses	
Isé Great Shrine	¥ 230,000
Other national shrines	750,000
Ceremonies and rituals	7,105
Soldiers' shrines	14,255
Total	1,001,360
Incidental expenses	
Repairs	¥ 258,000
Education of priests	5,200
Investigation	25,174
Reconstruction	50,000
Total	338,374
Sum total	1,339,734

The Isé Great Shrine is the most honoured of all the shrines as the first national shrine. The Goddess enshrined in it is Amaterasu-Omikami, which may be translated as Heaven-Shining-Great-God. According to the Japanese mythology, Amaterasu-Omikami sent down her grandson to the Nippon Islands to rule the people by the Kingly Way, giving him the Three Sacred Treasures, which have been handed down even to the present Emperor as the sacred symbols of the Imperial Throne (see Appendix, The Constitution of Japan; The Imperial Household Law Article X; and Chapter III). In the Great Shrine and appendant shrines more than 10 gods, who represent the Imperial ancestors or personify natural powers, are installed beside the principal Goddess.

The name of the Shrine comes from its location in Isé province or more accurately on the Isuzu river, city of Yamada, Miyé prefecture. The whole sacred area of the Great Shrine included 53,612.5 tan (a "tan" corresponds to about 0.245 acre) in 1932.

About 87 priests are attending it under a chief priest. There are established a seminary for the education of priests, a police station, two museums, and a library in connection with the shrine.

The budget for the fiscal year 1932-1933 was ¥1,457,044, its fund amounting to ¥2,026,432.

According to the report of the Shrine Bureau, the Home Department, the number of other shrines in 1932 was as follows:

Governmental and national shrines (in the whole Empire)	198
Prefectural and village shrines (in Japan proper)	49,454
Private shrines (in Japan proper)	61,500
Soldiers' shrines (in Japan proper)	123

The number of private shrines in Japan proper has been steadily decreasing since 1889, lessening from 136,783 in that year to 61,500 in 1932. There were many too superstitious and barbarous ones among them and the decrease speaks of the healthy progress of the religious ideas of the people and the radical policy of the government.

The total area of the sacred campus of these shrines (not including soldiers' shrines) covered 76,948,646 tsubo, 65,721,332 of it being government property.

The settled accounts of the 198 governmental and national shrines in the fiscal year 1931-1932 were as follows:

Income (yen)	Disbursement	Balance
3,699,601	3,409,045	290,556

In the income, there is included the contributions of worshippers amounting to ¥2,068,265. There were 11 shrines at which the contributions amounted to over ¥50,000. The sum total of the different kinds of fund possessed by these shrines amounted to ¥11,777,045 in the same fiscal year.

The total number of priests in Japan proper at the end of the year 1931 was 15,131.

For the education of priests there are one seminary of college grade at Isé as mentioned above, a department in Kokugakuin (Japanese literature) College of junior college grade, a middle school grade seminary affixed to the one at Isé, and 26 smaller places for giving a course of study, the total number of students being not more than 2,100.

It may be said, therefore, that the education of Shinto priests is much lower than that of Buddhist priests or Christian pastors.

Sectarian Shintoism

Shinto Sect This sect is called by the general name given to the national cult when by this name the various Shinto branches were known. The principal ideas of the sect are to develop the Great Way of the Gods, and to propagate the national cult indigenous to the people of this country. Its believers and devotees consider it their most important duty to cultivate reverence for the gods, cherish the spirit of patriotism, elucidate Heavenly Reason and Humanity, pay homage to the Emperor, and observe all the Imperial ordinances.

Kurozumi Sect This was founded by Munetada Kurozumi (1780-1850), who was born at a small village of Okayama prefecture. His main idea was to inhale, while contemplating the Goddess Amaterasu-Omikami, the energy of the sun, and thereby to fill up the heart with satisfaction and complaisance. He teaches to avoid the following seven evils, which are against the will of the gods: (1) to be faithless to the country of the gods in which one was born; (2) to get angry and to worry over things; (3) to be arrogant and spiteful; (4) to entertain evil desires from seeing others do evil; (5) to neglect one's household affairs while in good health; (6) not to have sincerity even when one is entering upon the path of sincerity; and (7) not to accept things gratefully for which one ought to be grateful every day.

Shinto-Shusei Sect Kunimitsu Nitta (1829-1902), who was born in the province of Awa, was the founder of this sect. According to its tenets, the great source of the Way issues from the three gods: Amenominakanushi-no-kami, Takamimusubi-no-kami, and Kamimusubi-no-kami. All human beings get their spirits originally from these gods, and our spirits, which are essentially as pure and as good even as the gods themselves, must be lovingly cherished and preserved. In order to do this, a doctrine is needed, which will keep our spirits under discipline, that is, well in order and in perfection.

Taisha Sect This was revived through the efforts of Sompuku Sengé (1845-1918), and teaches to revere and observe the divine will of the God Okuninushi, whose ideas of administration and spirituality constitute the Great Way of the Gods. When this is elucidated and the heavenly nature of the people is preserved, one's duty to the state is fulfilled, and all will be good, law-abiding citizens.

Fuso Sect The founder was Takekuni Fujiwara (1541-1646), and the one who furthered it was Han Shishino. Its chief doctrine is to worship the spiritual virtues of the three gods. Amenominakanushi-no-kami, Takamimusubi-no-kami, and Kamimusubi-no-kami.

Taisei Sect This was founded by Shosai Hirayama (1815-'90). The principal point of his teaching is to enhance the Great Way of the Gods. Its tenets are: (1) to worship the heavenly gods and the earthly gods and pay homage to the Imperial Sanctuary as well as to the august spirits of the successive Emperors; (2) to revere the divine ordinances infinite as heaven and earth, to extend the national principle of this country; (3) to illustrate in practice the moral codes ordered by heaven; (4) to discipline oneself in morality and truth, to fix the basis of faith wherein one gains peace of mind; (5) to abide in the One Truth which unifies the two realms of the Manifested and the Hidden, to get enlightenment on the true meaning of life and death; (6) to undertake scientific investigations and encourage various enterprises; and (7) as regards the divine rites and ceremonial affairs, to follow the traditional standards which have been bequeathed by the successive courts.

Jikko Sect This sect, founded by Hanamori Shibata (1809-'90), makes it its principal teaching to promulgate the Great Way of the Gods, which is to be put into practice in our everyday life. We read in its tenets: (1) to enhance the Great Way of the Gods; (2) to study the ceremonial codes of this Divine Land; and (3) to spread the doctrine original to this country.

Shinshu Sect The founder of this sect was Masamochi Yoshimura (1839-1916) of Mimasaka province. He teaches to worship the heavenly gods and the earthly gods, to practise the divine rites according to the ceremonial codes of the successive courts as well as according to the formulas bequeathed by the family of Onakatomi, and to enhance the Great Way of the Gods.

Ontaké Sect Its teachings chiefly consist in following the Perfect Way of the Gods, enhancing the great principles of reverence to the gods, honour to the Emperor, and patriotism, and engaging in mission work in accordance with the laws of the state. The chief gods to whom worship is offered are Kunitokodachi-no-mikoto, Onamuchi-no-mikoto, and Sukunahikona-no-mikoto, who are called the Great Gods of Ontaké. Their spirits are believed to have been incorporated in Mount Ontaké, which means literally the "honourable mountain," on which the Gods taught mankind the arts of medicine and magic. The origin of the sect is considered to lie in this legend.

Misogi Sect The Misogi Sect, or the Sect of Water Purification, was founded by Masakané Inouyé (1790-1849) of Isé province. This sect is an extension of the Shinto doctrine which teaches purification and keeping evils away. These two practices are divine deeds which originated with the Gods Izanagi and Susano-o-no-mikoto.

Shinri Sect The Shinri Sect, or the Sect of the Reasons of the Gods, was founded by Tsunehiko Sano (1834-1906). In his exposition of the ancestral doctrine, he urges us to honour the spirits of all the heavenly gods and the natural reason inherent in all things, and thereby to find the way to faith.

Konko Sect The founder of this sect was a farmer called Bunjiro Kawaté (1814-1883) who became, while alive, Daijin Konko, or the Great God of Golden Lustre by the divine order of the heavenly god he believed in. His main teachings are to pay homage to the God Konjin of north-east, to elucidate the great principles of heaven and earth, to cherish patriotism, and to propagate the idea of oneness of this and the other world, and faith in the reason of life and death.

Tenri Sect This sect, which means the Sect of Heavenly Reasons, was founded by a woman called Miki Nakayama (1798-1887) of Yamato province. She teaches that the gods must be reverenced, patriotism encouraged, Heavenly Reason and Humanity elucidated, the Emperor honoured, and the Imperial ordinances obeyed. It lays great emphasis on practical discipline, and tells us that eight forms of dust must be swept away, which are: (1) grudging; (2) desires; (3) impure attachment; (4)

hatred; (5) enmity; (6) anger; (7) covetousness; and (8) arrogance.

Oomoto Sect Oomoto-kyo was founded by a woman, Nao Deguchi, in 1892. She was born in 1836 in a little town of Fukuchi-yama, Kyoto prefecture. It is said that this woman was often possessed by God since 1892, and her principles and teachings were left in "O-Fudé-saki" or sacred creeds written by her own Japanese pen in the dark through a revelation in trance, and were further expounded by Onisaburo Deguchi, whom the believers call "Master." The word "Oomoto" means the "great basis" or "foundation" of the universe. Its four mottoes are: (1) purification of mind and body, (2) unity of social classes, (3) optimism, trusting in God's plan, and (4) progress or improvement of the world. The gist of its teaching is as follows: Complete harmony among men must be the condition for attaining peace and happiness. The bringing about of world union will have to be done by spiritual means and not by political or military methods. Therefore all earnest believers in Christ, Buddha and God the Father should gather together under the holy banner of Peace. It is moreover God's will that his children should unite in one and the same worship. God is the spirit present in everything in the universe and men are the administrators of the world. One of the essentials for attaining a Heavenly Kingdom on earth consists in unselfish toil for the evolution and progress of society. Master Onisaburo Deguchi proposes to realize a new world organization believing in the God, the Heavenly Truth, the Common Way of heavens and earth, and through other diverse means.

This sect is not yet recognized by the Government as a legitimate one, having only a short history of 40 years, and it is hard to get an accurate number of believers. But it has increased to a considerable number especially after its union with some mystic sects in Manchoukuo and China a few years ago, and there are believers among the peoples not only in the Orient, but also in many of European and American countries. According to the report of the head temple which is now located at Kameoka near Ayabé mentioned above, there are 20 large temples, 17 smaller temples, and 1,700 branch offices, with 6,200 preachers altogether. The number of followers of this sect is roughly estimated at 3,000,000.

Buddhism

It was in the thirteenth year of the Emperor Kimmei (552 A.D.) that Buddhism, first founded in India, came over to Japan after passing through China and Korea. The devotion of Prince Shotoku at the time gave a great impetus to its propagation throughout the country. Six schools of Buddhism, that is, Sanron, Hosso, Jojitsu, Kusha, Ritsu, and Kegon were introduced one after another. In the reign of the Emperor Kwammu (782-805 A.D.), Tendai and Shingon flourished. New schools such as Jodo, Zen, Shin, Nichiren and others then gradually developed. Through these long periods of its history, Buddhism further differentiated itself, owing to differences in the exposition of the doctrines and in the methods of propagation, into many sub-sects. Eleven of the principal sects still in existence are Hosso, Kegon, Ritsu, Tendai, Shingon, Yuzunembutsu, Jodo, Shin, Ji, Zen, and Nichiren; and these eleven are sub-divided into fifty-eight branches. Principal teachings of the eleven Buddhist sects follow:

Hosso Sect This sect was introduced into Japan by Dosho (628-700), a Buddhist priest who went to China in 653 and studied the teachings of this sect under Hsuan-tsang. The main teachings of Hosso are that all sentient beings find Salvation in accordance with the difference in character and endowments, of which five yanas are to be distinguished, that the doctrinal system of this sect and its scriptural texts are in full correspondence with the truth, that as all things are merely manifestations of pure consciousness, there are no real ego-souls and no real objects, and that the great fruit of Bodhi and Nirvana is attainable in and through the reality of the Middle Path which is neither existent nor non-existent.

Kegon Sect Roben (688-776) of Todaiji Temple, Nara, the first propagator of this sect in Japan, learned its doctrines from the Chinese Buddhist priest Dokei who visited Japan during the Tempyo era (729-749). The teachings of this sect are based upon the Kegon Sutra, which says that the ultimate reason of Suchness is absolute and infinite; the Ultimate and the Manifested are mutually related and intimately intertwined; each Manifestation too is so thoroughly and interminglingly related to another Manifestation that between the two there is no wall of individual separation. The teachings of the sect are, therefore, called the Perfect Doctrine. Those who, in accordance with the doctrine, understand the mystery of the mute evolution of the spiritual cosmos, and who practise goodness and are guarded in their conduct, are sure to attain Buddhahood and to realize the Ultimate Reason. The head-temple of this Sect is Todaiji in the city of Nara.

The term "Shinnyo", or tathatva, which we have translated "Suchness" in the foregoing, is a very comprehensive word, signifying "truth", "reality", or "the first principle of emptiness". The first character, "Shin", means "that which is true without any admixture of error". The second "Nyo", is the same as is usually translated "like". The two taken together have come to mean "the Absolute Itself". There are three main interpretations of it. The Kegon Sect, as one of these interpretations, identifies the absolute and the relative, the noumenal and the phenomenal, asserting that each separate phenomenon, being endowed with the qualities of the Absolute, has unlimited power to produce other phenomena. The doctrine derived from the Kegon Sutra teaches that even a single particle of dust has the manifold, infinite and absolute virtues of all things in the universe, and that so, if a man observes a certain practice, he is at the same time doing all other religious practices.

Ritsu Sect The Ritsu or the Sect of Moral Discipline ("Vinaya" in Sanskrit) was first propagated in Japan by Ganjin (686-763), a Chinese Buddhist priest, who came to Japan during the Tempyo era (729-749). It obtains its name from the Vinaya-pitaka, according to which its followers strictly regulate their daily conduct. It teaches to observe, as ordered by Buddha, all the precepts ("sila" in Sanskrit) such as the Five Precepts, the Eight Precepts, the Six Novitiate Precepts, the Ten Precepts, or the Two Hundred and Fifty Precepts. Toshodaiji in Nara prefecture is the head-temple of this Sect.

Tendai Sect The founder of this sect was Chisha Daishi (537-597) of the Sui Dynasty.

A Japanese priest Saicho (Denkyo Daishi, 766-822) went over to China

in the year 782 during the Yenryaku era, and studied the principles of Tendai there. On his return to Japan, he became the chief exponent of the sect in this country. The teachings of the Tendai Sect are comprised in two divisions, metaphysics and meditation. It critically systematized in its metaphysical part all the teachings of Sakyamuni, drawing a clear line between what is mere expedient and what really represents the spirit of the founder of Buddhism. As the result Tendai has come to consider Saddharma-pundarika Sutra (that is, The Lotus of Good Law) the doctrine of Sakyamuni, in which the reason of his appearance on earth is truthfully explained. The meditation part consists in applying our minds to all that is taught in the Sutra and realizing it in our daily practical life. Ten grades are distinguished in the practice of meditation, while its main object is to put a stop to disturbing thoughts and to get enlightened on the principles of the four classes of Buddhist doctrines. The ultimate end of all this is the realization of the mysteries of the Pundarika. When you perceive that the Hidden and the Manifest are of one and the same essence and realize that state of mind which is known to the Buddhas only and to nobody else, you have the central teaching of Tendai, that is you have attained the final enlightenment in which the spiritual and the material are thoroughly unified.

They have three sub-sects or branches in this sect, each of them having its own head-temple. They are: (1) the Tendai Branch, whose head-temple, Yenryakuji, is situated in Shiga prefecture; (2) the Jimon Branch, which has its head-temple in Onjoji of Shiga prefecture; and (3) the Shinsei Branch, the head-temple of which is Saikyoji of Shiga prefecture.

Shingon Sect The first exponent of this sect in Japan was Kukai (Kobo Daishi, 773-835), who went over to China soon after Saicho, the Japanese founder of Tendai. According to this sect, there are three fundamental conceptions, which are, Substance, Appearance, and Function. The Six Universals—earth, water, fire, air, the void, and consciousness—are Substances. The four systems of Mandala, that is, Great Mandala, Samaya Mandala, Dharma Mandala, and Karma Mandala, are Appearances. The three Secrets—body, words, and mind—are Functions. The Six Universals are the elemental substances of which all things are constituted. They take Appearances, which, though innumerable, can be classified under four headings. The first is the Great Mandala representing all living beings such as Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, Gods, evil spirits or human beings. The second is the Samaya Mandala which consists in Mudras and symbolic instruments of Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, devas, and spirits. The third is the Dharma Mandala containing all the names or titles of the Buddhas and other beings. The fourth and last one is the Karma Mandala in which are represented all the Functions as well as the outward bodily attitudes assumed by Buddhas and other beings. As the six Universals are infinite and mutually intermingle and are most intimately related, so the four Mandalas are also mutually related and intermingled. That is to say, the Buddhas' four Mandalas are also our own just as they are in the Buddhas, and conversely, our own Mandalas are those of the Buddhas. When the four Mandalas or Appearances are symbolized in our bodies and our fingers are "knotted" after the regular formulas, and the mouth recites the various Mantram and Dharanis, and the mind contemplates the sameness of the mind, Buddha, and all sentient beings, then the Functions of the three Secrets are completed. Let this completion be attained, and we are Buddhas while we are in this material existence.

"Mandala" has a large number of different meanings. It is often applied to concrete objects such as an altar, a platform, a circular plate, a picture, and possibly an image; but it came to have the abstract meaning of "growth", "perfection", or "a complete collection of all virtues."

This sect is sub-divided into eight branches, which are: Koya, Omuro, Daikakuji, Daigo, Toji, Yamashina, Ono, and Senyuji.

Three hundred years after the death of Kukai, the Japanese founder of Shingon Sect, a priest called Kakuban known as Kokyo Daishi (1094-1143), established a new school of Shingon. Under this there are two branches now, one of which is Chizan and other Buzan. The head-temple of the former is Chishaku-in, Kyoto, while that of the latter is Chokokuji (Hasedera), in Nara prefecture.

Yuzu-nembutsu Sect This was founded in 1117 by Ryonin, known as Showo Daishi (1071-1132). Its principal teachings are that as all things are essentially of one nature and intimately related, the virtues of one person must be also those of all others, and conversely; that the merits of the Buddha's name invoked by all earnest hearts will mutually grow, establishing a spiritual communion with one another in a most thorough manner; that therefore the invoking of the Buddha's name and contemplating him, even during this short period of one's earthly life, must bear the great fruit, if it is most sincerely done, of making us all attain to Buddhahood through the perfection of infinite merits.

The head-temple of this sect is Dainembutsuji of Osaka prefecture.

Jodo Sect The founder of this sect was Genku, known as Yenko Daishi or Honen, (1133-1212), and it was established in 1174. The basis of the doctrines of the Jodo Sect is laid upon the original prayers of Amitabha Buddha. Being convinced of the general sinfulness of human nature, which makes us incapable of enduring all the painful process of self-discipline and self-perfection, Jodo teaches us to throw all our reliance upon the strength of the original prayers of Amitabha Buddha. When we thus, absolutely believing in him, invoke his name with all the sincerity of the heart, we shall be born in future in his Pure Land. The head-temple, Chion-in, is in Kyoto.

