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1771

THE JAPAN YEAR



1931



The Yasuda Bank, Ltd.

(YASUDA GINKO, LTD.)

HEAD OFFICE:

OHEMACHI, KOJIMACHI-KU, TOKYO

Capital Subscribed - - Yen 150,000,000

CHAIRMAN OF THE BOARD:

ZENJIRO YASUDA, Esq.

DEPUTY CHAIRMAN:

HIROZO MORI, Esq.

MANAGING DIRECTORS:

HISASHI HYOSU, Esq.

JUNZO SAITO, Esq.

HISOMU SONOBE, Esq.

YUZO HAMADA, Esq.

The Bank is now in command, not only of widespread Branches throughout Japan, but also of the services which it has secured from many correspondents over the world, and is able to offer accommodation for every kind of banking facilities, foreign and domestic.

FOREIGN BUSINESS:

TOKYO HEAD OFFICE: Otemachi 1-chome, Kojimachi-ku

YOKOHAMA OFFICE: Hon-cho, Naka-ku

OSAKA OFFICE: Koraihashi, Higashi-ku

KOBE OFFICE: Sakaemachi-dori



THE TOKYO FIRE INSURANCE CO., LIMITED

ESTABLISHED 1887

CAPITAL - - - - - Yen 10,000,000

RESERVES - - - - - „ 12,350,000

FIRE, MARINE, TRANSPORT

ZENGORO YASUDA, Esq. - - - - - *President*

ATSUSUKE NAGAMAZ, Baron - - - - - *Vice-President*

KANJI MINAMI, Esq. - - - - - *Managing Director*

BUNGO KIKUCHI, Esq. - - - - - *General Manager*

Head Office:

No. 6, Ote-machi Itchome, Kojimachi-ku,
TOKYO

Branches:

Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Kobe, Nagoya, Sendai,
Fukuoka, Keijo



MITSUBISHI GOSHI KAISHA

(Mitsubishi Company)

ESTABLISHED IN 1893

Cable Add.:—"IWASAKI TOKYO" CAPITAL:—Yen 120,000,000

Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo

Partners:—Baron KOYATA IWASAKI (President), Baron HISAYA IWASAKI,
Mr. HIKOYATA IWASAKI

ESTATE DEPARTMENT (Controlling Estates and Buildings)

Cable Add.:—"IWASAKILAD TOKYO"

MITSUBISHI ZOSEN KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(Mitsubishi Shipbuilding & Engineering Co., Ltd.)

Cable Add.:—"IWASAKISIP TOKYO" CAPITAL:—Yen 50,000,000

SHIPBUILDERS; ENGINE, BOILER & MACHINERY MAKERS

Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo

Shipyards, Docks & Engine Works:—Nagasaki, Kobe, Hikoshima
Research Laboratory:—Tokyo

MITSUBISHI SEITETSU KAISHA, LTD.

(Mitsubishi Iron & Steel Co., Ltd.)

Cable Add.:—"IWASAKIRON TOKYO" CAPITAL:—Yen 25,000,000

MANUFACTURERS OF IRON & STEEL

Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo

Works:—Kenjiho (Chosen)

MITSUBISHI SOKO KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(Mitsubishi Warehouse Co., Ltd.)

Cable Add.:—"IWASAKISOK TOKYO" CAPITAL:—Yen 10,000,000

LANDING, SHIPPING & FORWARDING AGENTS; STEVEDORES;
WHARFINGERS; CUSTOM BROKERS; WAREHOUSEMEN

Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo

Branches:—Tokyo, Yokohama, Osaka, Kobe, Moji

MITSUBISHI SHOJI KAISHA, LTD.

(Mitsubishi Trading Co., Ltd.)

Cable Add.:—"IWASAKISAL TOKYO" CAPITAL:—Yen 15,000,000

IMPORTERS & EXPORTERS, MANUFACTURERS, COMMISSION
MERCHANTS, BROKERS, SHIP OWNERS

Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo

Branches & Agencies:—(Home) Keelung, Kobe, Kure, Moji, Nagasaki, Nagoya,
Osaka, Otaru, Sasebo, Seoul, Takow, Yokohama, etc.
(Oversea) Chinwangtao, Dairen, Hankow, Harbin, Hongkong, London,
Lyons, Mukden, New York, Paris, San Francisco, Seattle, Shanghai,
Singapore, Soerabaya, Sydney, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Vancouver, etc.



THE MITSUBISHI BANK, LIMITED

Cable Add.:—"IWASAKIBAK TOKYO" CAPITAL:—Yen 100,000,000

GENERAL BANKING & EXCHANGE BUSINESS

Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo

Branches:—Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe, Kyoto, Nagoya, Otaru,
Shanghai, London, New York

MITSUBISHI KOGYO KAISHA, LTD.

(Mitsubishi Mining Co., Ltd.)

Cable Add.:—"IWASAKIMIN TOKYO" CAPITAL:—Yen 100,000,000

PRODUCERS & SELLERS OF COAL, METALS & OTHER MINERALS

Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo

Metal Mines:—Osaruzawa, Ikuno, Sado, Arakawa, Makimine, Akenobe,
Yoshioka, Takara, Kintei, etc.

Coal Mines:—Takashima, Bibai, Namazuta, Ochi, Sinnyu, Hojo, Kamiyamada,
Oyubari, Ashibetsu, etc.