One of Genku's disciples, called Shoku (1176-1247), established a new separate school at Nishiyama, which is known as the Seizan Branch of Jodo. This branch is again subdivided into three: (1) Zenrinji, its head-temple bearing the same title is in Kyoto prefecture; (2) Komyoji; and (3) Fukakusa, Seigwanji, Kyoto, is its head-temple.

Shin Sect Shinran (1173-1262), who is known as Kenshin Daishi, founded the Shin Sect. He was a disciple of Genku, and the main doctrines do not vary so very much from those of his master except in this: that we, the ignorant, have no real existence, and however strenuously we may exert ourselves in mind and body, we have no "causal germ" in us which will develop into Buddhahood to make our rebirth in the Pure Land possible. The original prayers of Amitabha in which the invocation of the Buddha's name is highly recommended, testify that the

causal germ of Buddhahood, by virtue of the efficiency of the prayers, will be planted in us, which means that all that is necessary for us to be reborn in the Pure Land of Amitabha is now sufficient and fulfilled.

There are at present ten branches of the Shin Sect: Hongwanji, Otani, Bukkoji, Takata, Kibé, Kosho, Idzumoji, Yamamoto, Seishoji, and Sammonto.

Ji Sect This was first promulgated by Ippen (1239-1289). The principal ideas of the sect are: Life is a frail and impermanent thing, and as every moment of it flits away, every act of ours must be regarded as the last one on earth. When, perceiving the truth of this fact, we do not neglect in every thought of ours to invoke the name of the Amitabha Buddha, we shall surely reach the final blissful state of Buddhahood.

The head-temple, Shojokoji, is in Kanagawa prefecture.

Zen Sect Under this name three Sects are comprised: Rinzai, Soto, and Obaku.

The Rinzai Sect of Zen was first taught by Yeisai (1140-1215) who came back from China in 1192. Soto finds its first Japanese exponent in Dogen (known as Joyo Daishi, 1199-1253) who studied zen in China during the Sung dynasty and returned to Japan in 1234. Obaku was introduced to Japan by a naturalized Chinese priest Yin-gen (1592-1673) in 1653.

The Zen Sect teaches the doctrine which is known only to the Buddhas and the transmission of which takes place only from one mind to another. It transcends logic and objective understanding. We do not have to purify ourselves from sins, nor is it necessary to seek after supreme knowledge. The ultimate truth is not in mere learning, thinking, or in discipline. It is above doctrines, meritorious deeds, and also above any special attainment. Zen teaches us to abide right in the truth and reality of life, every act of which will then reveal thousands of Samadhis. Whether lying or sleeping, whether drawing water or hewing wood, every movement grows full of significance. That is why Zen sums up its teachings in the following four phrases: "No reliance on word or letter; a special transmission outside of the scriptural doctrines; a direct pointing at the soul of man; and attainment to Buddhahood by seeing into one's own mind."

There are fourteen branches in the Rinzai Sect: Kenninji, Kenchoji, Tofukuji, Engakuji, Nanzenji, Daitokuji, Myoshinji, Tenryuji, Yeigenji, Shokokuji, Hokoji, Buttsuji, Kokutaiji, and Kogakuji. The Soto Sect has two head-temples, Yeiheiji, and Sojiji. Obaku is undivided, and its head-temple is Mampukuji, Uji.

Nichiren Sect This was founded by Nichiren (1222-1281) on the merits of the Saddharma-pundarika Sutra. The life of the Sect is in the seven syllables of "Na-mu-myo-ho-ren-gé-kyo," which is called "Daimoku," or a kind of theme. As this is the title of the Sutra revealing the absolute oneness of all opposites, even evil-hearted ones will attain to Buddhahood if they recite it in sincerity, and along with it all the ten universes will be equally benefited.

This sect is sub-divided into nine branches: (1) Nichiren-shu (the head-temple, Kuonji, is in Yamanashi prefecture); (2) Hommon-shu, (Hommonji at Ikegami and six other temples in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (3) Hokké-shu, (its head-temple, Honjoji, is in Niigata prefecture); (4) Kempon-hokké-shu, (Kochoji and other four temples in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (6) Hommyo-hokké-shu, (its head-temple is Honryuji, Kyoto); (7) Nichiren-seishu, (its head-temple is Daisekiji in Shizuoka prefecture); (8) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-ha, (its head-temple is Myokakuji in Okayama prefecture); and (9) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-komon-ha, (the head-temple, Honkakuji, is also in Okayama prefecture).

Christianity

Before the Restoration Christianity was first introduced into Japan by Francis Xavier, a Jesuit Father, who came to Kagoshima in 1549. This was the time when Nobunaga Oda was at the height of his power, and he gave great encouragement to the spread of the Christian religion. Hideyoshi Toyotomi, his successor, too, was kindly disposed towards it. Combined with the devout and untiring work of the missionaries, this attitude on the part of the authorities made it possible for Christianity to gain followers with wonderful rapidity. Their number is reported to have run into hundreds of thousands.

Hideyoshi, however, changed his policy later on. Christianity was interdicted, its followers were persecuted, and the missionaries had to leave the country. When the Tokugawa Shogunate was established, still stricter measures were adopted, especially after the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637. Christianity had now no hope of being revived under the rigorous government policy of exclusion. The only port open to foreigners was Deshima, Nagasaki, where the Dutch tradesmen were allowed to carry on their business.

The American envoy, Commodore Perry, came to Uraga in 1853, demanding a friendly commercial treaty with his country. The Shogunate government granted this request in 1854 not only to America, but to Russia, England, France and Holland, and in the year following the three ports of Kanagawa, Nagasaki, and Hakodaté were opened to foreign trade. A party of American missionaries were the first to avail themselves of the opportunity thus offered to them. Among them were the Rev. J. Liggins, of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States of America, and the Rev. M. C. Williams, who came to Nagasaki. These were soon followed by Dr. G. F. Verbeck, of the Presbyterian Church, and J. Goble, of the American Baptist Missionary Society, and others. In 1864, the Rev. J. H. Ballagh, of the Dutch Reformed Church, came from America, and in the following year Dr. Thompson, of the American Presbyterian Church, reached here as a missionary.

In 1869, the Rev. D. C. Greene made Kobé the basis of his mission work representing the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The first woman missionary, Miss Kidder, of the Dutch Reformed Church, arrived here in the same year. In 1873, the American Methodist Episcopal Church and the Canadian Methodist Church sent their missionaries, and in 1876 the Evangelical Association of North America started its propaganda work.

The Restoration When the feudal system of Tokugawa collapsed and the Imperial House was restored to power, the edicts prohibiting "Kirishitan" were withdrawn in the sixth year of Meiji (1873), and the missionaries were officially permitted to establish schools, to publish religious tracts, and to preach their doctrines in all the sea-ports open for foreign trade. In 1872, the Rev. Brown and Rev. Ballagh of Yokohama established, aided by their young fol-

lowers, a Christian church to be known as the Yokohama Yaso Kyokai, which was the beginning of the Union Church. In the following year a sister church was organized at Tsukiji, Tokyo. This was the first Christian church in the metropolis. In 1876 Nagasaki saw another church established. Later all these churches were federated in the name of the United Church of Christ in Japan. This was the origin of the Nihon Kirisuto Kyokai. The Rev. D. C. Greene who started his mission work in Kobé established a church known as the Settsu First Christian Church. This was the first Congregational Church ever organized in Japan, and developed into the present Kobé Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In the same year the Umemoto-Cho Church came into existence in Osaka, which later came to be called the Osaka Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. Some time before this, thirty-five students of the Kumamoto Foreign School, who were converted to Christianity under the influence of their American teacher, Captain Janes, came up to Kyoto, and entered the Doshisha College just established by Jo Neeshima, who had lately returned from America. After their graduation from the college they grew active as propagators of Christianity, and built up the foundations of the Nihon Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In 1872, the Rev. Loomis and Rev. Ballagh opened a Bible class for young men in the above-mentioned Church at Yokohama every Sunday afternoon. In 1873, a Congregational Missionary, Dr. Berry, set up in Kobé a Sunday-school, probably the first one conducted in the Japanese language. As to the vernacular translation of the Bible, in which Dr. Brown had been engaged for some time, the work progressed rapidly early in the Meiji era, and the New Testament was completed in December, 1879, and the Old Testament in 1886. The chief translators were Brown, Verbeck, Greene, and Maclay, while among the native assistants were Takakichi Matsuyama, Masatsuna Okuno, Masahisa Uyemura, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Goro Takahashi, and others.

Y. M. C. A. In 1880, the Young Men's Christian Association was first organized in Tokyo, and among the leaders must be mentioned Hiromichi Kozaki, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Masahisa Uyemura, and Yoshiyasu Hiraiwa.

In 1870, Miss Kidder opened a school for girls in Yokohama. This was the first institution of the kind in Japan, and from it developed the present Ferris School for Girls. Four years later another girls' school was erected in Kobé by the Congregationalists.

According to the statistics of 1882, there were in that year 145 foreign missionaries, 93 organized churches, 13 of which were self-supporting, 4,367 adult members, 39 mixed schools, 15 girls' schools, 9 middle Schools, 7 theological colleges, 109 sunday schools, 49 ordained preachers, 100 assistant preachers, 37 Bible women, and 5 hospitals.

In 1883, the Church of Christ sent missionaries to Japan, and in 1885 the Presbyterian Church of the United States of America did the same. The American Society of Friends, and the Evangelical Protestant Missionary Society of Germany and Switzerland also dispatched their agents. In 1886, missionaries came from the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and in Osaka a hall was set up for the Young Men's Christian Association. In 1887 the missionaries and representatives of the Episcopal Church of England and America had a conference, the result of which was the

organization of the Holy Catholic Church of Japan. In the same year, the American Unitarian Association sent its representative, the Rev. A. M. Knapp, and following him came the Rev. Clay McCauley.

Freedom of Faith On February 11, 1889, the Constitution was promulgated, and freedom of faith was definitely guaranteed by Article XXVIII. This year, L. D. Wishard, International College Secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association, came, and planned out a summer school for Bible study for the first time in this country. Since then every summer sees its work carried on. The United Church of Christ in Japan changed its name into the Church of Christ in Japan, compiled a fundamental law, settled on its creeds, and at last became an independent organization. Soon after, they put up a Board of Missions and made progress towards financial independence.

In 1890, the Universalist General Convention of America sent its missionaries. In 1895 officers of the Salvation Army came, and Gumpei Yamamuro joined it, and they at once started on their propaganda work. In the same year, the United Brethren in Christ started a mission.

While the foreign missionaries, up to 1901, had not been allowed to hold land in Japan, which greatly inconvenienced their activities, the Home Minister this year gave permission to the Baptist Missionary Society in Japan to organize a corporation which could hold and manage lands and buildings for missionary purposes.

In 1905 the Japanese Congregationalists planned to be financially independent of the foreign mission at the end of this year, in which they later succeeded.

In 1907 representatives of the Methodist Church of Canada, the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and the Methodist Episcopal Church convened in Tokyo with a view to effect a confederation of the three denominations in Japan. The First General Conference of the Methodist Church of Japan thus took place, and Yoichi Honda was chosen to be its first Bishop and was duly consecrated. In the same year F. L. Brown, of the International Sunday School Association, arrived and the outcome of this visit was the organization of the Sunday School Association of Japan, marking an epoch in the history of the Sunday School of the Christian Church. The conference of the World's Student Christian Federation was also held this year in Tokyo, in which 160 foreign visitors took part representing twenty-five nations. This was the first world's convention of any kind in Japan.

Roman and Greek Churches The Catholic Church has been active ever since the opening of the seaports for foreign trade. The missionaries from the Societé des Missions Etrangères in Paris are working all over the country, which is now divided by them into seven districts: Tokyo, Osaka, Hakodaté, Nagasaki, Shikoku, Niigata, and Sapporo. At present a Bishop resides in Tokyo, and in Shikoku the Dominicans from Spain are active, while in Hokkaido the Franciscans have found their principal fields of activity, where there are two Trappist monasteries. The Jesuit missionaries reached here again in 1908, but instead of following up their predecessors' work, they have now a college established in Tokyo and concentrate their efforts on education. Besides the Jesuits, those that are chiefly engaged in educational work are Missionnaires de Marie, Société des Soeurs de Saint Paul, Société de Sacré Coeur and others.

In the prefecture of Nagasaki where the Catholics have been at work for the last three hundred years, though secretly, they are still in the ascendency.

The activities of the Greek Church centered in the person of the Russian priest Father Nicolai, who came to Japan first as priest attached to the Russian consulate in Hokkaido in 1859. He reached Japan after crossing Siberia, and while settling in Hakodaté, he baptized Takuma Sawabé and two other Japanese. In 1872 he came to Tokyo where he began missionary work. In 1884 he started to build a fine large church in Tokyo, which was completed in 1891. The church was regarded at that time as the greatest and finest building of this sort throughout Japan. The internal disturbances in Russia which followed the great world war made it very difficult to maintain this beautiful edifice, until in 1919 the followers succeeded in organizing an independent church known by the name of the "Orthodox Church of Christ in Japan."

State Regulation of Religions

Supervising Office A wholesale change of the governmental system took place at the time of the Restoration, and in the third year of Meiji (1870) the Mimbusho was established to take care of various affairs of the state, such as general home affairs, communications, etc. In the fourth year, this office was abolished, and the office of religious affairs was transferred to the Finance Department. With the establishment of the Kyobusho, or Department of Religions, in 1872, the shrines and temples were placed under the care of the new office. Then the Government appointed Shinto and Buddhist priests as official religious instructors who were to preach and educate the people according to the moral principles as follows: (1) to cherish reverence for the gods and the spirit of patriotism; (2) to elucidate Heavenly Reason and the principle of humanity; and (3) to honour and pay homage to the Emperor and to observe the Imperial ordinances. Afterwards the Kyobusho was abolished too, and all the business conducted by this office up to that time was transferred to the Department of Home Affairs which was established in 1873. The official appointment of religious instructors (Kyodo-shoku) was discontinued in 1884, and the business of appointing preachers was entrusted to the head-priests (Kwancho) of the various religious sects, together with the right of selecting the resident priest (Jushoku) for the temples under their jurisdiction. Each sect was, moreover, given the power of managing its own affairs under the supervision of the Government. Religion was thus separated from politics. With the promulgation of the Constitution on the 11th of February in the 22nd year of Meiji (1889), the principle of religious freedom was firmly established. In April, 1900, the former Bureau of Shrines and Temples was divided into two sections, i. e., the Bureau of Shinto Shrines and the other the Bureau of Religions. All administrative policy concerning the Shinto shrines is now in charge of the former and is entirely independent of the policy governing religions. The Bureau of Religions was transferred to the Education Department in 1913, and is under its jurisdiction at present.

Administration of Religions At present, there are three kinds of religions in Japan. These religions are dealt with by the Government each in a different way, because Japan is still without specific laws defining the political status of these religions in connection with the State, though the principle of the administrative policy can recognize no such difference, as the Constitution guarantees freedom of faith. The Government, however, finds it natural not to mete out a uniform method of supervision over all these religions; for Buddhism, which has been in very close relation to the State and society for over one thousand years, and Shinto, which is the national cult of Japan, and Christianity, which was introduced to this country only half a century ago (putting aside the fact that it was once in this country a few centuries ago) can hardly be treated in a uniform method with satisfactory results.

From a practical point of view, the religious denominations which are officially recognized and come under the proper jurisdiction of the Bureau of Religions at present are Shinto and Buddhism. The denominations of Shinto are called "Kyoha" and those of Buddhism "Shuha." A religious order is a congregation of preachers and adherents following a definite system of creeds having temples or preaching halls from which their religious movements issue. Shinto and Buddhist Sects have not yet special regulations concerning cases of secession or incorporation, inasmuch as they are not allowed to make such regulations without the approval of the Education Minister. But affairs concerning the inner policy of the various sects are generally left to their own self-government, though the religious sects concerned are required by the State to compile fundamental rules defining their administrative policies approvable by the Education Minister.

Alteration of Rules The approval of the Education Minister is also required when they abolish or alter these rules. Each sect, Shinto or Buddhist, is required by the Government to select a head-priest, or Kwancho to govern and represent that sect. The appointment of a head-priest also requires the official approval. In the compilation of a constitution for each sect they have to define the following particulars: (1) the fundamental law, (2) the status of the preacher and his official title, and (3) the grades of preachers and their appointment and dismissal. These particulars are to be regulated by each Shinto head-priest. Meantime, each Buddhist head-priest is to regulate the following particulars: (1) the fundamental law, (2) rules concerning the management of temples, (3) the status of the priest and preacher and their official titles, (4) the appointment and dismissal of the resident priest, or Jushoku, of a temple, and grades of preachers, and their appointment and dismissal, and (5) the preservation of old historical documents, treasures, and properties belonging to the temples.

Besides thus defining the particulars as stated above, the constitution of each sect has to regulate, through practical necessity various affairs concerning its self-government. It must define, for instance, the functions and powers of the head-priest and the method of election; the organization and power of the council; functions of various officers; financial affairs; organization of a temple or a preaching hall; qualifications of a resident priest; affairs relating to the personnel, such as conferring honours or giving punishments; missionary work; education; and other functional activities. Needless to say, the head-priest governs his own sect according to the articles of this law. In short, the work of the Government in the matter of supervision over

the various sects of Shinto and Buddhism, is to indicate to them what is needed for that kind of work prior to the compilation of their fundamental laws, and to give its official approval when these laws are prepared, and then to see if all the provisions are carried out satisfactorily.

While all the Shinto and Buddhist sects are thus placed under the direct supervision of the Government as far as such fundamental affairs as are mentioned above are concerned, they are left to the care of the local governments concerning the practical functionings of their propaganda work. When the Shintoists or Buddhists want to build their temples or preaching halls, for instance, they must approach the local governments for permission. As Buddhist temples are, on account of their historical significance, regarded as legal persons, the use of the temple grounds, changes in their acreage, cutting down of the trees, and disposition of immovable property, temple treasures, historical documents, or fundamental funds, etc. all require the approval of the local governor concerned.

Special Treatment of Christianity The Government gives no official recognition as regards the Christian denominations, because they, as such, stand in no legal relationship to the Government. In the case of Christianity, therefore, the official supervision does not go further than looking after its missionary activities, selection of preachers, establishment of churches or preaching halls, etc. The Ordinance No. 41 of the Education Office issued in 1899 requires that those who wish to engage in missionary work notify the local governor of the name of their religion and methods of preaching with their personal history. When they want to build churches or other establishments for religious purposes, they have to approach the local authorities for permission, stating details of these establishments, methods of management and maintenance, qualifications of the preacher, and the process of selecting such preacher. In other words, the Government has special provisions for the Shinto and Buddhist denominations because of their peculiar historical status, while it is contented with being a mere overseer as regards Christianity. As far as their religious functions are concerned, however, the Government makes no distinction whatever between Shinto and Buddhism and Christianity. All religious sects are left to themselves unmolested as long as they do not disturb the peace of the country or practise immoralities in connection with the propagation of their doctrines and the carrying out of their respective religious rituals.

Educational Institutions There are a large number of educational institutions established by various religious sects for the purpose of bringing up properly qualified preachers. Like other professional or general educational establishments, these religious schools are under the supervision of the Education Minister. Meantime, charity works such as reformatories, dispensaries and other organizations financed by the religious bodies are placed under the jurisdiction of the Home Minister similarly with activities maintained by unreligious bodies in general.

Religious Statistics

The following are the statistics of preaching halls, preachers and adherents of various religious sects and denominations:

SHINTO (1930)

Denomination	Preaching Halls	Preachers Men	Women	Total	Adherents
Shinto	597	3,115	597	3,712	1,206,778
Kurozumi	452	3,705	437	4,142	551,236
Shusei	286	1,652	245	1,897	411,801
Taisha	194	3,528	145	3,673	3,343,477
Fuso	434	4,281	1,420	5,701	486,906
Jikko	241	1,912	598	2,510	403,519
Taisei	205	2,380	407	2,787	728,373
Shinshu	319	2,588	773	3,361	739,381
Ontaké	746	7,806	2,222	10,028	2,038,647
Shinri	266	1,212	237	1,449	1,412,332
Misogi	35	1,392	198	1,590	337,283
Konko	1,052	1,841	739	2,580	747,869
Tenri	9,423	37,077	21,090	58,167	4,118,238
Total	14,250			101,597	16,525,840

BUDDHISM (1930)

Denomination	Temples	Preaching Halls	Priests Men	Women	Total	Adherents
Tendai	3,427	227	0,025	1,400	10,425	1,897,135
Tendai-Jimon-Ha	637	118	2,564	291	2,855	135,093
Tendai-Shinsei-Ha	430	30	444	77	521	102,141
Kogi-Shingon	4,488	950	10,44	440	10,884	1,916,899
Shingon-Daigo-Ha	1,080	410	5,590	1,058	6,648	666,923
Shingon-Toji-Ha	142	38	348	19	367	240,014
Shingon-Senyuji-Ha	41	—	64	18	82	23,440
Shingon-Yamashina-Ha	157	6	214	8	222	31,974
Shingon-Zentsuji-Ha	35	4	163	61	194	8,794
Shingi-Shingon-Chizan-Ha	2,974	132	2,618	66	3,684	3,686,354
Shingi-Shingon-Buzan-Ha	3,073	70	2,612	22	2,634	1,267,163
Shingon-Ritsu	70	7	90	12	102	627,124
Ritsu	15	1	102	33	135	58,182
Jodo	7,122	257	11,807	1,404	13,211	2,879,310
Jodo-Nishiyama-Zenrinji-Ha	327	23	497	65	562	724,119
Jodo-Nishiyama-Komyoji-Ha	633	32	902	215	1,117	261,692
Jodo-Nishiyama-Fukakusa-Ha	225	24	427	127	48	132,754
Rinzai-Tenryuji-Ha	123	4	175	27	202	30,173
Rinzai-Sokokuji-Ha	114	2	147	34	181	40,072
Rinzai-Kenninji-Ha	73	2	105	7	112	36,255
Rinzai-Kenninji-Ha	459	18	693	27	720	227,150
Rinzai-Myoshinji-Ha	3,486	146	6,522	599	7,121	1,309,325
Rinzai-Kenchoji-Ha	432	6	559	7	566	130,842
Rinzai-Tofukuji-Ha	425	2	594	19	613	155,306
Rinzai-Daitokuji-Ha	201	6	392	36	428	79,100
Rinzai-Yengakuji-Ha	217	4	249	6	255	63,826
Rinzai-Yeigenji-Ha	129	5	142	24	166	40,299
Rinzai-Hokoji-Ha	183	3	233	—	232	146,851
Rinzai-Buttsuji-Ha	49	4	63	6	69	53,370
Rinzai-Kokutaiji-Ha	25	1	42	9	51	17,671
Rinzai-Kogakuji-Ha	61	1	57	2	59	37,737
Soto	4,226	581	27,506	2,325	29,831	6,859,324
Obaku	522	14	665	34	699	111,841
Shin-Honganji-Ha	9,765	1,447	18,474	—	18,474	7,209,752
Shin-Ohtani-Ha	8,484	746	25,754	—	25,754	5,094,832
Shin-Sakata-Ha	625	49	1,072	—	1,072	284,223
Shin-Kosei-Ha	306	237	1,171	13	1,184	333,977
Shin-Bukkoji-Ha	341	26	726	—	726	152,739
Shin-Kibé-Ha	58	80	270	—	270	62,912
Shin-Izumoji-Ha	47	13	138	—	138	34,670

Denomination	Temples	Preaching Halls	Men	Priests Women	Total	Adherents
Shin-Yamamoto-Ha	12	23	85	—	83	10,962
Shin-Seishoji-Ha	45	12	86	—	86	35,553
Shin-Sammonto-Ha	34	18	125	—	125	39,770
Nichiren	3,732	885	10,428	498	10,926	2,407,868
Nichiren-Sei	116	29	197	4	201	81,015
Kenpon-Hokké	405	16	535	9	544	168,881
Hommon	225	19	379	6	385	161,836
Hommon-Hokké	326	147	1,024	51	1,075	387,371
Hokké	137	27	280	—	280	57,725
Honmyo-Hokké	83	29	154	—	154	24,187
Nichiren-Fujufuse-Ha	3	10	12	—	12	18,982
Nichiren-Fujufuse-Komon-Ha	1	4	12	—	12	7,494
Ji	357	9	738	6	744	383,171
Yuzu-Nembutsu	491	4	443	37	480	133,493
Hosso	41	24	754	92	846	14,772
Kegon	27.	—	24	—	24	22,869
Total	71,261	6,682	149,933	9,158	159,091	41,082,307

CHRISTIANITY (1930)

Denomination	Churches and Preaching Stations	Preachers Japanese	Preachers Foreigners	Total	Adherents
Roman Catholic	229	94	161	255	89,119
Greek Orthodox	102	112	1	113	13,012
Congregationalist	156	162	31	193	24,974
Presbyterian	285	303	38	341	34,737
Episcopal	237	263	102	365	27,238
Baptist	78	90	22	112	6,553
Japan Methodist	234	255	117	372	28,116
Japan Mifu	28	—	—	33	2,634
Free Methodist	13	14	4	18	1,439
Evangelical Association	30	37	10	47	1,500
Lutheran	24	24	7	31	3,675
Scandinavian Japan Alliance	13	12	2	14	636
Christian and Missionary Alliance	13	13	3	16	715
United Brethren in Christ	19	20	3	23	1,938
General Evangelical Protestant	5	8	2	10	285
Universalist	3	4	7	11	219
Friends	7	8	—	8	546
Church of Christ	30	37	21	58	3,786
Salvation Army	109	214	5	219	9,623
Independents, Japan Holiness	78	93	—	93	8,724
Seventh-day Adventist	8	13	4	17	372
Nazarene	6	21	3	24	821
Other Sects	88	108	31	139	12,164
Total	1,795			2,512	272,826

Welfare Works by Religious Bodies

It is worthy of note that most Shinto and Buddhist sects are spending considerable sums of money in various welfare works, though this fact receives little attention from people at large. According to the investigation of the Religions' Bureau of the Education Office made at the beginning of 1929, the number of the welfare works and the amounts spent in these works by various Shinto and Buddhist organs were as follows :

	Shinto Sects	Buddhist Sects	Total
Number	115	4,372	4,487
Expenditure	¥366,296	¥2,660,318	¥3,026,614
Capital invested	415,482	8,304,126	8,719,608
Number of persons engaged	1,233	26,329	27,562
Number of people receiving benefit	495,807	1,705,008	2,200,815

The above amounts to about 40% of all the welfare works carried on in the country at that time. The figures following show the amounts spent in these works by various sects.

	General Expenditure	Expenditure for Welfare Works	Percentage
SHINTO SECTS:			
Shinto	¥ 11,285	—	—
Konko	128,275	—	—
Tenri	1,453,407	¥132,000	9.0%
BUDDHIST SECTS:			
Tendai	109,989	2,400	2.2%
„ Jimon-Ha	5,470	130	2.3%
„ Shinsei-Ha	17,472	622	3.5%
Kogi-Shingon	216,324	11,100	5.1%
„ „ Daigo-Ha	10,935	—	—
„ „ Toji-Ha	5,990	—	—
„ „ Senyuji-Ha	1,469	—	—
Shingi-Shingon-Chizan-Ha	109,267	1,000	0.9%
„ „ Buzan-Ha	112,250	11,700	10.4%
Jodo	172,834	2,000	1.1%
„ Nishiyama-Zenrinji-Ha	24,041	256	1.0%
„ Nishiyama-Komyoji-Ha	35,108	162	0.5%
Rinzai-Myoshinji-Ha	87,786	—	—
„ Engakuji-Ha	8,062	—	—
„ Yeigenji-Ha	4,832	—	—
Soto	401,495	10,000	2.4%
Shin-Honganji-Ha	729,804	51,735	7.0%
„ Otani-Ha	1,022,181	29,232	3.8%
„ Takata-Ha	80,127	5,260	6.5%
„ Bukkoji-Ha	31,995	—	—
„ Kibé-Ha	10,000	200	2.0%
Nichiren	160,559	11,020	6.8%
Ji	14,073	200	1.4%
Kegon	6,463	—	—

The kinds of the welfare works maintained with the expenditures as stated above are education, assistance for ex-convicts, orphans and people in distress at large, management of cheap luncheon halls and cheap public baths, affording banking facilities at low interest, extension of medical aid to the poor, helping the unemployed in finding jobs ; etc.

Welfare Works by Christians The welfare works by Christians in Japan are carried on at an annual budget of about ¥20,000 through the Japan Federation of Christians, and the kinds of such works maintained with this expenditure are similar to those maintained by Shinto and Buddhist sects, the only difference being that greater emphasis is placed on assistance for those in bad health and of women in dishonourable professions.

Religious Problems and Activities (1932-1933)

The Manchurian problem seemed by the gravity of the problem itself and its very complicated international relations, to have swept away all the attention of the people from the affairs of thought and religion, and none of the religious sects or denominations could make much headway for the time being. But it is too early to take this as an indication that religion is at a standstill which might be followed by a general and permanent decline of its power. Throughout the annals of human history from many centuries preceding the appearance of Buddha or of Christ, the influence of religion has alternately waxed and waned.

The anti-religious movement which arose a few years ago was extinguished with the arrest of leaders of the movement because of their connection with the communists, and because of the ultra-nationalistic tendency of all thoughts in the past two years.

As is always the case at the time of any national crisis in Japan, the Shinto and Buddhist bodies or sects have been active in the consolation of soldiers and the relief of those who have suffered from the war. And in spite of the general standstill of religious activity in the home land, many a sect earnestly worked for propagation among the people of Manchoukuo. The Catholic church is also said to have demanded equal opportunity of evangelism in the new country. The much neglected farmer-villages were taken up as an important field for such work by both Christian churches and Buddhist temples in recent years, and some efforts were made for the purpose by a certain Christian Church and the Nanzen-ji branch of Zen-Rinzai-sect in this year. But the results were not very encouraging, because the preachers or monks were mostly sent to villages from cities instead of using natives or the preachers living among the villagers themselves.

Inactivity of the religious bodies was also due to the financial difficulties caused by the world-wide depression. The income of the Buddhist temples and Shinto shrines in local villages generally decreased. Christian denominations greatly suffered by a large cutting down of their budgets, this amounting to more than 75% in the worst cases. The Roman Catholics did not suffer because they are supported mostly by French mother churches. The American financial situation, antipathy against the Chinese policy of Japan, and the report of the special Commission to the Mission fields worked together to damp the interest of the American contributors to the Japanese churches. But the present financial difficulty will spur the Japanese churches to independence and healthier progress for the future.

Christianity and Shrine Worship A hot discussion arose around the attitude of Catholic school students toward the Yasu-kuni Shrine at Kudan, Tokyo, established in honour of those who have given their lives for national defence. Army officers are sent to schools to give military drill and discipline to students with the purpose of lessening the term of service of the school graduates (see Chapter VIII, National Defence, Conscription). On the anniversary of the Manchurian incident Colonel Kitahara of Jochi College, which is founded by the Catholic Church, wanted to take students to the Yasukuni Shrine to pay homage to the soldier gods, but the College refused to send Christian students with him.

Investigations exposed the fact that other Catholic institutions such as the Gyo-sei Middle School (Tokyo) and Kai-sei Middle School (Nagasaki) were taking the same attitude toward not only the Yasukuni-Shrine, but also the Meiji Shrine, which enshrines the Emperor Meiji, and the Isē Shrine, the highest national shrine. At the same time maps of some fortified zone were said to have been stolen at Amami Island, where all the inhabitants have recently become Catholic believers, and a Catholic priest was reported to be at the back of the action. These matters hurt the feeling of the army authorities and they decided not to send officers to the Catholic schools any more, which means the deprivation of military privileges given to students and graduates in regard to conscription. But it may endanger the very existence of Catholic schools, for it is difficult in Japan to attract boys to schools which have not these privileges, and military authorities were very careful not to make the matter public. Yet, ill news travels apace and the question was taken up by the press, and it called forth not only criticism of the Christian attitude toward shrines, but also a fundamental discussion on the nature of Japanese shrine. Is the shrine a religious institution or is it not?

The Japanese Government assumes the point of view that the shrine is by no means a religious edifice, but rather a kind of monument or pantheon. The Japanese people, therefore, ought to pay homage to them just as the Westerners decorate and pay homage to the tombs or monuments of their heroes, ancestors or parents. And shrines come under the supervision of the Minister of Home Affairs, while the Religious Bureau is located in the Department of Education.

The problem of Catholic schools ended in an understanding with the school authorities on the moral meaning of the shrine worship required of the students by the Government, and the military authorities are again sending officers to these schools.

But public discussion on shrines was continued for some time after the event. The explanation of the Department of Home Affairs mentioned above caused much discussion and debate. It is true that these edifices do not enshrine an object superior to human beings, but merely the spirits of departed men; that there is no founder or scripture or creed or preaching or preaching place or theory of salvation in the constitution of the shrine. And the Home Department interpretation can be recognized as true if they say that Shinto is not a religion in the modern sense of the term. But there is no doubt about its being a remnant of a primitive religion, which may be considered as polytheistic ancestor or hero worship. And it is proper to honour its shrines as a kind of monument or pantheon to the national fathers or heroes peculiar to Japan.

Opinion was divided, however, among Christians on their attitude toward the shrine. One attitude was to take the bowing before shrines as a kind of idol worship which Christians should not countenance by any means, while the other was more liberal, taking the request of the Government as moral and not religious, and allowing Christians to bow before the shrine just to show courtesy.

CHAPTER XXXI

SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND SOCIAL WORKS

It is one of the peculiarities of historians, in the East and the West alike, that the things relating to the daily life, the problems, the struggles, the relaxations and amusements of the common people—those things in short which would have supreme interest for us because of their nearness to ourselves—are precisely what they leave untold. Thus we may search the official annals of Japan, extending for tens of centuries into the dim past where gods walked with men and myth and history inextricably mingle, without finding anything to tell us of the doings and condition of the ordinary folk. Busy with the affairs of the Imperial Court, politics, wars, ceremonies, and personal accounts of outstanding heroes, the historian pays little regard to such vulgar things as prices, employment, public health or housing. Yet all through the ages Japan must have had her social problems peculiar to each era and leaving their mark on each following era, so that the troubles of 1933 have had their dim origin in ages long before the Emperor Jimmu. Here and there, in other works than official histories, we may catch glimpses of these economical problems of old, and in our chapter on History the reader will find some reference to them in relation to the general life of the people; but further study of them must be left in the historians' hands, and our concern here shall be limited to the present and to present-day conditions.

Social Problems

These may in the main be summarized under 5 headings:

(1) Poverty and Its Relief. In Japan the gap between rich and poor may not be quite so great as in some Western countries, but nevertheless it exists, and tends in some ways to become greater with the industrialization of the country. Poor-relief is one of the greatest problems of the authorities, for it must include the city slums, the beggars, and the increasing numbers of peasant paupers. Though estimates vary, the numbers of "poor" may be placed at about 2% of the population, and of them probably some 8% are destitute.

(2) Condition of Labourers. This, with the attendant matters of pay and hours, especially in relation to international labour conferences and agreements, calls for careful Government handling: the protection of child and woman labour particularly so.

(3) Position of Women. The protection of women and elevation of their social and legal status is in some ways especially an Oriental problem. Socially, their position has been much raised of late years, till now it approximates nearly to that of men; but the old discriminative laws enacted in the Meiji Era still handicap women in many respects. In regard to the age-old question of licensed prostitution there has been little improvement; statistics show, indeed, a slight retrogression, for the numbers of women involved has increased, owing perhaps to the recent financial depression.

(4) Public Health. In a country which carries such a dense population this is a matter of vital importance. Medical science in Japan is second to none in the world with regard to its recent progress and present position, her doctors and surgeons having made contributions of inestimable value to mankind, and in some cases paid for them with their lives. But difficulties attend its application. The cost of treatment and of drugs and chemicals is high, and suggestions have been made for the nationalization of all medical business in order to help the poor.

(5) Thought Guidance. The guidance of the people's thought through the eddying turmoil of modern ideas and theories, from Marxism to Fascism with all intermediate shades, and the handling of practical matters connected therewith, are of the very gravest concern to this country, and are engaging the deepest attention of the authorities. The final settlement of these matters must be largely dependent on that of the preceding problems, though some consider that more radical and direct action is necessary for its attainment than merely the so-called social work. But inasmuch as most of these movements, radical or reactionary, include schemes for the sudden overthrow of the existing social system, neither the Government nor the people at large can regard them with unconcern.

The fourth problem, relating to Public Health, is specially treated at the end of this chapter, while further reference is made to the others in the chapter on Labour.

Social Work

Development Charity and relief work in Japan in the days before the Meiji Restoration were left in the hands of religious believers and to the members of the families concerned. Penury and disease, social misery and vices, natural calamities and famine, and all the other ills of human life, were attended to by individuals and the benevolent. We have many beautiful stories about individual cases of charity and philanthropy in days of old, but there had not yet arisen social or rescue works by organized bodies on any large scale. It must be remembered that the old fatalistic ideas of Buddhism hindered the rise of social work while, on the other hand, the religion taught loving kindness for all, which was revived by the stimulus of Christian social work and benevolence in recent years. The other reason why social work in Japan was so slow in its development was the strength of the family tie. The responsibility of helping the others rested on the members of the same family, and the people thought it to their shame not to be able to help their relatives without asking for public assistance. But the Meiji Era changed many phases of social, political and business life of the Japanese. The relation and interrelation of men and women became much more complicated. The economic development caused not only an increase in population but also the expansion of cities, and a greater discrepancy between the rich and the poor. At the beginning of the Meiji Era the Government had already begun to do some little work for the poor and orphans. The earthquake of Nagoya in 1891, the North-Eastern tidal wave damages and famine in 1896, had quickened the development of orphanage work, and at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars relief work for soldiers, child protection, and free medical treatment were also being

taken up. Yet they had been largely carried on by philanthropic individuals, and hardly differed from the old-fashioned benevolent and rescue work. With the changes of social condition and economy mentioned above the necessity of some means providing for the adjustment of such conditions became keenly felt. Especially, the World War served as a great stimulus for the development of modern social work, for the economic, social and moral changes suddenly brought about at and after the time of the great conflict raised various kinds of social problems as mentioned above and at the same time accelerated progress in all kinds of social work, such as relief of the poor, free medical treatment, provision of houses, employment exchanges, child protection, settlement work and the like. The great earthquake of 1923 was an epoch-making event from the standpoint of the development of such work. From the beginning of the twentieth century the Japanese Government has issued many laws on social work, the most important of them being as follows :—the Military Relief Act of 1917, the Tuberculosis Prevention Act of 1919, the Employment Exchange Act and the Housing Association Act of 1921, the Health Insurance Act of 1922, and the Insanitary Houses Improvement Act and the Public Pawnshops Act of 1927.