Metallurgical Works, Refineries & Factories:—Osaka, Naoshima

Coke Works:—Makiyama

Branches & Representatives:—Tokyo, Yokohama, Wakamatsu, Nagasaki, Sakito,
Karatsu, Moji, Osaka, Otaru, Muroran, Hakodate, Kushiro, Sapporo,
Aomori, Funakawa, Sendai, Ominato, Tsuruga, Niigata, Sakata,
Fushiki & Ejiri

Mining & Metallurgical Laboratory:—Tokyo

MITSUBISHI KAIJO KASAI HOKEN KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(Mitsubishi Marine & Fire Insurance Co., Ltd.)

Cable Add.:—"INSURER TOKYO" CAPITAL:—Yen 5,000,000

UNDERWRITERS FOR MARINE, FIRE, TRANSPORT, AUTOMOBILE,
BURGLARY & PERSONAL ACCIDENT INSURANCE

Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo

Branches & Agencies:—Osaka, Kobe, London, New York, etc.

MITSUBISHI KOKUKI KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(Mitsubishi Aircraft Co., Ltd.)

Cable Add.:—"IWASAKIAIR TOKYO" CAPITAL:—Yen 5,000,000

MANUFACTURERS OF AIRCRAFT, AERO-ENGINES,
AERONAUTICAL ARMS, AUTOMOBILES, ETC.

Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo Works:—Nagoya, Tokyo

MITSUBISHI ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING CO., LTD.

Cable Add.:—"IWASAKILEC TOKYO" CAPITAL:—Yen 15,000,000

MANUFACTURERS OF GENERATORS, MOTORS, TRANSFORMERS,
OTHER ELECTRICAL MACHINERIES, AIR BRAKE APPARATUS
& DOOR CONTROL ENGINES

Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo Works:—Kobe, Nagasaki, Nagoya

MITSUBISHI TRUST COMPANY, LIMITED

GENERAL TRUST BUSINESS

CAPITAL:—30,000,000

Head Office:—Marunouchi, Tokyo Branch:—Osaka



Orient-California Liner M.S. CHICHIBU MARU (17,500 Gross Tons)

PASSENGER SERVICES of DISTINCTION
from **THE ORIENT** to

California via Honolulu... ..	Fortnightly
Seattle and Victoria	Fortnightly
Marseilles and London via Suez	Fortnightly
Australia via Philippines and Celebes	Monthly
Peru and Chile via California and Mexico	Monthly
Brazil and Argentine via South African Ports	Every 6 Weeks
Bombay via Singapore and Colombo	Monthly
China-Japan Rapid Express Service	Every 4 Days
Other Services to Tsingtao, South Sea Islands, etc.	

*Low Rate Round-the-World and Combined Through
Passage Fares Quoted*

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Branches and Agencies Located at all Important Cities and Ports throughout the World

General Passenger Agents in the Orient for CUNARD LINE

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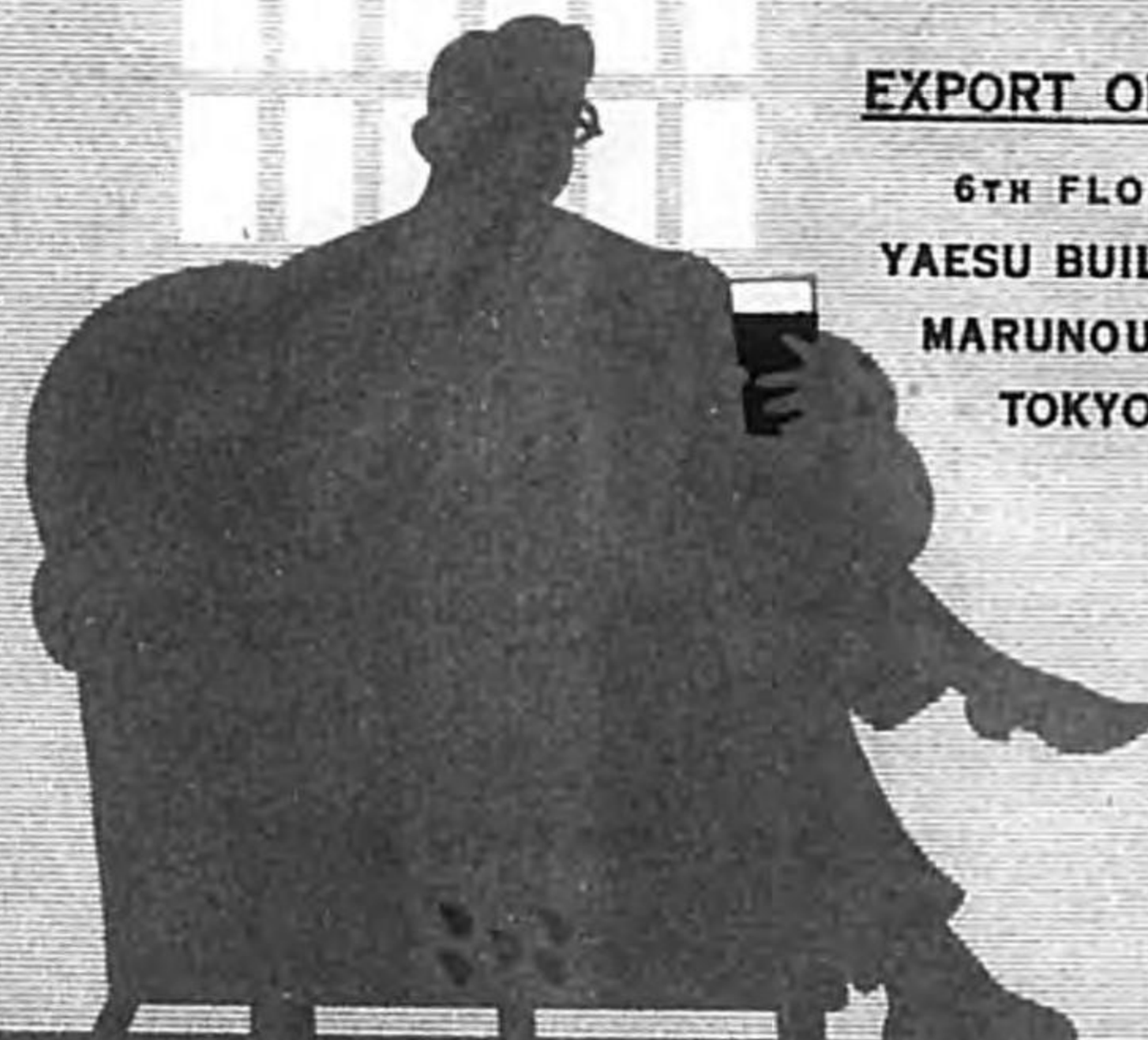
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KIRIN TANSAN