Bureau of Social Affairs In regard to the administrative organization of social work, before the Great World War there were only a few officials engaged in reform and relief work, in one corner of the Department of Home Affairs. But in August, 1917, a relief section was established in its Local Government Bureau. In 1919, this section was given the name of the Section of Social Affairs and in 1920, it became a new Bureau of Social Affairs as a central organization for social work; in 1922, the present independent Bureau of Social Affairs came into existence and the administration of all social work throughout the country was brought under its control. The present social work in Japan is summarized at the end of 1929 as follows: the existing number of social work institutions and organizations, public and private, was 5,027, with annual expenses of ¥42,267,879 and the total amount of their property was estimated at ¥215,844,951. This speedy development in so short a period as ten years or so seems to be worthy of attention, presenting a remarkable phenomenon in this line of human activity; as indeed Japan has done in many other lines of politics and learning, in order to catch up with the speedy progress of the world. But social work in the true sense of the word is one of the hardest things on earth, because it must, in its final outcome, mean the practice of religious teachings and realization of human ideals, and the actual condition at present certainly leaves much to be desired both in form and quality. The scope and variety of it must be widened and increased. Legislation, administration, finance and the practical management of the work must be so improved that they are most effectively carried out for the needy and the miserable with the high aim of bringing about an age when less kinds of social work shall be necessary.

It is fortunate that the present tendency of Japanese social work is paving the way for the transformation of social work into a definite Governmental social policy. While the old benevolent work had developed into the present social work, the fundamental idea and means had undergone a great change. The present social work is carried on not necessarily with the idea of benevolence but rather on the principles of social solidarity and mutual help. Accordingly social workers now put emphasis on the positive improvement of social conditions and environments rather than the negative relief of individuals ex post facto, taking as their motto that prevention is better than cure. And the management of social work has been enlarged from individual administration to national systematic control. An evolution has taken place in the leading idea of social work. The fundamental motive of the present-day social work is love of and faith in humanity, but it takes in the new principle of public welfare. From the standpoint of public welfare and mutual responsibility, modern social work has as its aim the solution of social problems and positive social reconstruction to accomplish the social welfare policy in co-operation with legislation on labour and social insurance.

Imperial Participation It must be remembered here that the Imperial House has been one of the leading factors in promotion of social work in Japan. Not to speak of the Imperial gifts in olden times, the Imperial donation of ¥1,500,000 in 1907 was the commencement of modern social work in Japan on a considerable scale because it called forth contributions from the people amounting to ¥24,350,000, and a society was organized for medical treatment for the poor. The annual Imperial donation for representative social works all over Japan was begun in 1921. The Imperial House has always taken the initiative in giving a large amount of money for social works of different natures with a full understanding of the aim of modern social work.

Administration and Expenses

Organs for the Administration As mentioned above, the Government established an independent Bureau of Social Affairs in 1922 to control all the social works and institutions in the Empire. The office is located by the moat at Marunouchi, Tokyo, and stands facing the Imperial Palace. The Bureau consists of three departments, namely, Department of Labour, Department of Health Insurance, and Department of Social Work. The social affairs of local prefectures are under the direct control of the Sections of Social Affairs which are established in Prefectural and Municipal Offices.

The most important official organization for fundamental investigation of social work is the Social Work Investigation Committee established by the Government in 1926. This Committee, composed of distinguished persons in Government service and private life, have enquired into such matters as social work system, assistance to children, improvement of insanitary living quarters, and changes in the Reformatory Law. Of the private societies for investigation of social work, the Central Charity Association was the first instance of this kind. The Social Work Investigation Association in Osaka and the Buddhists' Social Work Investigation Association in Tokyo were established in 1913, the Religious Colleges Social Work Investigation Institute in 1917, and the Ohara Social Problems Investigation Institute and the Kyocho Kai or Labour-Capital Harmonization Association in 1919. There are 13 such organizations in Japan. Of these, the largest are the two last mentioned. The Ohara Social Problems Investigation Institute was established by the same donor, Mr. Ohara,

who had been the supporter of the famous Okayama Orphanage and is engaged in an impartial and fundamental investigation of various kinds of social problems ; it has a library of its own devoted to the same purpose and gives printed reports on its investigation. The Kyocho Kai has for its object the promotion of co-operation between the employers and the employed, and is engaged, in order to carry out its purpose, in the investigation and promotion of social institutions, the education of labourers and the publication of magazines and books, in the Social Policy Institute and the Kyocho Kai Hall.

Other Associations There are many associations organized for the purpose of unifying social works. The first organ of this kind is the Central Charity Association. This Association, engaging in such works as holding meetings of social workers, publication of printed matter, and investigation of social work, has contributed a great deal toward the development of such work in general. Similar Associations are organized in every part of Japan reaching to the present number of 44. There are supplementary organs for carrying out social work effectively. The most important of them is the Block Committee System. It was established to encourage the spirit of mutual aid among the people, and aims at the survey and improvement of poor quarters and the giving of suitable guidance and protection to the miserable. According to the estimate in 1929, the number of the committees was 74 in all with 18,913 members and they are distributed all over Japan.

For the training of officers and workers the Government once established the Social Workers' Training Institute in 1919, but it was closed for financial reasons in the fiscal year 1923, after having produced 45 graduates during its existence. The Kyocho Kai has held lecture meetings and the Central Social Work Association has held similar meetings for the cultivation of social work knowledge among the people. In 1921, the Social Work Department was established in the Tokyo Imperial University, The Japan Women's College, and the Social Work Lecture Institute in the Higashi-Honganji, a Buddhist temple in Kyoto, have worked for the same purpose. A chair of social work in the Japan University and a similar lectureship in the Tokyo Women's Union College, together with Social Work Departments in several Christian Colleges are doing a good work for the training of young people for social work. The present trouble is, however, that elderly ex-officials are employed in many of these social works in order to give them comparatively light work in their declining years and there is hardly any chance for the young social workers to get into suitable positions.

Expenses The expenses of social work are derived from three sources, i. e., State, local and private. These expenses have increased on account of the speedy development of the work, especially since the rice riots in 1918 and the Great Earthquake of 1923. The expenses of private social work in the year 1929 amounted to ¥33,565,336, while the budget of local expenses for the year 1930 amounted to ¥60,457,452. Besides these charges, there is special prefectural expenditure, such as Charity Relief Funds amounting to ¥8,238,703, Charity Aid Funds amounting to ¥2,196,084, and Military Relief Funds ¥2,160,562. The funds created by the Calamity Fund Law totalled ¥81,854,257 in March 1929. The estimated expenses relating to the Bureau of Social Affairs for the fiscal year 1932-1933 amounted to ¥17,722,322. The Government expended, in 1931, ¥303,450 for helping general social work.

Child Protection

Child protection in Japan is divided into the following nine main classes :—(1) Care for women in pregnancy or confinement (2) care for infants (3) for weakly children (4) for children of the very poor (5) for the education of children (6) for child-workers (7) for maltreated children (8) for children to be reformed and (9) for abnormal children.

Women in Pregnancy or Confinement The infant mortality rate of Japan was lower until 1900 than in Western countries, but since then it has gradually risen, till it reached the deplorable figure of 189 deaths for every 1,000 births in 1918, and though there was a decrease since, in 1931, still the rate was as high as 71. As for the still-birth rate, though there was some tendency to decrease, it was 5.5 for every 100 births in 1931, the total number of still-births reaching to 116,509, that is, 1.78 for every 1,000 of population. There may be many reasons combined for this deplorable state of things, but overwork and lack of nutrition during confinement, neglect of attention at the time of child-birth, and deficiency of proper knowledge of child-rearing on the part of poor mothers must be considered the main reasons. The greatest emphasis in child protection is laid on the protection and aid of expectant mothers, or the protection of children before and at the time of birth. For this kind of work there are at present such organizations as maternity hospitals, visiting midwives and confinement advisory institutes, besides legislation for maternity protection. There are 40 maternity hospitals throughout the country, while visiting midwives organizations number 378. Legislation for maternity protection is included in the Factory Law, the Mining Law and the Health Insurance Law. The first two laws provide that masters of industries and mines shall not require expectant mothers to work if they apply for leave of absence ; after child-birth the mother shall not be required to resume work for 6 weeks, though if she requests work after 4 weeks and a doctor certifies her as fit, she may be allowed to resume it.

The adoption in Japan of this legislation is of course due to the general demand of the day, but at the same time it cannot be denied that the resolution relating to maternity protection adopted by the First International Labour Conference opened at Washington, 1919, contributed a great deal toward the speedy introduction of this measure in Japan. According to the Health Insurance Law, persons insured are to receive 20 yen for the expenses of confinement and also a daily amount corresponding to 60 per cent. of each day's wage throughout the no-work period for 28 days before and 42 days after child-birth.

Infant Protection Japanese people love their children at least as much as do foreign parents ; but the high rate of infant mortality in Japan is due to the lack of hygienic knowledge and the comparatively low standard of living of the people in general. Now they have become aware of the fact and the danger of leaving the problem of protection of infants in the hands of mothers or homes. The institutions now existing are divided into the four following kinds:—(a) hospitals for the unweaned pauper infants, (b) day-nurseries, (c) institutions for pro-

viding milk or other nutritious food for sickly and undersized children, and (d) infant health consultation institutes.

(a) Infant hospitals. There are 16 infant hospitals in the country according to the latest statistics. Of these 5 were established by public authorities and the rest are managed by private bodies or individuals.

(b) Day-nurseries. This work is to help both children and mothers at once, taking care of infants in the day-time, it helps mothers who have to work hard for their living and cannot have time to look after their little ones. The demand for this work has become greater year by year, owing to the recent development of industry and the influx of population into cities. The oldest institute for this work was the one established by Mr. Shobi Akazawa at a street in the city of Niigata, June, 1890. Now there are 419 in the country, of which 101 are public establishments and 318 are private.

(c) Institutions for providing nutritious food. The work for providing milk was first undertaken by the Hygiene Bureau of the Home Office with the help of the city of Tokyo as an emergency measure immediately after the Earthquake of 1923, for those infants whose parents were quartered in parks or other places of the city. There are now 8 such organizations.

(d) Infant health clinics. As the first instance of an independent organization for this kind of work, we may cite the Osaka Children's Clinic established in 1919. At present there are 111 such advisory institutes.

Child-Protection As for the legislation for the protection of poor children, it is provided for in the part concerning children in the Regulations for Relief of the Poor and the Regulations for Provision of Rice to Abandoned Children, and according to these regulations poor children who have no relatives, or those who take charge of abandoned children, are to receive 7 "to", or about half a bushel, of rice a year at the expense of the Government until such children reach the age of 13. Besides these Regulations, there are some other means for protection of poor children provided by some prefectures or municipalities in accordance with the principle of the national regulations. According to the national survey, made by the Bureau of Social Affairs, 1926, the number of widows and their children, and children of widowers or whose parents were destitute of daily necessities was 133,588.

(a) Orphan Asylums. The orphanage may be said to have been one of the earliest institutions that led the Japanese toward social relief work in general, as was the case with Western countries. The work has made remarkable progress and is supported by the public with better understanding and large contributions. There are 120 orphan asylums in the country of which only three are founded by public bodies. The total expenses of these asylums in 1929 were ¥818,008, which were chiefly met by incomes from the funds, incomes from business, subscriptions and public or private donations. Lately, however, the inmates of these asylums have a tendency to decrease on account of the development of various kinds of child-welfare work in other directions.

(b) Protection of weakly children. Physically weak children are cared for in recreation houses located near the sea or in the woods. The first example of this kind of work was that of the Tokyo Child-Nursing Institute which took a certain number of weakly children to the seashore of Boshu in 1900. Later, in June, 1926, the Child Protection Society, a corporation established in the compounds of the Bureau of Social Affairs, took up the work and has since provided a model example of it. As for the medical treatment of weakly children, the Children's Charity Hospital and the Children's Department of the Osaka Branch Hospital of the Japan Red Cross Society have been producing good results.

(c) Protection of Children of School Age. The elementary school attendance in Japan beats most of the nations of the world in its high rate. But there are a certain number of children who are kept from school partly through the operation of Article 33 of the Regulations for Elementary Schools, which recognizes as right in certain cases the non-attendance of children of school age, and partly because of poverty of the family. Encouragement of school attendance of those children, in some way or other, is made by the Government and various private bodies. Every year the Education Department gives Common Education Encouragement Grants to prefectures for the purpose of encouraging children to attend school. Owing to this help, the rate of school attendance of children in general has increased in a notable degree, and the percentage of those entering school and in daily attendance was 99.51 and 96.54 respectively in the school year 1930 against 99.48 and 96.55 in the school year 1929.

The number of the schools for giving poor children compulsory education and the number of those which have evening classes for the same purpose is 40. Besides these schools there are 17 nurse-maids' schools, and the pupils of the schools for poor children were 4,622 while that of nurse-maids' schools were 717, at the end of March 1929.

(d) Protection of Child Workers. It is very unfortunate not only for the welfare of children themselves but also for that of the country that young children should be employed in factories or at homes in the most important period of their physical and mental growth. It is most essential, therefore, to limit child labour, to enforce compulsory and occupational education, and to enact laws for the benefit of children. The International Labour Conference has paid great attention to this problem of protection of child workers, and its first conference in 1919 adopted an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers employed in industries and their night work, the second Conference in 1920 an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers at sea and the third conference in 1921 an agreement relating to the same employed in agriculture. In Japan, there had been some laws in force already, but the International Labour Conference, and recent labour conditions necessitated the revision of these laws and regulations. The legislative measures now in force for protection of child workers are the Revised Factory Law of 1923, the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law of 1923, the Regulations for Relief of Miners of 1926, and the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law of 1923. In the Revised Factory Law, Article III provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day (exception being 15 hours for certain kinds of occupation), Article IV prohibits their night work, and Article VII states that they shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law, Article II provides that children less than 14 years of

age shall not be employed in industrial work, but those children over 12 years of age who have finished the ordinary elementary school course shall be exempted from this rule. In the Regulations for Relief of Minors, Article VI provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day and Article XII and XIII that children under 16 years of age shall not be employed in dangerous work. And in the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law, Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed and Article III that in case of children under 18 years of age being employed, a doctor's certificate of health must be obtained. Just before the enforcement of these laws, that is, at the end of 1925, there were 474 children over 10 and under 12 years of age and 6,709 children who were over 12 and under 14 years old and had not yet finished their compulsory education employed in industries, but the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law enforced on July 1,1926, has since prohibited their employment.

(e) Reformatory work. In March, 1900, the Reformatory Law was enacted and the establishment of prefectural reformatories was encouraged by the Government. According to this law, however, their establishment was voluntary. In 1908, it was revised and the Prefectural offices were compelled to found reformatories. Within two years after the enactment of the Law 30 reformatories were founded, both public and private. In August, 1917, an ordinance in regard to the founding of a national reformatory, which had been pending for many years, was promulgated, and in March, 1919, a State Reformatory, named the Musashino-Gakuin, was founded at a suburban village of Tokyo. The bills for juvenile courts and houses of correction, which had been pending for many years, were for the first time presented to the Imperial Diet by the Law Bureau as Government Bills, and in April, 1921, they were published as the Juvenile Law and the House of Correction Law.

At the end of March, 1929, there were 60 reformatories, the number of children taken care of during the fiscal year being 3,615, with the expenses amounting to ¥785,695. In addition to these reformatories, there are 31 Correction Societies which are taking care of boys and girls who are not under the direct care of the reformatories.

(f) Protection of Abnormal Children. Blind and deaf-mute children are taken care of in blind schools and deaf-mute schools. The importance of protecting feeble-minded and other mentally defective children has long been insisted upon by the thinking public, but the number of organizations for that purpose is only 6 in all, of which only one, that is, the Imamiya-Gakuin established by the City of Osaka, is a public one, the number of inmates being 140, in 1929. It is estimated that there are over 5,000 such children left entirely to the ineffective care of individual homes.

In Conclusion. The work of child protection is of various kinds and occupies a great part of all social work. But there is no general system as yet among these public and private organizations, and in some cases the workers in these institutions are fed at the expense of the children, that is, at times, the salaries paid to the workers exceed the direct expenses for the protected children. It is said that at an annual national meeting of social workers, many serious people felt

the need of the reformation of the workers themselves first. Social work loses its meaning when it becomes professsional and an instrument of money-making, and strict regulations for preventing this kind of degradation are keenly required. It is, however, fortunate that the Japanese Government is trying its best in this line of work as far as the national budget allows, and constantly making necessary studies on this urgent subject.

Economic Protection

Economic protection has only been taken on of late years, and at the beginning such enterprises as employment exchanges and public lodgings alone were embarked on. But since the European War, the great economic expansion in Japan resulted, among other things, in the greater difficulty of living among the masses who got small earnings, and it sometimes led to such unfortunate events as rice riots all over the country. The dark shadow of social unrest brought to the surface many demands for ameliorating the conditions of living, and there came into existence, as an answer, various kinds of plans for economic protection by public bodies or public welfare organizations under the guidance and encouragement of the National Government.

Supply and Improvement of Houses Japan has not been exempt from the general tendency towards urbanization of population the world over, though in its earlier stage this was not pronounced enough to arouse any social interest. In the years 1918 and 1919, however, Japan met with the greatest industrial boom on record, brought on by the Great War, and the city-ward movement rapidly increased. In consequence of the swarming of people into urban districts, a scarcity of dwelling houses became keenly felt. It was more so because the owners of houses held off building new ones owing to the rise of building material prices and labourers' wages. At the same time house rent went up so high that the common people could hardly afford it, and in big cities, e.g., Osaka or Kobé, the rate of vacant houses to the total number was 1.5-1.7 per mile. According to the survey of 1920, there was need of 122,000 houses the country over.

(a) Building and management of houses by public bodies. To meet the pressing need of supplying economical and at the same time sanitary houses, in the year 1918, a note was issued to encourage public bodies to build and supply houses, the building cost of which might be loaned from the Funds of the Deposit Office of the Finance Department, at an annual interest of 4.8 per cent. This low-interest-rate loan together with a loan from the Reserve of the Post Office Life Insurance greatly facilitated the building work. Several other means were adopted to facilitate the work, namely, the sale of building materials produced from the Government forests at low cost, reduction in or exemption from freight charges for transportation of building materials, application of the Land Expropriation Law, if necessary, in case of buying land for the building of houses of public bodies, and freedom from the Registration and Construction Taxes. As the result of this encouragement, in June, 1919, 391 houses were built by the Municipality of Osaka, and in September, 42 by the city of Yokohama. At the end of 1930 the total number of houses built for the poor reached 32,803.

(b) Enforcement of the Housing Association Law. To give convenience to a number of middle-class

people for building their own residences the Government issued the Housing Association Law in April, 1921, and it was put into force the same year. The association is to be a legal person possessing several privileges in respect of taxation, acquisition of land, etc., and the working funds were loaned to the associations from the Funds of the Deposit Office of the Finance Department through the Prefectural Offices. In March, 1932, there were 2,737 associations under the Law, owning 30,674 houses.

(c) Enforcement of the Insanitary Building Site Improvement Law. Supply of dwellings is one aspect of this question and their improvement is another. The first step taken by the Government in the latter was to improve and remake the sites in cities where poorly built houses were crowded together. A nation-wide investigation made in June, 1925, showed that there were 217 such quarters with over 72,600 families and over 309,000 inhabitants. The land level was generally low, the quarters naturally damp, and an intricate network of unpleasant narrow roads, together with a congestion of small but not at all compact houses lacking in proper light and ventilation, made the place an unplanned hodge-podge. For the start of their programme, the Government, taking up a plan to remake such quarters existing in the so-called six largest cities and in the rural districts contiguous to them, enacted in March, 1927, the Insanitary Building Site Improvement Law which was enforced in the same year. It gives directions and definitions on the following items:— agents connected with the work, quarters to be improved, temporary accommodations for the inhabitants of the quarters to be remade, readjustment of land and houses, subsidy from the national treasury, and expropriation or compulsory use of land and manufactured articles.

Public Lodgings Single working men, unemployed persons and the like, as a rule, sleep at imperfectly-equipped doss-houses or cheap lodgings, or live with others. In 1925, there were 8,873 doss-houses with 92,861 monthly sojourners who had families, 200,518 single persons and 208,775 one-night lodgers, amounting to 502,154 persons in all. This situation was not at all desirable viewed from any angle, and the preparation of cheap yet healthy public lodging-houses seemed an urgent need for the welfare of labourers and the like. The number of such lodgings at the end of the fiscal year, 1929, was 140 and the monthly average number of lodgers was 109,206.

Public Markets The public markets are retail markets managed by public bodies or public welfare organizations having as their aim a cheap supply of food-stuffs and other daily necessaries. According to the investigation made in November, 1921, by the Bureau of Social Affairs, the average cost of food-stuffs of the poor families in the city of Tokyo was 54.7% of their total living expenses. On the other hand, the rapid rise of the prices of commodities in the post-war period showed no signs of halting while individual incomes failed to catch up with the price level. And in August, 1918 a rice riot was started by the poor housewives at a small village of Toyama prefecture which spread over the country like a prairie fire. The situation awakened Imperial solicitude, and ¥3,000,000 was granted for relief from the Privy Purse. The Government also provided ¥10,000,000, and the amount of contributions by wealthy men and benevolent persons reached

¥25,000,000. This money was used in giving rice to the poor in the country and in opening establishments where rice was sold at lower prices. In December of the same year, the Government issued a note encouraging the establishment of public markets, and made available loans at a low rate of interest for the necessary expenses in establishing such markets. In 1931, there were 319 such markets opened in almost all prefectures but 6, and sales for the fiscal year amounted to ¥64,910,127.

Lunch Rooms The object of the people's lunch rooms, whether attached to a public lodging-house or independent, is to provide labourers, small-salaried men and the like with simple, wholesome and sanitary meals at cheap rates. In 1931, there were 80 of these people's lunch rooms, most of them managed by public bodies and located in cities and towns, with 1,286,151 meals taken in a month. Each meal cost from 12 to 20 sen.

It is recently announced that from the beginning of September, 1933, the City Social Bureau of Tokyo will transform the sixteen municipal restaurants which were opened after the Great Earthquake to help the poorer classes in the City, into Children's Dining Halls. Meals will be furnished to under-nourished children attending the elementary schools, in the form of special school lunches, at cost; the charge will be about 7 sen each, while more than 700 of them whose parents are too poor to pay will be supplied free of charge.

Public Baths Japanese people greatly enjoy their baths, but only a small proportion of them can do so in private. The majority have to utilize public baths which, excepting those in urban localities, are in general poorly equipped, some of them being even insanitary. Moreover, it is not very infrequently the case that people take fewer baths than they require as the bath-charges are not cheap enough, and herein lies the need of sanitary, well-equipped, cheap or free public baths. The number of public baths in 1929 was 215, patronized by 2,722,886 bathers a month.

Public Pawnshops The pawnshop and the money-lender are utilized by the people of small means as a simple and popular means of monetary circulation, for the other organizations for the same purpose keep strict rules and restrictions, too strict for the convenience of such people. But those private pawnshops and money-lenders often charge high rate of interest, taking advantage of the weakness and need for secrecy of their customers, and their way of business has many disadvantages in the appraisal of things for security or pawning, the period of preserving securities and their disposition. The Public Pawnshop Law was promulgated in 1927, which regulated on the subjects of managing bodies, subsidy from the national treasury, loans, computation of interest and term of pledge. At the end of March 1930, there were 196 public pawnshops, the total amount of loan reserve being ¥2,623,328.

Protection of Unemployed

Employment Exchanges There have been from olden times private employment exchanges called "Keian" or "Kuchiireya" conducted by individuals. But there were no free exchanges until 1901, when in Hongo Ward of the City of Tokyo there was established a free lodging-house for low class labourers and the unemployed, and along with this charitable work the first private free employment exchange was founded for the lodgers in 1906. The earli-

est public employment exchanges were established in Tokyo, in 1911. At the close of the Great War, the Home Office felt the urgent necessity of extending and developing the employment exchanges in order to meet the needs of the time. In 1920, the Office put into circulation a low-interest loan for the establishment of the employment exchanges to cope with the demands caused by an extreme business depression. And in June of the same year, the Home Office, in order to systematize the work of employment exchanges, took charge of all the affairs relating to them, and in order to extend, unite and develop them, allowed the Kyocho-Kai to start a central managing office of all the employment exchanges in the country.

(a) Employment Exchange Law. Complying with the general demand, the Employment Exchange Law was issued in 1921. According to this Act, employment exchanges are, in principle, public organizations. They are voluntarily established and conducted by the heads of cities or towns, but in some instances the Home Minister gives orders for the establishment in places where he thinks the conditions demand it. The National Government subsidizes them to the extent of one-half of the expenses for buildings and equipment at the beginning and one-sixth or less of other expenses. One Central and several Local Employment Exchange Bureaux are to be founded for the unification of those exchanges in the country, and the work is under the supervision of the Home Minister and the Directors of these Bureaux. A standing committee is to be established to direct the management of the exchanges. There may also be established private free employment exchanges with the permission of the administrative authorities, and the aid afforded by all these employment exchanges must be free of charge.

After the enforcement of this Law, in November, 1922, the convention relating to unemployment, adopted by the First International Labour Conference at Washington, was ratified and published for the encouragement of this kind of work. In addition to the provision above mentioned, the Regulations for Enforcement of the Employment Exchange Law were revised, 1924, in order to systematize the connections among employment exchanges, and there were also newly-introduced regulations for the establishment of seasonal-employment exchanges, and of employment exchange committees in cities and towns for the promotion of this work. It is true that there are still a great many employment exchanges run for profit, but owing to the increase and improvement of public employment exchanges, they are gradually decreasing. And to conform with a resolution adopted at the Washington Conference of 1919, the National Government enforced from the 1st of January, 1927, the Regulations for the Control of Employment Exchanges for Profit.

(b) Activities of employment exchanges. In March, 1923, the Government established the Employment Exchange Bureau, and in April, the Central Employment Exchange Bureau, the Tokyo and the Osaka Local Employment Exchange Bureaux, and in April, 1927, the Nagoya Local Employment Exchange Bureau. In February, 1924, the system of the Employment Exchange Committee was introduced as an enquiry office for the administrative authorities concerned with the work. Under these Central and Local organs according to the statistics taken at the end of 1930, there are 304 such employment exchanges, only 39 of these being established by private

bodies, cases involving workers in the shops and factories being 1,168,114, and that for day-labourers reaching to the enormous number of 6,174,973, during the same year.

(c) Privileges in connection with employment. The privileges to be enjoyed by those who are cared for by public employment exchanges and the special arrangements connected with them are as follows:

(1) Reduction in fares — half third-class—is allowed for a train or steamer, (2) An advance of wages may be granted, (3) Loans may be made for expenses in travelling from the present domicile to the destination, (4) Implements for work are lent; also (5) Mutual aid systems of unemployment insurance, medical treatment and credit, (6) Occupational fitness test for the choice of work, (7) Vocational guidance lecture meetings, and (8) A low interest loan, may all be availed of.

(d) Juvenile Employment Exchange. Juvenile employment has lately become one of the most important social problems which draws the serious attention of thinking people. To encourage boys and girls to choose their work according to their abilities is most desirable in view of the fact that their livelihood will thus be made secure for the future and there will be smaller danger of their losing positions. The Government has paid much attention to this point since the year 1925, and the Employment Exchange Bureaus, taking into consideration the opinions of the prefectural authorities, designated the elementary schools to be connected with Public Employment Exchanges, and held consultation meetings on this subject, calling school masters and other persons concerned to attend, and a committee for juvenile vocational guidance was to be established, composed of those officials of Public Employment Exchanges who were well informed of juvenile employment and those educationists, doctors and social workers for child protection who were well versed in child psychology.

There are three institutions for the juvenile employment guidance, namely, the Tokyo Prefectural Juvenile Employment Exchange, the Tokyo City Woman and Juvenile Employment Exchange, and the Juvenile Division of Osaka City Central Employment Exchange. Many Public Employment Exchanges include the work of juvenile employment exchange, beside these organizations.

In 1929, there were 25,625 elementary schools of which about 3,000 had connection with Public Employment Exchanges, and of the children who completed the course at these schools in March of the year, 38,588 children were seeking employment, and 15,130 of 27,144 helped by Employment Exchanges got positions, including 5,326 apprentices, 4,040 shop boys, and 2,034 office boys.

(e) Unemployment Relief. The Government, in 1925, asked the six largest cities and Osaka Prefecture to start public works in order to provide work for day-labourers who were suffering from seasonal unemployment in winter, and granted half of the cost for wages to labourers thus employed. This work generally concerns itself with roads, dredging, waterworks, sewers, banks of rivers, reclamation of land, etc. The local public organizations connected with the 6 largest cities have been engaged, since, in this work every year with the support from the Government.

(f) Vocational Guidance and Provision of Employment. The work of vocational guidance and providing employment has developed only of late years, especially since the Great Earthquake. Vocational guidance

emphasizes the development of ability for employment by simple methods, while providing employment means the utilization of institutions necessary for employment. The oldest institution for vocational guidance is the Tokyo Municipal Vocational Guidance Society, which is a juridical body established in 1922, with a fund of ¥100,000 contributed to the city by the Kanegafuchi Spinning Company for the relief of the unemployed. The Home Office, recognizing the Society as a suitable institution for the relief of the sufferers, granted a subsidy amounting to over ¥454,000 from the contributions for the Earthquake sufferers. Following the example of Tokyo, the cities of Osaka and Kobé have since established vocational guidance societies with contributions from the said Kanegafuchi Spinning Company, each amounting to ¥100,000. There are now 8 institutions for vocational guidance in the country.

Institutions for providing employment are much older than those for vocational guidance. The first example was an organization established by Fukuoka prefecture, in 1884, for the purpose of giving employment to samurai families after the abolition of feudalism. This work has gradually been extended with the change of social conditions and increasing financial difficulties, and there are 73 organizations giving employment, chiefly home work for women, such as hand and machine sewing, knitting, embroidering, doll-making, lace-making, flax-thread-making, envelope-making and the like.

In connection with the work of providing employment, one word seems to be necessary about the Keisei-Sha. It is a juridical corporation, with an endowment fund of ¥1,700,000. This organization is engaged in such work as protecting the crippled, giving them employment, helping them to study, and providing them with artificial limbs. This study of the problem of providing artificial limbs by the organization is so far the only example in this country, though it has been greatly developed abroad and especially since the European War. It is believed that it will do much in the future toward the promotion of the happiness of the crippled. The homes as well as the workshops of the organization are situated in the compounds of the Asylum for Disabled Soldiers in Tokyo prefecture.

(g) Mutual aid for unemployment. Special organizations for the relief of day-labourers, are the Kobé Labour Insurance Association, the Osaka Labourers' Mutual Aid Society and the Tokyo City Labourers' Mutual Aid Society.

The Kobé Labour Insurance Association recognizes as members persons introduced by the Kobé Municipal Labour Exchange, who wishing to engage in day-labour have sent in their application and received a certificate. It gives a certain grant in case of death, disablement, injury, illness, etc., as well as in case of unemployment. Each member pays 5 sen to the Association for each day employed, and those who employ the labourers introduced by the Municipal Labour Exchange are treated as special members and have to pay 3 sen a day for each person they employ, and the Association gives to each of the unemployed members 60 sen a day, but only to those members who have had at least one work day and at least 4 unemployed days within the latest 10 consecutive days and are still unemployed for at least 3 consecutive days.

The Osaka Labourers' Mutual Aid Society was organized in June, 1924. In addition to its main work of relieving those who suffer from injury and unemployment, this Society has a broad range of work such as the lending of money for living expenses, the encouragement of savings, the education of labourers, the sale of cheap daily commodities, the dispensing of medical aid, the holding of meetings for entertainment, the lending of books, the management of lodgings, etc. The Tokyo City Labourers' Mutual Aid Society was established as an organ for relief in time of calamities, the guaranty for credit and the promotion of welfare for those applicants for employment who are treated by the Tokyo City Employment Exchange. These experiments in Kobé, Osaka and Tokyo, though there are precedents in foreign countries, are the first of this kind in this country, and it seems to be necessary not only to encourage the establishment of more such organizations but also to give them a solid legal foundation. Moreover, if the day ever comes when an unemployment insurance system like those of the Western World is introduced to Japan, these organizations might prove of assistance in helping to frame such a system.

The Population and Food Investigation Committee has adopted very important resolutions, and the Government is now seriously studying the points contained in them. The most important of them are (1) to put employment exchanges under the management of the State, (2) to provide the means for prevention of unemployment and relief work by the establishment of public unemployment funds of the State and local public bodies, (3) to take some measure for the supervision and encouragement of unemployment mutual aid institutions, (4) to encourage and supervise the establishment of the systems of giving discharge allowances and of providing unemployment reserve funds (5) to encourage the establishment by industrials themselves of labour efficiency and unemployment prevention committees, and (6) to establish such organizations as an unemployment investigation committee or an unemployment investigation institute.

As for the establishment of an unemployment insurance system, the Government, besides trying to obtain exact figures about unemployment as the basis of such a system, is doing its best not only to examine the results of systems of discharge allowances, mutual aid associations and health insurance but also to make a comparative study of the legislation on this subject in various foreign countries, and when it reaches definite conclusion, intends to submit it to a labour insurance investigation committee.

Poor Relief

General Poor Relief The Regulations for Relief of the Poor were promulgated as early as 1874, and have not been subjected to any revision and have only five Articles. According to the Regulations, as a principle the relief of the poor is the responsibility of the people themselves or of municipalities, and only the completely destitute who need urgent attention are given rice at the expense of the National Government. Besides, not only are the conditions for application of these Regulations very rigid, but also the amount of relief is very scanty.

The relief by public local bodies is not yet systematized. But the Block Committee System has spread throughout the country and relief work has begun to be done much more effectively. The qualifications for relief by public bodies are, gen-

erally, not attended with such rigid limitations with respect to age and living as is the case with the Regulations for Relief of the Poor. The amount of relief varies according to whether the place is a city or village, while the kinds of relief to be given may sometimes be money, sometimes articles, and sometimes the expenses for medical treatment or funeral services. The period of time for relief should generally be as long as it is required, but sometimes, especially when the case is taken up by a Block Committee, it is fixed, for example, at three or four weeks. The method of relief is of two kinds, indoor and outdoor, and as for the former, such large cities as Tokyo or Yokohama have their own homes or other relief institutions, otherwise the smaller municipalities entrust the relief of the poor to those orphanages, asylums or charity hospitals which are managed by private persons or organizations.

At the end of the fiscal year 1929, the number of the poor relieved at homes was 55,424 and the number of cases treated by institutions was 32,431.

Special Poor Relief Special poor relief, as against general poor relief, includes (1) Proper attention for those found sick, dying or dead by the roadside, (2) Relief of sufferers from natural calamities, and (3) Relief of empoverished soldiers and their bereaved families.

Attention to the sick and dead found by the roadside is of fairly long standing, but the regulations now in force were issued in 1899; these regulations aim at relieving those people who are found sick on the road, or disposal of dead bodies, and care for the children who are with them. The heads of the cities or towns where they are found must apply to the prefectures concerned for authority to take charge of them in case there are no relations on whom they can depend. The expenses for their relief, if not met by those who are relieved themselves or their supporters, must be defrayed by the prefectures concerned, and they may be handed over to public or private institutions for further help though there is no fixed period of time. The number, in 1929, of sick persons thus relieved was 6,551, and 4,107 dead bodies were cared for, at an expenditure of ¥634,641 including all the expenses of local governments and the National grant.

Calamity Relief Japan suffers particularly from natural calamities owing to its climate and volcanic activities, the losses amounting to nearly ¥150,000,000 every year, from fires and floods. To relieve the sufferers from these calamities, there have been established the Natural Calamities Relief Fund Law and Sea Disaster Relief Fund Law, in 1899. The Government had promulgated the Biko Chochiku Law in 1880, according to which ¥1,200,000 each year had been paid out of the National Treasury. This amount of money had been distributed between the Central Government and Prefectures which in addition to this national aid had appropriated public saving funds. Consequently, the total of the funds both of the Central Government and Prefectures had been enormous. Since 1890, the disbursement from the National Treasury and the appropriations by Prefectures had been abolished and the said Laws were issued instead. At the end of March 1929, the total amount of the Funds was ¥85,681,205, and the amount of the disbursement for relief out of these Funds totalled ¥649,389.

With the sad experience at the time of the Great Earthquake of 1923 fresh in the public memory, Osaka and Kyoto introduced the Great Calamities' Relief Regulations soon after that terrible event, according to which the Prefectural Offices, the Municipal Offices, the Army Division, and the Gendarmerie Corps are to co-operate in cases of great emergency.

The annual number of marine disasters off the coasts of Japan is over 1,000, and the average number of persons killed, injured or missing in these disasters reaches 600 or 700 a year. For the relief of these persons, the Sea Disaster Relief Law was issued in 1899, by the terms of which the heads of municipalities are invested with certain powers to give relief at the expense of the captain or owner of the ship concerned, but in case the money is not refunded by the captain or owner, or the relief proves insufficient, the expense incurred is paid by the National Government.

Military Relief Military relief work is different from other relief work. Its object is to give help to soldiers or their families who are suffering from want on account of military service. The method of this relief is of two kinds, institutional and domiciliary, and the law for the former is the Disabled Soldiers' Asylum Law and for the latter the Military Relief Law.

The Disabled Soldiers' Asylum Law provides for the life-time care in the Disabled Soldiers' Asylum of those who are receiving an additional pension on account of wounds received on active service or illness incurred during their term of service. The governing condition is that they must have no other source of help, but those who need such relief and suffer from deformity or disablement more severe than the kinds mentioned in Article 24, Items 1 and 2 of the Enforcement Regulations of the Pension Law, can also be taken care of. The admission of all cases shall be sanctioned by the Home Minister. There is one such asylum established by the State at Sugamo, Tokyo.

The Military Relief Law was issued in 1928. By this Act, relief is given to common soldiers who were disabled or crippled while in public service, and to their families, to the families of soldiers on active service or soldiers called out for special service and the families of soldiers who died on service if the said families are in need of help.

The cost for this relief has been increasing though the number of cases fluctuates every year. The figures for the fiscal year 1929 were 16,379 households and 51,856 persons relieved, and ¥1,586,787 expended for the purpose.

Private Military Relief The organizations for private military relief work numbered 31 at the end of March 1929, the Japan Red Cross Society and the Imperial Military Aid Society being the most prominent, and these organizations are mainly engaged in the giving of relief, generally temporary, to those who are outside the application of the Military Relief Law.

Necessity of Revision of the Present System As has been mentioned above, the Regulations for the Relief of the Poor were enacted a very long time ago, and since then there has not been any modification of them, in spite of the effort of the Government to effect some revisions in the Imperial Diet. It is only natural that such old-fashioned regulations cannot meet the needs of the present day. The recent economic development has intensified the struggle for existence and it is to be doubted whether the present system of poor relief should be founded upon mutual aid and the goodwill of

neighbours alone. Regulations for the future should be based on the responsibility of the public and social solidarity.

Health Protection

From very long ago, the Imperial Household has paid attention to the care of the sick. A sort of dispensary called Hospitals for the Poor were established in 593, by Prince Shotoku. The present Saisei-Kai, a foundational juridical person, established by the wish of the Emperor Meiji to give medical treatment to the poor, continues the work of these ancient hospitals.