THE CHOICE
OF THE
MULTITUDES

EXPORT OFFICE

6TH FLOOR
YAESU BUILDING
MARUNOUCHI
TOKYO



KIRIN BREWERY CO., LTD.

What in Tokyo

You must not lose the opportunity to visit

The Mitsukoshi,
Up-to-date Department Store

MITSUKOSHI
NIHONBASHI TOKIO

Formosa Oolong Tea

1. **Oolong Tea**, on account of its high flavor and delicious taste, has long been valued amongst the English and American consumers, and is one of the staple exports of Formosa.
2. **Oolong Tea**, being free from any stimulant matters, never disturbs one's sleep even if taken freely.
3. **Oolong Tea** can be had at all grocers and tea dealers.

Exporters

In TAIHOKU, Formosa

BOYD & CO.
NOZAWA & CO.
TAIT & CO., LTD.
MITSUI & CO., LTD.
OLIVER CARTER MACY, INC.
JARDINE MATHESON & CO., LTD.
ANGLO-AMERICAN DIRECT TEA TRADING CO.



White in Tokyo

You must not lose the opportunity to visit

The Mitsukoshi,
Up-to-date Department Store.

MITSUBUKOSHI
NIHONBASHI TOKIO

Formosa Oolong Tea

1. **Oolong Tea**, on account of its high flavor and delicious taste, has long been valued amongst the English and American consumers, and is one of the staple exports of Formosa.
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BOYD & CO.
NOZAWA & CO.
TAIT & CO., LTD.
MITSUI & CO., LTD.
OLIVER CARTER MACY, INC.
JARDINE MATHESON & CO., LTD.
ANGLO-AMERICAN DIRECT TEA TRADING CO.

Tobaccos, Cigars and Cigarettes

HOME MADE

The following are very carefully made by us from the best Havana, Manila, Sumatra, or Turkish leaf, and are excellent in quality and moderate in price:

CIGARS

Gloria25's ¥15.00	Princesas.....25's ¥6.00	5's ¥1.20
Imperiales.....25's 12.50	5's ¥2.50	Orientales.....25's 5.00
Perfectos.....25's 7.50	5's 1.50	Londres.....25's 2.50
Regalia.....25's 6.00	5's 1.20	Senoritas.....200's 10.00
		10's .50

CIGARETTES

Nile (Silver tipped).....10's ¥.45	Orient (Cork tipped).....10's ¥.30
Alma (Gold tipped).....10's .40	Salon.....50's 1.50

FOREIGN MADE

The Imperial Japanese Government Monopoly Bureau aims to keep in stock, besides its own products, every description of manufactured tobaccos of the world, so as to enable visitors to Japan to obtain them at any of the chief retail-shops throughout the Empire

CIGARS—HAVANA:—Punch, Partagas, Behrens, Diaz Havana Co., La Corona, José Gener, Belinda, Upmann. MANILA:—Compania General, Oriente, Insular, Alhambra, Germinal, La Yebana, Maria Cristina, Delicias. GERMANY:—Friedrich Gustus, F. Kratz, Rölecke & Fritzberg, Klein Butsche. HOLLAND:—Eugene Goulmy & Baar, Van der Putt, Dresselhuys. BELGIUM:—Ernest Tinchant, Prior.

CIGARETTES—EGYPT & GREECE:—Kyriazi, Simou Arzt, Dimitrino, Maspero, Melachrino, Nestor Gianaclis, Matossian, Stefanou, Carathanassis, &c. ENGLAND:—Wills, Westminster, Hill, Abdulla, Archer, Ardath, Alexander Boguslavsky, Teofani, Carreras, United Services, Major Drapkin, Wix & Sons, Bridge & Sons. MALTA:—Cousis, Atlam, Enchanteresse. TURKEY:—Tobacco Régie. CANADA:—W. C. Macdonald. U.S.A.:—Tobacco Products, American Tobacco Co., Liggett & Meyers, Schinasi Bros., Reynolds, &c. RUSSIA:—Tobacco Trust Itet. GERMANY:—Kosmos, A. M. Eckstein, Constantin, Reemtsma, Caravellis. ITALY:—Tobacco Monopoly Bureau. BELGIUM:—Van der Elst. HOLLAND:—Anglo-American Cigarette Co, Vittoria Cigarette Co. SWITZERLAND:—Sato. MANILA:—Alhambra, Manila Commercial.

PIPE MIXTURES—ENGLAND:—Gallaher, Walkers, Archer, Carreras, Wills, Hill, Alfred Dunhill, Teofani. CANADA:—W.C. Macdonald, Tucketts. U.S.A.:—Patterson, Blackwell, British-American Tobacco Company, &c. FRANCE:—Tobacco Régie, Peyrano.

PLUGS—U.S.A.:—British-American Tobacco Co.

Price List can be had on application to the local Monopoly Office.

I. J. G. MONOPOLY BUREAU



The Mitsui Bank, Ltd.

Capital Subscribed - - -	Yen 100,000,000
Capital Paid-up - - -	„ 60,000,000
Reserve Funds - - -	„ 65,700,000

HEAD OFFICE:

No. 1, Suruga-cho, Nihonbashi-ku,
TOKYO

Home Branches:

Fukuoka, Hiroshima, Kobe, Kyoto, Marunouchi (Tokyo),
Moji, Nagasaki, Nagoya, Nihonbashi (Tokyo), Osaka, Osaka-
Dojima, Osaka-Kawaguchi, Osaka-Nishi, Otaru, Shimonoseki,
Wakamatsu (Kyushu), Yokohama

Foreign Branches:

Bombay, London, New York, Shanghai, Sourabaya

London Bankers:

Barclays Bank, Ltd. | Midland Bank, Ltd.

New York Bankers:

Bankers Trust Co. | Chase National Bank
National City Bank of New York

Takuma Dan,
Chairman of Board

Umekichi Yoneyama,
President

The
MITSUI TRUST COMPANY
LIMITED

The First Trust Company
Established under the New Trust Law of Japan

Capital - - - Yen 30,000,000
Trust Properties - - Over Yen 390,000,000

DEPARTMENTS:

**Trust, Bond, Loan, Safe Deposit,
Real Estate, Legal, Foreign**

OFFICES:

Head Office: Suruga-cho, Nihonbashi, Tokyo
Osaka Office: Koraihashi, Osaka

Correspondence Cordially Invited



THE DAI-ICHI GINKO, LTD.

(FORMERLY THE FIRST NATIONAL BANK)

ESTABLISHED 1873

CAPITAL (PAID-UP) - - - - Yen 57,500,000.00
RESERVE FUND - - - - - ,, 57,500,000.00
SPECIAL RESERVE FUND - ,, 7,350,000.00

President:—Y. SASAKI, Esq. Vice-President:—K. ISHII, Esq.

Directors:

S. SUGITA, Esq. Y. OHSAWA, Esq. T. AKASHI, Esq.
Y. NOGUCHI, Esq. K. NOGUCHI, Esq. K. SHIBUSAWA, Esq.
T. KANO, Esq.

HEAD OFFICE:

1-CHOME, MARUNOUCHI, KOJIMACHI-KU, TOKYO

S. KODAIRA, *Manager*

HOME BRANCHES:

YOKOHAMA, TOYOHASHI, NAGOYA, YOKKAICHI, KYOTO, FUSHIMI,
OSAKA, KOBE, HIROSHIMA, SHIMONOSEKI, MOJI, KOKURA, FUKUOKA,
KURUME, KUMAMOTO, HAKODATE, OTARU, SAPPORO, MURORAN,
UTSUNOMIYA, ASHIKAGA, TOCHIGI, SANO, KIRIU, TATEBAYASHI.

BRANCHES IN KOREA:

SEOUL, FUSAN

LONDON AND NEW YORK AGENTS:

LONDON { Westminster Bank, Ltd.
Midland Bank, Ltd.
The Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd.
NEW YORK { The National City Bank of New York.
Guaranty Trust Company of New York.
The Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd.

CORRESPONDENTS:

The Bank, in addition to its own Branches, has numerous Agencies or Correspondents in the principal Cities and Towns at Home and Abroad.



F. KANEMATSU & CO., LTD.

ESTABLISHED 1889

119, ITOH-MACHI, KOBE

P. O. BOX 227

Tokyo Branch:
MARUNOUCHI BUILDING

Australian Houses:
F. KANEMATSU (Australia), LTD.
SYDNEY and MELBOURNE

Cable Address:
"KANEMATSU"

Codes Used:
A.B.C., Acme, Bentley's, Schofield,
Universal Trade and Private

IMPORTS

WOOL, TOP,
Etc.

TALLOW, OLEINE,
Etc.

WHEAT, FLOUR,
Etc.

TIMBER,
Etc.

EXPORTS

SILK:
Habutai, Fuji Pongee, Crepe,
Handkerchief, Etc.

COTTON:
All Piece Goods, Hosiery,
Towel, Etc.

GLASS:
Bottles and Glassware

*PRODUCE, BUTTON,
PORCELAIN,*
Etc.

JAPANESE TEXTILES FOR EXPORT

Standard Printed and Dyed Cotton and Silk Fabrics

SHIRTINGS	SHEETINGS	DRILLS
PRINTS	CRETONNES	FLANNELLETS
DAMASKS	TOWELLINGS	CREPES
PONGEES	BROCADES	SATINS, Etc.

Also Cotton and Silk Yarns and Silk Wool

The Fuji Gasu Spinning Co., Ltd.

(FUJI GASU BOSEKI KABUSHIKI KAISHA)

Established in 1896

CAPITAL - - - - - Yen 45,500,000

RESERVES - - - - - „ 9,610,000

Operating 773,880 Spindles and 3,269 Looms

HEAD OFFICE:

**47, Sakamoto-cho, Nihonbashi-ku,
TOKYO**

Board of Directors:

Chairman:
TATSUMI MOCHIDA, Esq. (Dr. Eng.)