Free Medical Treatment There are fairly many organizations which give free treatment, e.g., hospitals, medical consultation offices, visiting treatment societies, visiting nursing societies, etc. There are 126 hospitals and 245 smaller branch hospitals or medical clinics, according to the statistics of 1929, persons treated by the hospitals only being 48,273 in-patients and 992,866 out-patients, with an annual expenditure of ¥5,516,935.

Cheap Medical Treatment The Cheap Medical Treatment movement has attracted public attention recently. The object of this work is to give treatment to patients belonging to the classes in receipt of limited incomes, the poorer middle class, such as low-salaried officials, clerks, constables, teachers, students, or labourers, charging fees lower than those of general medical practitioners. As their usual income is so small that it is also impossible for them to save against any emergency, it is very desirable that they should be able to get medical treatment at rates proportionate with their meagre means. According to the report of the Sanitary Bureau of the Home Office, in 1930, there were 37 works with 35,794 in-patients and 910,455 treatments. The oldest one of these 37 is the Hakuai-In attached to La Communaute' de St. Paul de Chartres en Japon. This cheap medical treatment work is a step ahead of the gratuitous treatment that has up to this time been generally practised, and is a very important undertaking for the preservation of the health of the middle classes.

Sanatoria, Asylums and Special Hospitals We find a regulation concerning mental disease in the Taiho Laws issued in 701. But the number of sufferers increased in direct proportion to the advancement of civilization. Our statistics record the fact that at the end of 1912 there were 32,964 insane persons, by the end of 1922 the figure rose to 50,891, and in 1930 it stood at 73,166, that is 11.35 in every 10,000 of the population. This report, however, gives only the conspicuous cases enumerated through police-investigation, for the need of police business. If we employ the method of estimating the rate of mentally deranged persons used in the Western countries, the number may reach somewhere near 120,000—200,000.

(a) Laws and regulations concerning insane persons. The Law for the custody of Insane Persons was enacted in 1900, with the object of protecting the public from harm at the hands of insane people. It provides for the appointment of a responsible person to place an insane person under his custody, and if necessary, by the approval of the prefectural governor, to confine the said insane person. The expenses, according to this law, shall be borne by the estate of the insane persons themselves or by proper responsible persons, as the case may be, and in case any insane person protected by the order of the head of a municipality is unable to reimburse the money advanced by the municipality, the prefecture shall bear the expenses.

The Insane Asylums Law, which may be taken as a sub-division of the previous one, gives power to the competent Minister to order and bring prefectures, if necessary, under obligation to establish insane asylums or hospitals (Art. 1), and makes provisions concerning the state subsidy.

(b) Present condition of insane asylums and hospitals. There are 9 public hospitals for the insane and 245 hospitals and asylums, with combined capacity for 14,426 patients. In May 1931, there were 10,773 patients treated by them.

(c) Tuberculosis. Tuberculosis is one of the greatest foes of humanity, and one of the hardest to conquer. It is almost impossible to get the exact number of the cases of tuberculosis in this country but the mortality statistics tell us that in 1931, there were 89,192 killed by this disease, that is 71.9 in every 1,000 deaths. The Government issued regulations, 1914, concerning the establishment of tuberculosis sanatoria in cities of more than 30,000 population, and regulating the state subsidy thereto. The present Tuberculosis Prevention Law was enacted in 1919.

There were 17 public tuberculosis sanitoria at the end of 1930, with the full capacity of 2,460. Of these sanatoria, in addition to the Kaishun-En established by Fukushima Prefecture, some were established in accordance with the provision of the Tuberculosis Prevention Law and some approved by the same law. These sanatoria admit only those patients who have no means to pay for treatment, or patients whose entering a sanatorium is necessitated for prevention of the spread of the disease. The number of patients, in the 54 sanatoria public and private, was 3,424, December, 1930, with the expenditure of ¥1,419,337 during the fiscal year 1928-1929. Of course, the fact that there are many other private and public hospitals which have special equipment for tuberculosis treatment must be remembered. But they do not come under the scope of social work.

(d) Leprosy. For the prevention of leprosy, the Leprosy Prevention Law was issued in 1908. By this law, aid for indigent lepers out of public funds, the order of the competent Minister for the establishment of leper-asylums by united prefectures, or the use of private ones in lieu of public ones and other such matters are provided for. The whole country, in conformity with this law, was divided into five Divisions numbered one to five. Besides these 6 public leper-asylums, there are 7 private ones. The Koyama Fukusei In, established by the Roman Catholic Church in Shizuoka prefecture, the Ihai En in Tokyo prefecture, the famous Kumamoto Kaishun Byoin founded by an English lady, Miss Riddell, and the Tairo In in Kumamoto prefecture have done valuable work for many years, being managed by Christian missionaries. The total number of in-patients, including both public and private, is 4,118, and the annual expenses are ¥1,025,449, in the fiscal year 1928-1929.

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORKS IN JAPAN

(The fiscal year 1929-1930)

Name	Organization or Institution	Property and Fund	Expenditure
Organs	313	¥31,116,850	¥2,390,483
Unifying organizations	44	4,253,130	413,859
Investigation org.	35	1,545	872
Educational org.	6	22,000	10,249
Supplementary org.	14	26,066,842	1,340,022
Block committees	74		442,268
Backing organs of the Block committees	140	773,333	183,213
Child protection	1,274	14,347,750	3,882,444
Protection of pregnant women			
(Midwives)	378	8,684	99,648
(Hospitals)	40	1,031,767	339,590
Protection of suckling infants	16	272,756	112,989
Day-nursery	419	3,055,175	849,807
Feeding infants	120	5,841,548	818,008
Child consultation	111	45,885	127,998
Protection of cripples	1	16,708	2,115
Protection of weak children	6	1,895,337	354,747
Protection of sick children	17	35,206	27,517
Protection of poor children	40	777,181	142,885
Schools for nursemaids	17	19,814	7,013
Education of working children	7	13,687	4,714
Reformatory education	61		785,695
Reformatory protection	31	191,346	84,046
Protection of abnormal children	6	1,080,192	105,245
Economical protection	1,584		
Housing work	635		
Common inns	140		
Public markets	321		
Cheap dining rooms	77		
Public baths	215		
Public pawnshops	196	loan 4,260,885	
Relief and prevention of unemployment	349	1,599,330	2,712,186
Giving works	73	1,393,276	1,478,707
Employment exchanges	270		1,011,331
Vocational guidance	6	206,054	222,148
Poor relief	539	19,008,321	2,381,992
Relief at homes	178	3,481,867	278,023
Relief in institutions	90	10,134,880	1,324,429
Protection of cripples and invalids	25	1,495,137	185,399
Protection of the bereaved families of soldiers	246	3,896,437	594,141
Medical treatment	501	31,628,385	9,822,308
Charity hospitals	126	20,089,576	5,516,935
Consultation rooms	245	3,486,108	1,311,890
Consignment treatments	57	335,341	67,852
Insane hospitals	36	1,297,703	480,845
Tuberculosis sanatoria	25	4,073,591	1,419,337
Leper homes	12	2,346,066	1,025,449
Miscellaneous	467	118,144,315	21,078,466
Settlement works	97	4,338,596	812,507
Consultation bureaux	146	43,721	18,154
Protection of women	19	565,953	119,659
Visiting sick people	8	46,985	35,808
Hygienic education	88	1,501,190	262,032
Funeral aids	6	76,811	44,949
Smaller works	103	111,571,056	19,785,357
Total	5,027	215,844,951	42,267,879

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORKS IN JAPAN

(The fiscal year 1929-1930)

Name	Results (Cases or men treated)		Workers
Organs	(Cases)	637,920	19,558
	(Students)	178	
Unifying organizations		—	449
Investigation org.		—	30
Educational org.	(Students)	178	74
Supplementary org.		—	26
Block committees	(Cases)	637,920	18,913
Backing organs of the Block commitees		—	66
Child protection		243,241	4,414
	(Cases)	57,596	
	(Tsubo)	1,550,695	
Protection of pregnant women			
(Midwives)		6,449	330
	(Cases)	18,352	
(Hospitals)		39,481	268
Protection of suckling infants		4,289	82
	(Cases)	13,569	
Day-nursery		48,509	1,635
Feeding infants		6,258	753
Child consultation		114,680	260
	(Cases)	25,675	
Protection of cripples		14	6
Protection of weak children		792	160
	(Tsubo)	1,550,695	
Protection of sick children		12,419	47
Protection of poor children		4,622	162
Schools for nursemaids		717	47
Education of working children		203	33
Reformatory education		3,615	480
Reformatory protection			
Protection of abnormal children		140	35
Economical protection	(Houses)	32,803	16
	(Tsubo)	50,077,888	
	(Sale)	70,465,216 (yen)	
	(Loan)	5,172,329 (yen)	
Housing work	(Houses)	32,803	
Common inns	(Tsubo)	2,510,472	
Public markets	(Sale)	70,465,216	
Cheap dining rooms	(Tsubo)	14,892,781	
Public baths	(Tsubo)	32,674,635	
Public pawnshops	(Loan)	5,172,329 (yen)	
Relief and prevention of unemployment		278,108	1,468
Giving works		13,951	300
Employment exchanges	(Hired)	263,669	1,098
Vocational guidance		488	70
Poor relief		22,808	937
	(Cases)	55,458	
	(Tsubo)	36,653	
Relief at homes		9,649	219
	(Cases)	55,424	
Relief in institutions		5,665	558
	(Tsubo)	32,431	
Protection of cripples and invalids		736	70
	(Tsubo)	4,222	
Protection of the bereaved families of soldiers		6,758	90
	(Cases)	34	
Medical treatment		1,577,226	12,034
Charity hospitals		1,041,139	6,411
Consultation rooms		508,173	3,724
Consignment treatments		9,590	408

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORKS IN JAPAN

(The fiscal year 1929-1930)

Name	Results (Cases or men treated)		Workers
Insane hospitals		7,996	787
Tuberculosis sanatoria		6,230	568
Leper homes		4,118	136
Miscellaneous		4,077	1,014
Settlement works	(Cases)	64,637	
Consultation bureaux			
Protection of women	(Cases)	48,996	102
		2,545	67
Visiting sick people	(Cases)	1,435	
Hygienic education		1,532	12
Funeral aids			24
Smaller works	(Cases)	14,206	12
			1,697
Total		2,125,638	40,325
	(Cases)	815,611	
	(Tsubo)	51,665,236	
	(Houses)	32,803	
	(Sale)	70,465,216 (yen)	
	(Loan)	5,172,329 (yen)	

Social Enlightenment Work

Social enlightenment, broadly considered, may be held to include such important matters as the instruction, education and spiritual culture of the masses; but here it is used to mean only those enlightenment works which are directly concerned with social work.

Settlement Work This may include a great variety of work according to the conditions in the areas concerned, but the very nature of this work demands that education and culture be the most important elements of it. Therefore the actual work undertaken by most settlement work institutions is of such kinds as the establishment of various classes for elementary, supplementary, occupational, and labour education, the holding of lectures, special courses, debates, reading and study meetings, the drama, the investigation of social conditions by visiting homes and health consultations, and the providing of day-nurseries, literary work, personal advice offices, and relief institutes.

Settlement work in Japan is comparatively new. The University Settlement of the Salvation Army established in 1908 in Tokyo was the first instance of the kind, but its office was burnt down in 1913. Since then, however, more of such institutions have gradually been established and at the end of March, 1929, there were 17 public settlements and 80 private ones.

Work for Reform of Manners This kind of work in Japan was started first chiefly by Christian bodies, but lately has gradually come to attract the general attention of society, with the co-operation of the people in general.

In order to prevent the harm, economic, hygienic and moral, which drinking inflicts on those who are addicted to this habit, the temperance movement, since the establishment of the Japan Temperance Union in 1898, has spread throughout the country, quickening the establishment of temperance bodies in various places. The legislation in America in 1920 for bone-dry prohibition has given special stimulus to this movement in Japan and has caused this problem to be treated as a social and state problem from a scientific and social point of view, and not merely as a personal question to be approached from merely a moral and religious point of view. This led to a motion for the raising of the age for the application of the Miners' Prohibition Law, April, 1922, and the temperance habit has come to be more widely observed voluntarily by groups in local self-governing bodies specially of young men. Though various other kinds of enlightenment bodies are also engaged in the encouragement of temperance, the number of those organizations which had temperance as their exclusive object was 314, with 109,125 members, at the end of March, 1926. Of all these, the largest is the Japan National Temperance League.

Prostitution Work in connection with the various problems presented by prostitution was also started originally by the Christian churches. The practical movement in aid and protection of licensed prostitutes began in 1900, and has since been supported by such organizations as the Central Women's Relief Department of the Salvation Army and the Japanese Women's Christian Temperance Union. It is much regretted that the number of licensed prostitutes has rather increased with the recent financial difficulties among the peasants. Such abominable figures as 52,117 for licensed prostitutes, and 75,535 for unlicensed, (though this class of girls is decreasing) present a great problem before all conscientious people.

Enlightenment Work It is an accepted fact that the purpose of all social work is to enhance the welfare of the people in order that they may reap the full benefits of modern civilization. But lately, the development of economical and social conditions has given birth to various kinds of complicated social problems, such as labour and tenant disputes, and closer intercourse with foreign countries has caused a questioning of national ideals and introduction of many foreign radical ideas, and this sometimes results in anti-social outbursts. Therefore it is of vital importance to interpret to the people our national constitution in its true aspect and make them cultivate genuine national ideas. The Government, recognizing this need, is trying to get people to live up to the principles embodied in the Imperial Rescript on the Realization of the National Spirit, promulgated in November, 1923, by such means as the distribution of a great number of copies of that Imperial Rescript and the publication of the official announcement by the Prime Minister and instructions by the Home Minister. The definite number of enlightenment work organizations is difficult to obtain, owing to the great variety of work engaged in by them, but in 1927, those organizations which received an encouragement grant from the Government numbered 92, of which the oldest was the Dai Nippon Hotoku Sha established in 1875. All these organizations are chiefly engaged in such work as the holding of lecture and special course meetings, the publishing of books and pamphlets, and the utilizing of films.

But the social unrest has become unspeakably greater in the past five years. The communists' movement and organization of a strong secret Bolshevik society in Japan startled the whole nation in 1928 and ever since the events of March 15th of that year the authorities have been doing their utmost to uproot and exterminate this new growth. Yet the more severe the measures taken

by the authorities, the more furtive becomes the propaganda of the communist party. While the authorities were kept busy with the communists, reactionary secret societies began to rise, first against the socialists and then against the misery of social conditions, the wealthy people, and finally the system of Parliamentary Government. Their movement began to take the colour of the Fascisti. Fascism may spread among the people more rapidly than Marxist communism, taking patriotism as one of its most conspicuous principles. But their recent violent actions, such as the assassination of the Premier and outstanding business men, are severely criticized by the public, and they seem to have lost the sympathy of the better part of the people. In the face of these conflicting parties both arising from the social, political and economical unrest of the nation as a whole, the Government is endeavouring to unite the people's mind by arousing the deep-seated loyalty to the Emperor and hereditary patriotism of the people, specially taking advantage of the Manchurian troubles to this end. For the solution of economical unrest, the Government is encouraging the economical resurrection of local communities and municipalities by their own internal resources, not relying so much upon grants or help from the Central Government. The propaganda of "self-help" is spread to the four corners of Japan through innumerable organizations. The Government had adopted some principles relating to the encouragement of economy in 1924 and established the Central Thrift Encouragement Committee. This Committee, in co-operation with the local thrift encouragement committees, has provided various means for encouraging thrift among the people.

Young Men's Associations The young men's or women's associations of Japan ought not to be confounded with Christian Y.M.C.A. or Y.W.C.A. for they have not any religious purpose and are not by any means an imitation of them. The history of the Japanese Young Men's Association can be traced back to fairly olden times, when there were two distinct organizations, one drawn from the samurai and the other from the ordinary people. The former was organized with the school of a clan as its centre, and moral and mental culture was its chief purpose. The latter was an organization not only for social intercourse but also for vigilance and culture. But the Restoration brought about the amalgamation of these two kinds of Associations. Owing to the surprising development of the nation in general, through the Meiji and Taisho Eras, Young Men's Associations came to be considered of much account for the greater progress of the nation for the future, and the importance of suitable guidance of the rising generation came to be recognized more fully than ever. Since the publication of the instructions of the Home and the Educational Ministers in 1915, 1918 and 1920, regarding the leading principles of these Associations, many of them have evolved a new spirit and system and become real organs of culture for young men, their regular members being those boys who have completed their course of compulsory education and are still under twenty years of age. In 1930, the number of Young Men's Associations was 15,202 with a membership of 2,495,708. These associations have formed their city, district, and prefectural unions, and in April, 1926, the Great Nippon Young Men's Association Union was established, thus completing a whole system

throughout the country. The Union holds its mass meeting once a year. A noteworthy fact about the present tendency of these young men's associations is that in accordance with Government instructions issued in 1920, the directors of the associations have gradually come to be chosen from among the members themselves, not from among principals of schools or heads of local municipalities as hitherto. The number of those associations which have completed their self-governing system is over 6,000 out of the whole number above mentioned. The expenditure of these associations has increased with their expansion and reaches almost 4 million yen a year. It is spent in such social and educational works as the encouragement of physical exercise, the opening of popular lecture meetings on politics, citizenship etc., or summer schools, and the establishment of libraries and halls. The Great Nippon Young Men's Association Union has its own building, the Japan Young Men's Hall, in the Outer Garden of the Meiji Shrine.

Young Women's Associations These associations were rather slow in their development as compared with those of young men, but lately the progress of the times, especially the awakening of the weaker sex in the past few years, greatly stimulated their advance and extension. In 1930, there were 13,225 Young Women's Associations with a membership of 1,567,123, and their present rate of progress is approaching that of the Young Men's Associations. The Government, recognizing the importance of the education of young women who do not take any regular course of study in the higher schools, issued instructions in 1926 in the name of the Ministers of Home Affairs and Education to the effect that these Associations should not only foster womanly virtues but also give instructions on public spirit and contribute toward social welfare in general. In April, 1927, the Great Nippon Young Women's Association Union was established as the central organ of Young Women's Associations.

Socialization of Medical Treatment

The Imperial Edict of the Emperor Meiji on the medical relief of the poor was truly epoch-making so far as concerns social work in Japan as it was mentioned above. But its most important historical meaning was not in the establishment of the Imperial Charity Association by Premier Katsura in accordance with the Imperial Edict, but in the fact that the Emperor Meiji himself was in advance of the general public of his day in recognizing the advent of social unrest and general tendency of thought toward radicalism, which were largely caused by the late economical changes in the nation, and voiced these admonitions on the facts which the nation must face.

There were some who were aware of the gravity of this social unrest and endeavoured to call the attention of the Government to it, but the attitude of the latter, specially that of the Katsura Cabinet, was through and through aggressive against all social movements and meetings, imbued with the idea, common among Government university scholars, that the Empire was free from any such great gap between the rich and the poor as exists in Western countries, and from their consequent labour or poor problems. Of course it was wise for the Government to suppress the attempt of some socialists to employ direct means for the solution of social problems, but it was short-sight-

ed not to recognize the dangerous tendency of social affairs or to be entirely blinded by scholastic theories not borne out by facts.