Managing Director:
YOSHIHISA SHIKAMURA, Esq.

Directors:
Baron ICHIZAEMON MORIMURA | KICHIEMON HAMAGUCHI, Esq.
SHINJIRO HIBIYA, Esq. | ZENGO NAGANO, Esq.
MASATAKA GOTO, Esq.



F. KANEMATSU & CO., LTD.

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Tokyo Branch:
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Cable Address:
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Codes Used:
A.B.C., Acme, Bentley's, Schofield,
Universal Trade and Private

IMPORTS

WOOL, TOP,
Etc.

TALLOW, OLEINE,
Etc.

WHEAT, FLOUR,
Etc.

TIMBER,
Etc.

EXPORTS

SILK:
Habutai, Fuji Pongee, Crepe,
Handkerchief, Etc.

COTTON:
All Piece Goods, Hosiery,
Towel, Etc.

GLASS:
Bottles and Glassware

**PRODUCE, BUTTON,
PORCELAIN,**
Etc.

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Standard Printed and Dyed Cotton and Silk Fabrics

SHIRTINGS	SHEETINGS	DRILLS
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Also Cotton and Silk Yarns and Silk Wool

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HEAD OFFICE:

47, Sakamoto-cho, Nihonbashi-ku,
TOKYO

Board of Directors:

Chairman:
TATSUMI MOCHIDA, Esq. (Dr. Eng.)

Managing Director:
YOSHIHISA SHIKAMURA, Esq.

Directors:
Baron ICHIZAEMON MORIMURA | KICHIEMON HAMAGUCHI, Esq.
SHINJIRO HIBIYA, Esq. | ZENGO RO NAGANO, Esq.
MASATAKA GOTO, Esq.



THE
NISSHIN FLOURING MILLS Co.,
LIMITED

Capital Subscribed - Yen 12,330,000
Capital Paid-up - - „ 9,402,000
Reserve Funds - - „ 5,000,000

Daily Milling Capacity 20,100 Barrels

HEAD OFFICE:

No. 16, Suehirogashi, Nihonbashi-ku,
TOKYO

Branches:

NAGOYA, KOBE, SHIMONOSEKI, DAIREN

Mills:

TATEBAYASHI, YOKOHAMA, SANO, UTSUNOMIYA,
TAKASAKI, MITO, NAGOYA, OKAYAMA,
KOBE, SAKAIDE, TOSU, TSURUMI



NIPPON OIL CO.^{LTD.}

Producers, Refiners and Dealers

OF

GASOLINE, KEROSENE,
NATURAL OIL, LUBRICANTS,
PARAFFINE, ASPHALT,
ETC., ETC.

HEAD OFFICE:

MARUNOUCHI, TOKYO

SALES OFFICES:

Tokyo, Osaka, Shimonoseki, Otaru, Taihoku, Keijo (Seoul)

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JAPAN

In addition to the comprehensive service in the Empire, the Japanese State Railways have made special arrangements with the carriers in the Orient and Europe for the benefit of world-wide travellers, through booking service being maintained to and from JAPAN as follows:—

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Single Tickets via Chosen, via Shanghai and via Tsingtao
Return Tickets via Chosen and via Tsingtao
Japan-China Circular Tour Tickets
Japan-China Overland Tour Tickets for Steamer Passengers
Japan-China Party Trip Tickets
Japan-China Baggage and Parcels Through Traffic

Japan-Manchuria Through Booking

Single and Return Tickets via Chosen, via Dairen and via Vladivostock
Japan-Manchuria Circular Tour Tickets
Japan-Manchuria Party Trip Tickets
Japan-Manchuria Baggage Through Traffic

Europe-Asia Trans-Siberia Through Booking

Single Tickets via Chosen, via Dairen and via Vladivostock
Baggage Through Traffic

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1. JAPANESE STATE RAILWAYS, BOARD OF TOURIST INDUSTRY, Tokyo, Japan
2. JAPAN TOURIST BUREAU, Head Office: Tokyo Station, Tokyo, Japan
3. JAPAN HOTEL ASSOCIATION, c/o Traffic Bureau, Japanese State Railways, Tokyo, Japan

Further Particulars, Time Tables, Guide Books, etc. are obtainable on application to any of the above

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JAPANESE STATE RAILWAYS



Miyajima Shrine

The Japanese State Railways operate trains with every Modern Convenience on their Smooth Roadbeds, extending over 8,900 miles and reaching every Pleasure and Business Point in the Country

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COMFORT, CONVENIENCE and SAFETY

BOARD OF TOURIST INDUSTRY
JAPANESE STATE RAILWAYS



Hirosaki Castle

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OF

COLOUR, CHARM and COURTESY
WHERE

the East Blends with the West
and the Past with the Present

Come to Isles of Sunrise
Revel in their Fascinating Scenic Tours
Travel is not a luxury, but an economical method of education

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JAPANESE STATE RAILWAYS



The Shortest Route **To EUROPE** **From JAPAN and CHINA**

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Information Bureau Offices:

TOKYO—MARUNOUCHI BUILDING

PHONES: Marunouchi 3131-3135

OSAKA—AZUCHI-MACHI, SAKAISUJI

PHONES: Honmachi 1700 and 1701

SHIMONOSEKI—FRONT OF STATION

PHONE: 1962



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The International Highway between Far East and Europe.
The most direct route between Tokyo and Paris (16 days).
The best railway service that can be had in all Asia.
American standard of comfort and equipment—luxurious pull-
man cars; dining saloons; observation cars.

Chosen is replete with attractions, both scenic and historical.
Chosen is a country of real contrast, where still exist, side by
side, deep rooted traditions and relics of many centuries old
and various features of the most up-to-date civilization.

Chosen is an ideal vacation land, besides being a beautiful
land it possesses the finest climate in Asia.

The world-famous Kongosan (Diamond Mountains) is
situated in Chosen. It is the jewel of the Far East. In scenic
beauty, grandeur and variety it has no equal in the world.

Up-to-date western style hotels are found in all the principal
cities and resorts of the country. These hotels are under the
direct management of the Government Railways of Chosen,
and are reputed for the excellence of service and comfort.

For all informations, please apply to:

**Railway Bureau,
Government-General of Chosen**

KEIJO, CHOSEN (Korea)

Kawasaki Sharyo Kabushiki Kaisha

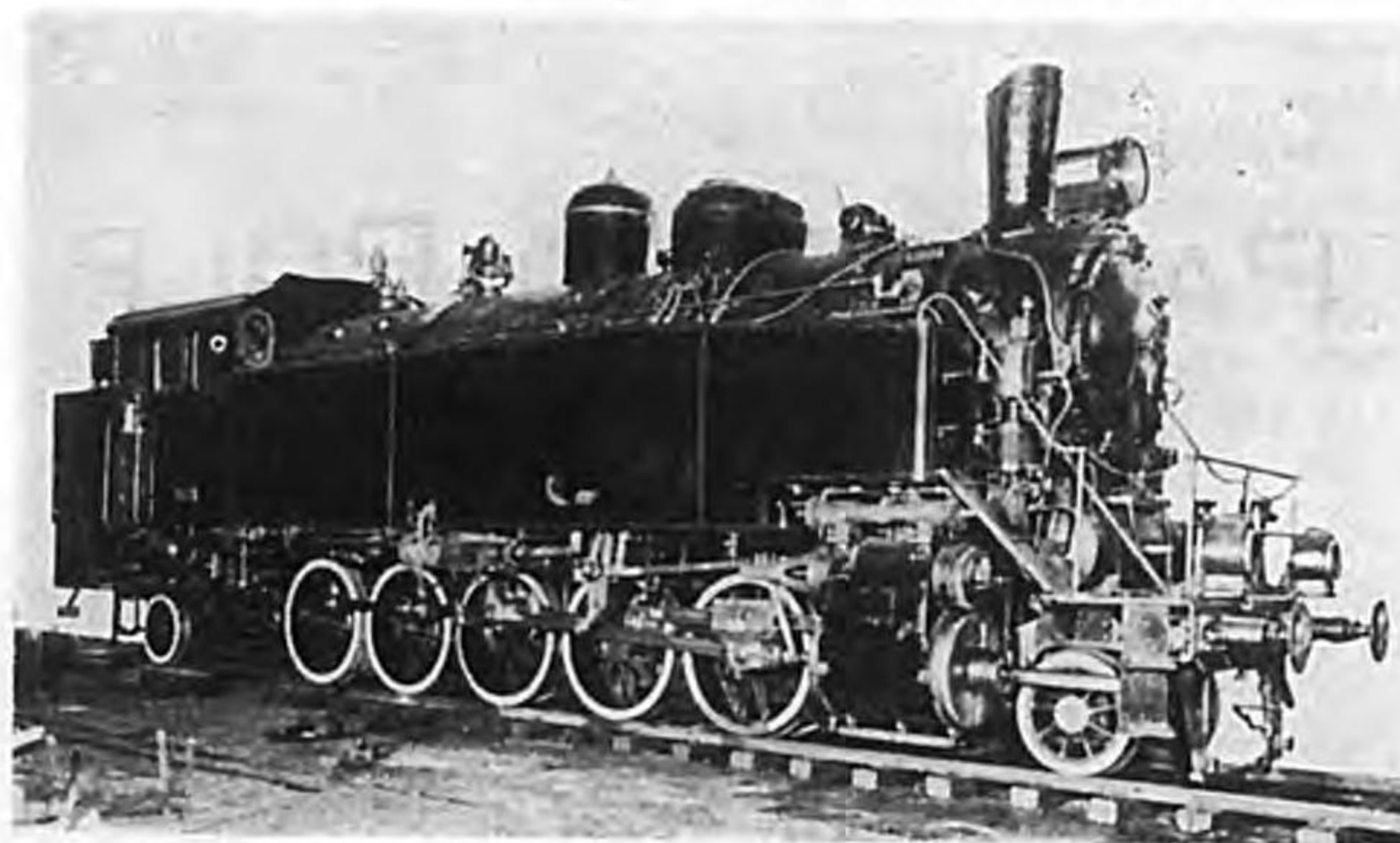
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OFFICE:

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MANUFACTURERS OF ALL KINDS OF

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2. Large Steel and Iron and Bronze Castings.
3. Girders and Cranes.
4. Marine Engine Shafts, Rods and other Heavy Ingot Forgings.



Decapot (IE) Type Locomotive for the Chinese Eastern Railway

The Largest Locomotive Works in the East

ESTABLISHED IN 1872

OJI SEISHI KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(OJI PAPER MANUFACTURING CO., LTD.)

CAPITAL STOCK: YEN 65,916,650

MANUFACTURERS

OF

PAPER AND PULP

Ginjiro Fujihara, President

MAIN OFFICE:

YUSEN BUILDING

TOKYO, JAPAN



Fuji Seishi Kabushiki Kaisha

(FUJI PAPER COMPANY, LTD.)