Ten years after the issue of the Imperial edict on poor relief, at the 44th session of the Imperial Diet, January, 1921, Premier Hara said that in Japan no such broad line of demarcation separated the rich from the poor as was the case abroad, and Japan was consequently free from the dangers inherent to such a cleavage. This was in answer to an interpellation in the Diet by Mr. Umeshiro Suzuki, calling the attention of the Government to social unrest. Little could he foresee that in October of that same year he would himself be the victim of a young man's dagger at the Tokyo Station. The Emperor Meiji pointed out, in his edict, that Japan was also experiencing an economical change with the general trend in the world, that the people were at sea about their national destination, that the Government ought to make efforts to educate the people and give them work so as to lead them to a healthy development, that it was most regrettable to see faithful but poor subjects suffering from illness unable to get medical treatment, and that there was acute need to give suitable relief to them ; and he gave a large amount of money elsewhere mentioned.

The thing most dreaded by the labouring classes is sickness or injury. Once smitten by sickness or rendered idle by injury, a workman is thrown out of work no matter how much he may desire it and has no means of getting medical treatment ; his days of unemployment may be prolonged forever, and finally he may be stripped of all his possessions and his family may starve. If every worker were assured of strong health and every sick person could get medical treatment in some way or other, the labouring classes would be relieved of the dread of destitution. The Emperor's edict struck at the core of the social problem. The Emperor himself did not state how the work should be carried out, but left it altogether with the Government officials. But his idea must have been not merely the relief of the actual poor but the prevention of poverty brought on by bodily inabilities. It is, of course, necessary to rescue the poor who face starvation, but the majority of the proletariat who do not like to be helped by charity work must be saved from falling over the brink of the precipice into the jaws of dire poverty ; and this must be done not by charitable giving but by preventive social work.

Old Idea of Charity That the Imperial Charity Association confined itself to old-fashioned charity work was rather natural because the general ideas of the time on social work were as yet primitive and unformed. In those days the relief of the poor meant charity or benevolence only. The relief of the poor was almost entirely left to benevolent individuals or religious bodies, and a comparatively small number of the poor by the wayside and invalids and orphans were cared for by public bodies or municipalities or the nation.

Most people did not know anything of prevention work or social policy for helping the proletariat before they become hopelessly poor so as to make the number of the poor as small as possible. That this kind of social policy is the responsibility of the nation and society in general was never dreamt of by them before.

For instance, in 1913 when the Imperial Charity Association had been already at work for two years, the Japanese Government and municipalities relieved but 7,629 people with an expenditure of ¥135,039 or ¥18.40 per capita. The number of the whole population of Japan proper in that year was 52,398,000. The percentage of the relieved was infinitesimal. The national disbursement in the same year amounted to ¥573,634,000. The amount used for the social relief bears no comparison with it. The fact is that only ¥47,120 was provided for the purpose by the National Treasury.

On the supposition that the Japanese industrial development was 30 years behind the times in comparison with that of Western countries, let us compare this relief work of the Japanese Government in 1913 with those of the European Powers in the fiscal year 1884-1885. In that fiscal year, Germany relieved 1,591,386 poor people with an expenditure amounting to 73,000,000 marks, France received 1,505,115 poor people to her national houses for the poor, and England relieved 791,707, against Japan's 7,629 with an expenditure of but ¥135,039. The percentage of the number of the relieved versus the total number of population, was :— Germany 3.4, France 3.9, and England 2.9. If Japan were to help the poor at a similar rate in 1913 she should have relieved 1,571,940 men instead of 7,629. We can hardly suppose that the real number of the poor in Japan was so small at that time ; rather, we should feel shame at our neglect of them.

A Trial There appeared, however, among the thinking people of Japan those who recognized the importance of preventive social work and who were not satisfied with the merely benevolent attitude toward their poor patients shown by the managers and doctors of the Imperial Charity Association. Among them, there were Mr. Umeshiro Suzuki and Dr. T. Kato who began a movement for the establishment of the cost-price public infirmary. Mr. U. Suzuki tells of his motive in his first planning this kind of social work in his booklet "The Socialization of Medical Treatment." The gist of his story is as follows : Mr. Suzuki became the manager of the Oji Paper Manufactory, one of the largest of its kind in Japan, in 1902, and worked for 8 years for the improvement of the company, travelling for the investigation of branch factories in country districts. He found that the medical preparations were nearly complete in some factories, but it was reserved for the factory labourers only. The people of the village at which the factory was located had no practitioner and could not get any medical treatment, however grave their case might be. And the villagers were asking for help from the factory doctor. Mr. Suzuki saw the reasonableness of their request and ordered such branch factories to open medical treatment for the public. The factory doctor charged the labourers but 4 sen for a day's medicine while the common practitioner charged from 18 to 20 sen. The factory charged the villagers 10 sen. The manager's idea was, at some financial sacrifice, to bring about a better understanding between the factory men and the villagers. To his surprise, however, the financial losses of the medical bureau of the factory was very small, as they found by investigation after several months' experience. It appeared, as a matter of fact, that the bureau was making some money out of the 10 sen so far as the price of medicine was concerned. The increase of the patients who came to the factory doctor because of the cheapness of medicine and treatment well compensated for

the apparent sacrifices of the company. This practical knowledge prepared Mr. Suzuki to stand up for medical social work when he heard of the Imperial Wish for the medical relief of the poor in 1911.

In July 1911, he published a statement appealing to the public concerning the need of establishing an association for cost-price medical treatment for the proletariat. In his statement he said that the mass of people who occupy the lower stratum of the middle class, such as small salaried public officials, secretaries, shopmen, teachers, policemen, students, artisans, apprentices, and labourers, were without social relief of any kind though they should be considered as members of the poorer class, since in spite of intelligence and ability their incomes were very small. He said that this class of people was the largest in numbers both in the cities and the villages, forming an important element of the nation, and their welfare had much to do with the fate of the nation in general; that this class of people were bearing a large part of the tax-burden while they had to keep up an honourable standard of living, that the relief work might be in part diverted to them, but that the most important and acute need was for medical treament, and that it was the responsibility of the Government and the people at large to give proper aid for the better health and cure of the patients of this class of people in order to promote the general welfare of the society and to prevent their falling into actual poverty.

Cost-Price Treatment In consequence of these appeals of Mr. Suzuki and Dr. Kato the Cost-Price Medical Treatment Association, a corporate juridical person, was organized on the 5th September, 1911. But the prospects of the Association were not very rosy, for the expected antagonistic movement arose from among the medical practitioners right after its inception. The first protest against this cost-price medical treatment was made by the Yokohama Doctors' Union in June 1912. Ever since that time, the doctors' unions have continued to lay obstacles before the progress of the Association from their unified promises on medical treatment in general, although there have been many revisions of the law on the work of the practitioners and changes in the nature of the doctors' unions during the past 18 years.

The doctors' unions do not necessarily oppose charity work for the poor, but there is limitation in the funds of charity work and it cannot encroach upon the sphere of doctors' activity in any large scale. Specially it is so because the hand of charity work does not extend beyond the poorest people who cannot help themselves at all, or lonesome orphans and widows. Out of self-respect and pride, the general public do not like to ask for help from charity workers. It is, therefore, natural that the Doctors' Union, which is nothing but a guild for profit, becomes a foe to the co-operative social work for the medical relief of the mass of people. Their protests are based on the argument that the work of the Cost-Price Medical Treatment Association is by no means a social relief work, in so far as it charges a fee, no matter how small the amount of money may be. If it were a social work, it should be done wholly in the spirit of sacrifice or it should be purely a work of benevolence. But the Association charges fees with which it manages to keep up its own existence, though it pretends to be a social relief work by charging smaller fees than the common practitioners do. Such is the reasoning of the antagonism of the Doctors' Union. But their protest is to be likened to that of the merchants against the public markets and consumption guilds.

Its Development The Association, however, has continued its fight and is surmounting all obstacles put in its path. First it fought against the attack of the Doctors' Union under the existing Medical Law, then it made a national campaign for propaganda, and lastly it fought against the political protests of the Doctors' Union in the Imperial Diet. And while the Association was waging a painstaking battle against the stubborn protests of the Japan Federation of Doctors' Unions the World War and consequent changes in the general state of affairs came to its help. The establishment of the Bureau of Social Affairs in 1920 was an epoch-making event in Japanese social work and the idea of social work gradually permeated the public mind through the Sections of Social Affairs in the Prefectural Offices, and the work of the Cost-Price Medical Treatment Association became easier because of the better understanding of the pulic. The Association has its headquarters in Tokyo and four branch offices in Tokyo, Yokohama, and Osaka. Many cities and local public bodies are requesting the establishment of branch offices, yet the Government does not easily give permission, fearing the repeated protests of the practitioners. But there are now 41 cost-price medical treatment offices established by public bodies in different parts of Japan, and 112 hospitals in which the proletariat patients are treated at cost-price.

The Department of Communications began to lend money for the same kind of medical relief to public bodies and some other associations in 1922 as a policy for post-office life insurance for the middle and working classes. The total amount of the loan was ¥2,545,451 in 1929.

Press Activities Recently many newspapers began to recognize the importance of the cost-price medical treatment in all social work, and have themselves opened medical sections. The Hochi, Yorozu-Cho-ho, and Maiyu in Tokyo, and the Osaka Mainichi have their special medical relief work. The last one established a movable hospital, and is doing very good work although there is a large element of charitable giving in the work. The Tokyo Asahi also started a movable hospital work and is doing similar relief work for the needy. That the newspaper men themselves have begun this kind of work is a great stimulus to the advocates of the need of cheap medical treatment for the proletariat.

Present Condition In spite of the constant protest of the Japan Federation of Doctors' Unions, the Do-ai (or mutual love) Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama, the Imperial Charity Association, the Red Cross Hospital, the Jikei (or benevolence) Association Hospital have recently begun cheap medical treatment. The Do-ai Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama were established with the money given by the American people at the time of the Great Earthquake, 1923, as a memorial of their kind assistance in that period of trial. Mr. Suzuki, who has played a brilliant part in the promotion of this kind of social work, is now insisting upon the national management of all medical business for the thorough protection of the life of the people in view of the unreasonable high cost of medical treatment by common practitioners and consequent loss of life and impoverishment.

the apparent sacrifices of the company. This practical knowledge prepared Mr. Suzuki to stand up for medical social work when he heard of the Imperial Wish for the medical relief of the poor in 1911.

In July 1911, he published a statement appealing to the public concerning the need of establishing an association for cost-price medical treatment for the proletariat. In his statement he said that the mass of people who occupy the lower stratum of the middle class, such as small salaried public officials, secretaries, shopmen, teachers, policemen, students, artisans, apprentices, and labourers, were without social relief of any kind though they should be considered as members of the poorer class, since in spite of intelligence and ability their incomes were very small. He said that this class of people was the largest in numbers both in the cities and the villages, forming an important element of the nation, and their welfare had much to do with the fate of the nation in general; that this class of people were bearing a large part of the tax-burden while they had to keep up an honourable standard of living, that the relief work might be in part diverted to them, but that the most important and acute need was for medical treament, and that it was the responsibility of the Government and the people at large to give proper aid for the better health and cure of the patients of this class of people in order to promote the general welfare of the society and to prevent their falling into actual poverty.

Cost-Price Treatment In consequence of these appeals of Mr. Suzuki and Dr. Kato the Cost-Price Medical Treatment Association, a corporate juridical person, was organized on the 5th September, 1911. But the prospects of the Association were not very rosy, for the expected antagonistic movement arose from among the medical practitioners right after its inception. The first protest against this cost-price medical treatment was made by the Yokohama Doctors' Union in June 1912. Ever since that time, the doctors' unions have continued to lay obstacles before the progress of the Association from their unified promises on medical treatment in general, although there have been many revisions of the law on the work of the practitioners and changes in the nature of the doctors' unions during the past 18 years.

The doctors' unions do not necessarily oppose charity work for the poor, but there is limitation in the funds of charity work and it cannot encroach upon the sphere of doctors' activity in any large scale. Specially it is so because the hand of charity work does not extend beyond the poorest people who cannot help themselves at all, or lonesome orphans and widows. Out of self-respect and pride, the general public do not like to ask for help from charity workers. It is, therefore, natural that the Doctors' Union, which is nothing but a guild for profit, becomes a foe to the co-operative social work for the medical relief of the mass of people. Their protests are based on the argument that the work of the Cost-Price Medical Treatment Association is by no means a social relief work, in so far as it charges a fee, no matter how small the amount of money may be. If it were a social work, it should be done wholly in the spirit of sacrifice or it should be purely a work of benevolence. But the Association charges fees with which it manages to keep up its own existence, though it pretends to be a social relief work by charging smaller fees than the common practitioners do. Such is the reasoning of the antagonism of the Doctors' Union. But their protest is to be likened to that of the merchants against the public markets and consumption guilds.

Its Development The Association, however, has continued its fight and is surmounting all obstacles put in its path. First it fought against the attack of the Doctors' Union under the existing Medical Law, then it made a national campaign for propaganda, and lastly it fought against the political protests of the Doctors' Union in the Imperial Diet. And while the Association was waging a painstaking battle against the stubborn protests of the Japan Federation of Doctors' Unions the World War and consequent changes in the general state of affairs came to its help. The establishment of the Bureau of Social Affairs in 1920 was an epoch-making event in Japanese social work and the idea of social work gradually permeated the public mind through the Sections of Social Affairs in the Prefectural Offices, and the work of the Cost-Price Medical Treatment Association became easier because of the better understanding of the pulic. The Association has its headquarters in Tokyo and four branch offices in Tokyo, Yokohama, and Osaka. Many cities and local public bodies are requesting the establishment of branch offices, yet the Government does not easily give permission, fearing the repeated protests of the practitioners. But there are now 41 cost-price medical treatment offices established by public bodies in different parts of Japan, and 112 hospitals in which the proletariat patients are treated at cost-price.

The Department of Communications began to lend money for the same kind of medical relief to public bodies and some other associations in 1922 as a policy for post-office life insurance for the middle and working classes. The total amount of the loan was ¥2,545,451 in 1929.

Press Activities Recently many newspapers began to recognize the importance of the cost-price medical treatment in all social work, and have themselves opened medical sections. The Hochi, Yorozu-Cho-ho, and Maiyu in Tokyo, and the Osaka Mainichi have their special medical relief work. The last one established a movable hospital, and is doing very good work although there is a large element of charitable giving in the work. The Tokyo Asahi also started a movable hospital work and is doing similar relief work for the needy. That the newspaper men themselves have begun this kind of work is a great stimulus to the advocates of the need of cheap medical treatment for the proletariat.

Present Condition In spite of the constant protest of the Japan Federation of Doctors' Unions, the Do-ai (or mutual love) Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama, the Imperial Charity Association, the Red Cross Hospital, the Jikei (or benevolence) Association Hospital have recently begun cheap medical treatment. The Do-ai Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama were established with the money given by the American people at the time of the Great Earthquake, 1923, as a memorial of their kind assistance in that period of trial. Mr. Suzuki, who has played a brilliant part in the promotion of this kind of social work, is now insisting upon the national management of all medical business for the thorough protection of the life of the people in view of the unreasonable high cost of medical treatment by common practitioners and consequent loss of life and impoverishment.

C. P. M. T. A. The central institution which stimulated all the social medical treatment is the Cost-Price Medical Treatment Association mentioned above, and according to its report in 1932, the five public infirmaries opened by the Association treated 2,228,779 cases in a year or a daily average of 6,076 cases. It has funds and property amounting to ¥1,163,839 and 114 workers, and expended ¥1,014,308, in 1932. In 1931, the proletariat themselves became aware of the importance of this social work and began to establish their own public infirmaries, the number reaching to 15. They are managed by the Social Democratic Party or the National Mass Party or the Federation of Japan Proletariat practitioners. They treat patients without charge, but for medicine they charge 10 sen a day and the cost-price of materials.

CHAPTER XXXII

LABOUR AND LABOUR MOVEMENTS

Labour

Vocational Classification

Statistics classifying the population according to the kinds of work done can be obtained only from the Report of the National Census of 1920, later figures having not yet been issued. According to the census report the people in Japan proper may be classified according to their occupations as follows :

Occupation	Number	Percentage of whole
Farming	27,138,251	48.5
Marine industry	1,449,674	2.6
Mining	937,525	1.7
Industry	10,737,940	19.2
Commerce	7,312,593	13.1
Transport	2,549,472	4.5
Public service (Casual)	3,208,355	5.7
Miscellaneous	1,091,275	1.9
Domestic service	40,425	0.1
Unoccupied	1,497,543	2.7
Total	55,963,053	100.0

A complete classification of labourers according to the kind of work done is hard to obtain at any fixed date. The following figures, collected from different authorities at various dates, will serve, however, to give a general idea :

Factory labourers	2,026,412	(1931)
Mine workers	258,469	(1930)
Farm labourers	8,961,477	(1920)
Forestry ,,	329,891	(1926)
Fishermen	455,230	(1925)
Manual workers in trade	1,106,328	(1920)
Transport ,, on railroads	236,881	(1926)
,, ,, ,, ships	489,100	(1927)
,, ,, ,, postal service	56,374	(1926)
Day-labourers, etc.	1,941,741	(1931)

Labour Conditions

Unemployment (see Chapter XXXI) As a result of economic distress, there has been a tendency towards increase of unemplyment. According to a survey by the Bank of Japan, the index number of employed labourers fell from 82.0 in 1930 to 74.4 in 1931. According to an estimate of the Bureau of Social Affairs the number of unemployed at the end of 1931 was 470,736 out of a total number of examined cases of 7,047,713, a percentage of 6.68. In the same estimate the percentage of unemployed day labourers was as high as 11.34.

Wages The index number of labourers' wages is rapidly falling, according to the survey by the Department of Commerce and Industry on the average wage of the labourers in the 13 largest cities in 1931. The index number at the end of 1931 was 84.0 while that at the beginning of 1930 was 98.3. (The average wage in the period 1921-1923 is taken as 100.) The average daily wage of factory labourers was 1.863 yen in 1931, that is 15 sen less than in the year before, that of mine workers was 1.532 yen in the same year, or 15.4 sen less than in 1930.

Living Conditions The index number of wholesale prices is falling, that of December, 1931 being 58.1 against 78.3 in January, 1930.

Postal savings deposited by men on smaller salaries and labourers amounted to ¥2,609,678,297 from 38,628,452 men in 1931, showing an

increase of ¥272,162,459 and 459,041 persons on the previous year.

Education According to a survey made in 1927, the grades of education received by factory labourers were as follows:

Type of Education	Number	Percentage
Elementary School	801,742	58
Above Higher Elementary School	372,481	27
Elementary school not completed	204,643	15
Total of cases investigated	1,378,866	

Among those listed as having attended institutions above Higher Elementary School, there were 18,092 who completed the middle school course and 1,295 who completed the collegiate course.

A survey made in the same year of the mine workers' education shows that among 277,070 men there were 105,370 (38%) elementary school graduates, 60,165 (22%) higher school graduates, and 111,535 (40%) men who did not complete the elementary school education.

Working Hours The working hours are being reduced at least legally. After July, 1929, night work for women and children was abolished in factories under control of the Factory Law, and the hours were shortened in the spinning and weaving industries. By the revision of the Factory Law in the same year, the limitation of hours was also enforced in such factories as employ 10 workers or less. Moreover, the 11 hour day in the silk industry was changed to one of 10 on July 1, 1930. Thus the hours are legally decreasing, but as a matter of fact, there is not much actual shortening, for grown up men work beyond the regular hours for additional wages, while factory owners often dismiss regular labourers and hire cheaper day labourers, or as an alternative require the regular men to do extra work. Upon this point the annual report of factory overseers in 1930 says, "working hours are being shortened in general. But it must be remembered that overtime is widely done, specially by grown up labourers in machine-making factories." The average number of working hours in factories in 1931 was 10 per day with 0.55 hour of recess included, and the average number of working days per month was 26.4.