GINZA 4-CHOME, KYOBASHI-KU, TOKYO

CAPITAL - - - - - Yen 77,700,000

Mills:

No. I Fuji.....Shizuoka Prefecture	SenjuTokyo Prefecture
No. II Fuji..... " "	Edogawa " "
No. III Fuji..... " "	EbetsuHokkaido "
Shibakawa " "	Kushiro " "
KyotoKyoto " "	OchiaiSaghalien
KanzakiHyogo " "	Shirutoru "
KumanoWakayama " "	

Principal Manufactures:

Newsprint, Printing Paper, Writing Paper, Tracing Paper, Drawing Paper, Tissue Paper, Wrapping Paper, Packing Paper, Card-board, Art Paper, Coloured Paper and Kraft Paper

Annual Output:

660,000,000 lbs. of Paper and 600,000,000 lbs. of Pulp

Board of Directors:

HEIZABURO OKAWA, Esq.	President
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AND STATISTICS ON JAPAN AND JAPANESE
TERRITORIES FOR THE YEAR

1931

BY

Late Professor Y. Takenobu
OF WASEDA UNIVERSITY

TWENTY-SEVENTH YEAR OF ISSUE

Agents :

Tokyo :

Maruzen Company, Ltd.
Branches at Osaka, Kobe, Kyoto,
Yokohama, Nagoya, Fukuoka,
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P2-25

PREFACE

It is my sad duty to announce the death on the 26th of April last of my husband, Professor Yoshitaro Takenobu, who has edited this work for twenty-five years since it was started by him in 1905.

Fortunately, most of the needed additions and corrections had been completed under his personal direction before he passed away, so that all that remained was to read the proofs and secure some statistical data which were not available until later in the year. I wish to take this opportunity of expressing my heartfelt thanks to those friends of his who so kindly volunteered to render possible the issuance of the edition now offered to the public.

Arrangements are in progress now with every prospect of a successful issue for perpetuating the publication of this work. This makes me feel very happy, because I know how much time and energy my lamented husband so ungrudgingly bestowed upon this favourite offspring of his active mind.

MUME TAKENOBU.

Tokyo, December, 1930.

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DIARY

(Nov. 1, 1929—Oct. 30, 1930)

1929:

- Nov. 7. The session of the World Engineering Congress and the World Power Conference going on in Tokyo since Oct. 29 is closed.
- " 9. The 3rd conference of the Institutes of Pacific Relations, in session in Kyoto since Oct. 28, comes to an end.
- " 11. Preliminary negotiations over the naval reduction problem between the Japanese and British governments commence.
- " 15. Grand army manoeuvres lasting for three days commence in Ibaraki prefecture under the supervision of His Majesty the Emperor.
- " 21. The Finance Department ordinance announcing the removal of the gold embargo in January next year is issued.
- " 23. The provinces in Northern Japan are visited by a great snow-storm.
- " 29. Education Minister Mr. Kobashi resigns in connexion with the Echigo Railway scandal and Mr. Ryuzo Tanaka is appointed to the post as his successor; Mr. S. Saburi, Japanese Minister to China, commits suicide.
- " 30. The Japanese delegation to the London Naval Conference headed by ex-Premier Mr. Wakatsuki starts for England via America.
- Dec. 3. Mr. Yata, new Japanese Minister to Switzerland, leaves for his post.
- " 5. The Tokyo Municipal tramway men commence a go-slow strike.
- " 12. A slump occurs on Yokohama silk market, the quotations dropping to ¥1, 115 per bale.
- " 22. The Imperial Court grants a sum of 41,000 yen in aid of general social works fund.
- " 23. The 57th session of the Imperial Diet is formally convened; Mr. Zembel Horikiri is elected the President of the House of Representatives.
- " 24. The 57th session of the Imperial Diet opens.

1930:

- Jan. 6. A severe snow-storm hits the provinces of the Japan Sea board.
- " 11. The embargo on the export of gold is removed; the Premier and the Finance Minister conjointly issue a statement concerning the return to the gold standard.
- " 21. The Imperial Diet is dissolved.
- " 24. The newly arrived U. S. Ambassador Mr. Castle presents his credentials to the Emperor.
- " 25. A conference of prefectural governors is held in Tokyo; an American tourist party consisting of over 400 men and women arrives in Tokyo.
- " 26. The wireless service between London and Nagoya is commenced.
- Feb. 4. The wedding of H.I.H. Prince Takamatsu (younger brother of the Emperor) and Miss Kiku-ko Tokugawa takes place at the Imperial Palace.