Labour Calamities and Mortality The number of fires in private factories during the year 1930 was 663, or 67 less than in the previous year. The number of accidents to buildings reached 219 or an increase of 120 on the previous year, but this increase was largely due to natural causes. The number of labourers injured while at work was 43,027, and deaths numbered 243. The comparison of the four years from 1930 shows a gradual decrease of casualties. The official report above mentioned says: "This noticeable lessening of the number of casualties may be due in part to the combination of factories and the consequent smaller number of factory workers, but it must be recognized that the stronger cause lies in the prevention of factory dangers and improvement of factory hygiene."

In 1930, the number of casualties in the mines was much less than the average for the preceding 7 years, the number of cases being 107,346 (22,303 less than that in the previous year), of which 874 were cases of death.

Labour Hygiene The hygienic equipment of factories is legally required, but its progress and improvement is rather slow and partial. In compliance with the requirements stated in the new ordinance on labour hygiene, factory managers are endeavouring to make improvements under the guidance of the Government and prefectural authorities, and good results have been reported as to the health of factory labourers.

Many factories made notable improvements in light and ventilation. Especially in Kanagawa prefecture, the Tokyo Electric Company and other large factories reorganized the working places and the arrangement of machines so that the workers could work in a brighter light. The Suzuki Company raised the roof of its factory at Kawasaki and constructed more windows, changed the location of machines, and fitted up stronger electric lights. In Chiba prefecture the Yamasa Soy Company improved the windows of its dining room. In Gumma prefecture, the Kanegafuchi Spinning Company, the largest company of the kind in Japan, installed the most modern ventilation apparatus in its Shinmachi Branch Factory, and many factories in Hiroshima and Saitama prefectures installed modern apparatus for ventilation and lighting.

The number of cases of lead poisoning decreased in storage battery factories, while it increased in factories of red lead, artificial silk, tin-making and printing. As in the previous year, there were some victims among the quicksilver workers in clinical thermometer factories. There were also many victims among workers in carbonic oxide, chromium, nitric acid, carbon bisulphide, hydrogen sulphide, aniline, and oil gas. Victims among workers in high temperatures, those engaged in standing work, of eye diseases in electric factories, and of teeth corrosion among workers dealing with mineral oxide reached a considerable number also. The number of patients with skin diseases in chemical workrooms was rather small, while that in silk factories was great. Among women who are directly engaged in silk manufacture, the number of skin disease patients reached 22,237. Finger disease patients in spinning factories and those who were afflicted with eye diseases in rayon factories also reached fairly high numbers.

Farmers' Condition

Land and Farmers The total area of arable land in Japan proper at the end of 1930 was 5,866,818.85 hectares, of which 3,061,330.71 hectares are farmed by land owing farmers, while 2,805,488.14 hectares (48%) are cultivated by tenants. At the end of 1930, the total number of farming families was 5,599,670, which was 46% of the whole number of households in Japan. Of those 1,742,993 (31%) were landed farmers, 1,486,133 (27%) tenants, and 2,370,544 (42%) farmers who own small areas of land and are at the same time tenants. The general tendency of the last decade is for the number of the first and the last class to increase and that of the tenants to decrease.

35% of the whole number of farmer households cultivate less than 0.50 hectare, 34% from 0.50 to 0.99, 22% from 0.99 to 1.98, 6% from 1.98 to 2.98,2% from 2.98 to 4.96 and 1% more than 4.96 hectares. The general tendency of the last decade is, in general, for the number of households which cultivate less than 1.98 hectares to increase, while that of those cultivating more than 1.98 hectares is on the decrease.

In 1931, the rice crop amounted to 55,215,263 koku (one koku equals a little less than 5 bushels). The conbined barley and wheat crop amounted to 18,041,132 koku. Both crops were less than the previous year because of much rain. The report on sericulture in 1931 shows us that there were 2,119,603 houses engaged in the work, with a production of

97,072,455 kan (one kan corresponds to 3.750 kg.) of cocoons, which also represents a decrease.

Price of Land In 1931, the price of land declined in comparison with the previous year, its average price being quoted at 411 yen a tan (9.9 ares) for rice-fields and 253 yen a tan for other fields. The rise and fall of land values is affected by the price of products, the buying capacity of farmers, the circulation of money and tenancy disputes. It is highest in the Kyoto-Osaka district, being quoted at 528 yen a tan, and lowest in Hokkaido, 45 yen a tan. The price of land rose rapidly in the four years from 1916 to 1919, and it was 706 yen a tan for rice-fields. At that time business was very active and thriving as the result of the World War, and the price of farm products rose with that of other necessaries, causing a remarkable increase of the farmer's purchasing power. These conditions caused the rise in land values. But the panic of 1920 caused a sudden decline of farm products and consequent fall in the value of land which was quoted at 100 yen less than the previous year. Ever since 1920, business conditions have not improved, and the price of farm products and the purchasing power of farmers have much decreased. In addition, tenancy disputes have become more frequent and complicated.

Rent In 1931, the farm-rent (for which rent is paid in kind), was 1.02 koku per tan for rice-fields and 13.70 yen per tan for dry-fields. Rent varies according to local conditions, the highest being 1.17 koku in the Shikoku district and the cheapest 0.37 koku in the Loochoo Islands for rice-fields, and 18.99 yen in the Shikoku district and 2.50 yen in Hokkaido for dry-fields.

Income The income of a farmer's household comes from farm products and subsidiary occupations, and others. The average annual income of such households is 1,365 yen for a landed-farmer, 1,109 yen for a landed-tenant farmer, and 874 yen for a tenant farmer, against a real cost of living of 1,270 yen, 995 yen and 875 yen respectively. But from 150 yen to 500 yen of the income comes through other means than farm products and subsidiary occupations. The total debt of the farmers in June, 1929, was estimated at about ¥4,000,000,000. According to investigations by Nagano Prefecture Farmers' Association, the debt per household in 1932 was 868 yen, so that the total amount of farmer's debt must be in the neighbourhood of ¥6,000,000,000 at present.

Middle Class Salarymen

Their Budget It is hard to fix the dividing line between the middle and working classes. Most middle class people who earn from 60 to 300 yen a month are exposed to the danger of falling to the economic level of the working class at any time. According to the first national census, the number of owners of small firms and factories was 8,958,367, that of salarymen 1,514,511, and the majority of the latter and a considerable number of the former must be counted among the so-called middle class people. According to a report of the Bureau of Taxes, in 1928 there were 494,611 households which had an annual income of from 1,200 to 3,000 yen. To take the conditions prevailing among officials' and school teachers' as an example, the average income of civil officials in 1930 was 738 yen a year, that of primary school teachers 62.49 yen, and that of middle school teachers 118.75 yen.

The average monthly cost of living among salarymen was 233 yen, of which but 137.17 yen was met by real income, the rest being accounted for by several means including debt.

Women Employees The total number of women employed in factories, mines and transport, etc., reached 1,469,037 at the end of 1931 or 2,593 less than the previous year and representing 31.46% of total number of such labourers. The number of factory girls was 961,287 ; 158,125 (17.8 %) of which were under the age of 16. The average daily wage of girls engaged in fibre work was 0.74 yen, and that of woman labourers in the mines was 0.77 yen.

The number of the women engaged in gainful occupations of all sorts in 1920, was 971,335. It is hard to pick out the salarywomen from among the total number, but it is certain that the number of women in sedentary occupations has greatly increased in the past five years. According to a survey made in 1930, there were 3,529 lady doctors and 128,734 midwives, nurses and the like. In 1928, there were 96,081 school teachers, 9,452 women helping in railroad work, 46,737 girls engaged in communication business. In 1930 there were 207,727 geisha girls, public prostitutes, and Japanese-style tea-house waitresses, and 66,840 waitresses who worked in modern cafes and bars. According to investigations by the Tokyo municipal authorities, 76.57% of the 17,000 women workers in the city of Tokyo were contributing to the support of their families, while 9.83% were simply earning their own living. The majority of them were from 16 to 25 in age, and were working for about 30 yen a month.

Child Labour At the end of 1930, the number of child factory labourers under 16 was 180,594, corresponding to 10.7% of the whole number of labourers, and among them only 22,469 were boys. The number of child mine workers was 3,103. The average wage for boys in factories is 69 sen a day, and for girls 53 sen, while in the mines boys get 65 sen and girls 51 sen per day.

Emigrant and Immigrant Labour

Japanese Emigrants The total number of Japanese emigrants in foreign countries in October, 1930, was 518,865, of which 78,077 were in China and Manchuria, 19,628 in the Philippines, 99,600 in the United States of America, 20,838 in Canada, 116,505 in Brazil, 20,535 in Peru, and 120,909 in the Hawaiian Islands. In 1930, the number of those who emigrated to foreign countries was 21,829, while the number of those who came back from those countries was 15,432. The number of emigrants was 5,875 less than in the previous year. The money which was sent home by the Japanese people in foreign countries in the same year amounted to ¥23,159,481 as against ¥28,144,875 for the previous year.

The Koreans The number of Korean immigrants in the Japanese Islands, according to the report of the Korean police headquarters, was 286,679 in 1930, while it was estimated at 143,000 in 1926. They come to the islands mostly on account of extreme difficulties in their home land, specially among the tenant farmers, and tempted by the comparatively greater possibility of getting better paid work in the islands. A vague aspiration towards a more advanced civilization and greater freedom may be counted among the reasons for emigration also. As a matter of fact, their living conditions in Japan proper are hardly more prosperous than in Korea. They mingle with the Japanese people mostly on good terms, although there occur some conflicts between the two and special harmonizing

work is conducted by the authorities. Among the Koreans who are in Japan, anti-Japanese movements do not appear on the surface, but they take part in general strikes and labour movements with other Japanese labourers. Chinese immigrants in Japan number 30,836, which far exceeds that of all other foreigners. The total number of aliens of all nationalities is 40,290.

Labour Movements

General

The world depression has had much effect upon Japanese economic conditions in spite of all official relief measures. The Seiyukai Cabinet tried to check the unrestrained aggravation of financial depression by the embargo on gold exports. But this had little effect on industry in general and the farmers' financial difficulties were not remedied. More particularly, the difficulties of the smaller merchants and industrialists became unbearable in 1931, and the workers under them became victims of the times because they had had almost no system among themselves to fight for their rights and needs. This fact may be seen in the greater number and smaller scale of labour disputes throughout the year. The general characteristic of labour disputes during the year was that of passive obstinacy on the part of labourers. The same thing may be said of tenant disputes. The tenant disputes became much more acrimonious because of the excessive crop of the previous year. Most of the tenant demands were for continuation of the tenancy contract, that is to say the peasants were reduced to last struggle simply to retain land.

Although many of the Labour movements, then, were simply spasmodic, some progress was made in the development of large scale workers' organization. On the general economic front a certain measure of unity was achieved by the formation of the Japan Labour Club, and on the political front the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party was organized with the National Mass Party at its centre. The farmers, too, organized themselves into larger unions. The secret movements of the unlawful communist organizations also grew in strength and influenced considerably the ideas and activities of other organizations functioning with official sanction.

Labour Disputes

Characteristics of 1931 Disputes The number of labour dispute in 1930 had been greatest in Japanese labour history, but 1931 made a new record. Investigating these numerous disputes as to their sphere, cause, course and result, we find several characteristic features peculiar to this year. (1) While the number of cases was greater, that of the participants became smaller. The number of disputes in engineering works, the carpentry, trade and among day-labourers specially increased. All this points to the fact that the movement was particularly directed against small employers. (2) Labour disputes were continued for longer periods during this year. Many of the struggles were prolonged over 100 days, that in the Japan Enamel Factory in Osaka lasting over 200 days. (3) The repetition of disputes in the same factories or firms at short intervals was another characteristic of the year. (4) Disputes in the mines, especially in coal mines, broke out in much greater numbers. They began in the North Eastern district and spread to the Kanto district, then to the North Kyushu district, and finally affected the whole of the main coal centres. As this was the first time strikes had occurred in this industry, the general nature of the disturbance was of disquieting significance. (5) The means of struggle practised by the labourers seemed to be sadly ineffective. The new stratagems of the Tokyo Under-ground Railway Company workers, a starve march and chimney sitting, were rather in the nature of sad comedies.

Relevant Statistics In 1931, the total number of labour disputes was 2,456 ; of these 998 cases were accompanied by strikes, sabotage or lock-outs. The disputes occurred in 3 urban prefectures and 40 prefectures, i. e., in almost every part of the Empire. The Tokyo urban prefecture led the others with 443 cases, and Osaka urban prefecture came next with 300.

The number of participants in the 998 disputes which were accompanied by strikes, etc., was 64,536. While the number of cases increased in comparison with that of the previous year, that of the participants decreased by 37,277 in the total or from 90 a case in the previous year to 65 a case in this year. The number of disputes with less than 50 participants was 72% against 68% in the previous year, while that of disputes with more than 300 participants was 4% against the 5% of the previous year. Those which lasted more than one month were 148 (15%) against 101 (12%) of the previous year.

Causes Classified Of the total number of disputes in the year, 944 cases occurred as the result of employers' action, while 542 cases were caused by the demands of labourers. The disputes in 1931 were the same as those of the previous year in the small number of positive demands on the part of labour. The majority of such demands were negative, reflecting the serious depression. Protests against cutting wages and demands for an increase of wages numbered 537 out of the 998 serious cases, or 54%, but wage questions were involved in all disputes. Even when demands for higher wages were made we cannot take it as a positive request, because the demands represented either a return to a former wage or a strategic demand for an increase in anticipation of reductions. The number of protests against reduction was comparatively small, but this is rather illustrative of the fact that the general wage level was so low that cuts were unthinkable. It should be noticed that there were 98 cases in which payment of wages had been completely suspended. That there were 245 cases of closing businesses or dismissal of labourers was another proof of the seriousness of the depression.

Effect of Arbitration It is hard to get authoritative figures showing the effect of arbitration. Most of the smaller disputes, however, are settled between the employer and the employee, while larger ones necessitate arbitration by a third party. Cases subjected to official mediation according to the articles of the Arbitration Law enacted in 1926 were only two. But the spirit of the law was followed in many cases and some government officials or senior officers acted as arbitrators. Out of the total number of disputes, 685 cases were handled by some kind of arbitrator, 254 cases being handed by officials and 176 cases by police officers. 678 cases out of 685 were successfully arbitrated.

The Results But whether workers or employers were successful is hard to say in most cases because the results are not mostly reported.

In some cases disputes end technically in the victory of the workers, but the conditions of the solution are not carried out or are postponed by the employers and the final outcome is hard to ascertain. According to the report of the Bureau of Social Affairs, of the 998 serious cases 225 ended in victory for the labourers, in 393 cases their requests were not complied with, and 351 cases were settled by arbitration. Characteristic disputes in this year were those in the coal mines in Northern Kyushu, in the Japan Enamel Company, in the Sumitomo Steel Factory, in the General Motors Japan Limited, and in the Shibaura Manufacturing Company.

Tenant Disputes

Tenant disputes which have become more and more numerous since 1927 increased enormously in 1930 and numbered 2,109 cases. This increased to 2,689 in 1931. Here again we see the number of cases augmented, while the areas involved and the number of participants in each case decreased. It should be also noted that the disputes occurred on the dry fields as a characteristic phenomenon. The increase of disputes as to tenant rights is a recent tendency.

Regional and Seasonal Akita prefecture had the largest number of disputes and Hiroshima prefecture the smallest. Generally speaking, the number was largest in the north-eastern district as usual, the central district, the Kinki (Kyoto-Osaka) district, the Kanto districts, the north land (facing the Japan Sea) district, and the Shikoku Island following in the order listed. The last district had but 30 cases.

Disputes were most frequent from October (rice-harvest season) to April and least frequent in summer. The causes of dispute were miscellaneous. The main causes of the year 1931 were the bad crop, the problem of tenant rights and the fall in prices. Formerly natural causes accounted for the largest part, but latterly these have given place to the problem of tenants' rights. Since 1930 the fall in prices of farm products has become more important as a cause of conflicts. In 1931, 14,414 landlords and 47,729 tenant farmers took part in disputes concerning a total area of 36,720 cho (1 cho equals a little more than one hectare).

The Reasons The following is a report in the "Farmer Times" entitled "An Outline of Tenant Disputes." "The reasons of tenant disputes are many and many of them are interrelated in several cases or there are direct and indirect causes in the same dispute. But we may say summarily that most of the disputes broke out because of the bad crop as the result of unfavourable natural causes, and that the demand of the tenants was for a temporary reduction of farm-rent. Of course, the number of this kind of dispute differs according to the year, and it is usually small when the harvest is good and great when the harvest is bad. The rate of reduction of farm-rent demanded also differs according to the year. Generally speaking, the rate of reduction demanded was smaller in former days, but it is common now to demand such a large reduction as 30 or 40 per cent. In some years and cases the demand reached even 70-80 per cent. Recently the demand for reduction is voiced in certain quarters entirely irrespective of the nature of the yearly crop, and as a matter of fact the farmers have reduction in some places."

The above refers mainly to disputes concerning rice-fields. Since 1930 reduction of farm-rent for vegetable fields and mulberry plantations has been frequent because of the fall in prices of vegetables and cocoons on account of the general depression. The number of cases of this kind was only 3 in 1929, but it reached to 285 in 1930 and 207 in 1931.

High Rents In cases caused by high farm-rents, inability of making both ends meet in farming economy on the tenanted land or financial difficulty of the tenant-farmer, the demand is usually for a permanent reduction of from 20 to 30 per cent. The number of such demands was greatest in 1923 or thereabout; but a practical success in this kind of dispute was very hard to obtain and even when the demand was complied with the rate of reduction was usually small and there was a danger of making the rate fixed in the solution of a dispute a permanent one. The tactics of farmers, therefore, were changed to repeated demands for temporary reduction.

Demand of Return of Land One of the characteristic phenomena of recent disputes is that the landlords positively demand the return of tenanted land on the grounds that they themselves want to cultivate it, that the farm-rent has not been paid, that they want to sell the land or to make changes in the nature or division of the land. The tenant farmers are compelled to insist upon their tenant rights, continuation of contract, and the payment of a compensation on the dissolution of the contract. While the number of such disputes was but 25 in 1924, it increased to 1,002 in 1930. The number in the fiscal year 1931-1932 is not yet fully known, but according to the report sent in by January 1932, it had already reached to 1,164 or 43% of the whole number of tenant disputes.

Means of Conflict The means of conflict employed by tenant-farmers differ according to the nature of each dispute. In disputes concerning the reduction of farm-rent or the improvement of terms of contract, farmers move in bodies, forming local tenant-farmer unions or establishing branch unions of the National Federation of Farmers. Even in cases concerning tenant rights or return of leased land, in which the number of participants is comparatively small, the farmers are backed by local unions or the National Federation. In disputes concerning farm-rent, they fight against the landlords with the united force of the said unions, adopting means of boycott, united occupation of leased land and common disposal of produce, raising money among themselves for the conflict. Sometimes, they appeal to the public by making such demonstrations as holding public meetings or engaging in common forcible farming of the fields in question. They resort even to such indirect means as general strikes of school children, resignation from the local fire-service, resignation from other business associations, and non-payment of taxes. In cases concerning the return of the leased land, they occupy the fields in question by force.

In the beginning the Tenant Arbitration Law was considered to be unfavourable to the tenants, but lately the principles of the law have become well understood by the farmers and appeals based on its terms are more frequently filed by tenants than by landlords.

Land-owners' Union The land-owners have begun to organize their own unions to cope with the steps taken by the tenants. But there are many cases in which the interests of landowners are in conflict and their unity cannot be as strong as that of the tenant-farmers. Their