DIARY

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- Feb. 12. Mr. Kenkichi Yoshizawa is appointed Ambassador to France.
- " 13. Another great snow-storm is reported from the provinces of the Japan Sea board.
- " 19. General H. Kanaya is appointed Chief of the General Staff.
- " 20. A general election is held throughout the country, resulting in a victory of the Minsei party; Direct wireless service between Japan and France is inaugurated.
- Mar. 7. The first trial flight of the aerial passenger carrying service between Osaka and Shanghai of the Japan Air Transport Co. is successfully carried out.
- " 10. Over 100 school children are killed in the cinema show accident at the Chinkai secondary naval station (Chosen).
- " 12. The new Sino-Japanese customs tariff convention is provisionally signed.
- " 15. The electric train service on the Tokyo-Yokosuka section of the Tokaido line is inaugurated; Hannes Schneider, noted skier of Austria, arrives in Tokyo.
- " 18. The Crown Prince of Denmark arrives in Tokyo.
- " 19. The commercial agreement newly arranged between Japan and Egypt is signed.
- " 24. His Majesty the Emperor makes a round of visits to principal quarters of Tokyo to observe the work of reconstruction in the capital.
- " 26. Tokyo Municipality celebrates the accomplishment of the work of the capital reconstruction.
- " 27. The Central Meteorological Observatory issues a warning concerning the recent earthquakes at Ito (Shizuoka pref.) and neighbourhood.
- " 31. The Reconstruction Board is discontinued as the result of the completion of the reconstruction work in Tokyo.
- Apr. 1. The Government sends an instruction to the Japanese delegation in London in connection with the naval reduction problem; metric system is enforced on all railway lines throughout the country.
- " 5. The American aeroplane "Black" arrives at Osaka on a round-the-world flight.
- " 12. The American journalist party arrives in Tokyo.
- " 20. The Tokyo municipal tramway men carry out a general strike demanding better treatment.
- " 21. H.I.H. Prince Takamatsu departs for Europe accompanied by Princess Kiku-ko; the 58th (special) session of the Imperial Diet is convened in Tokyo.
- " 24. The Bureau of Tourist Industry is created in the Railway Department.
- " 26. An exhibition of Japanese fine art works opens in Rome; an old bell belonging to the Shinagawa temple is brought back from Switzerland after 60 years.
- May 6. The supplementary budget estimate is approved by the Lower House; the Sino-Japanese customs tariff convention is formally signed.
- " 12. The new 1st-class cruiser Takao built at Yokosuka navy yard is successfully launched.
- " 13. The special session of the Imperial Diet is closed.
- " 19. Navy Minister Adm. Takarabe, who attended the London Naval Conference as Japanese delegate, returns to Tokyo.
- " 22. The Burglary Prevention Law is promulgated.

- May 24. The 9th meeting of the Far Eastern Olympic championship contest opens in Tokyo.
- " 27. Mr. Hidejiro Nagata is elected Mayor of Tokyo as successor to Mr. Z. Horikiri, who resigned.
- June 1. A severe earthquake shakes the Kwanto districts; the national labour union league is organized.
- " 7. Cotton spinning mills throughout the country decide on further curtailment of operation in view of the great accumulation of stocks.
- " 11. Admiral S. Taniguchi is appointed Chief of the Naval Board of Command as successor to Admiral K. Kato, who resigned; the Burglary Prevention Law takes effect.
- " 18. Mr. Wakatsuki, chief delegate to the London Naval Conference, and suite return to Tokyo.
- " 20. Mr. Wakatsuki and Admiral Takarabe, who attended the London Naval Conference as chief delegates, are received in audience by His Majesty the Emperor and is honoured with gracious Imperial messages.
- " 22. The experiment of wireless exchange between Tokyo and Berlin is successfully carried out.
- July 3. The new super express train on the Tokaido line is successfully put on a trial run, it covering the distance between Tokyo and Kobe in 9 hours.
- " 18. A severe storm hits northern Kyushu and the southern part of Chosen, with much damage to buildings and other structures.
- " 21. Meeting of the Supreme War Council lasting for 3 days is held in connection with the London Naval Treaty.
- " 24. The London Naval Treaty is submitted to the Privy Council.
- " 29. The Japanese Consulate at Changsha (China) is assaulted and burnt by the Chinese communist rioters.
- Aug. 2. The Imperial Government lodges a strong protest with the Chinese Government in connection with the outrageous conduct of the Chinese communist rioters at Changsha.
- " 8. American flyer Lieutenant Bromley arrives in Tokyo with his aeroplane "City of Tacoma" to carry out a trans-Pacific flight.
- " 9. The Privy Council approves the protocol of the International Court of Justice Treaty.
- " 16. The new commercial treaty between Japan and Austria is formally signed.
- " 17. Another severe shock of earthquake is felt throughout the Kwanto districts.
- " 21. Television service is inaugurated between Tokyo and Osaka.
- " 30. Japanese aviator Zensaku Azuma, who started from Berlin for Tokyo on his aeroplane "Tokyo" on Aug. 19, safely arrives at Yoyogi; the attempt of Lieutenant Bromley to carry out a trans-Pacific flight from Kasumigaura ends in a failure.
- Sept. 1. Memorial services for the 7th anniversary of the great earthquake of September 1, 1923 is held at the Earthquake Memorial Hall in Tokyo.
- " 2. The Chicago University baseball team arrives at Tokyo.
- " 5. An eruption occurs on Volcano Asama with showers of ashes in Tokyo and elsewhere.

- Sept. 14. Lieutenant Bromley flies from the coast of Samushiro (Aomori-ken) on his plane "City of Tacoma" on the trans-Pacific flight.
- " 15. Lieutenant Bromley flies back to Shiriya Point (Aomori-ken) abandoning further flight owing to a storm and an accident to the plane; the new U.S. Ambassador Mr. Forbes arrives in Tokyo; the 19th meeting of the International Statistic Association conference opens in Tokyo, presided over by H.I.H. Prince Chichibu.
- " 20. The International Statistic Association conference comes to an end.
- " 25. Dr. Mineichiro Adachi is elected Judge of the International Court of Justice.
- Oct. 1. The 3rd quinquennial national census is taken throughout the country; the Privy Council unanimously approves the London Naval Treaty; the super express train service on the Tokaido line is inaugurated.
- " 2. A statement concerning the ratification of the London Naval Treaty is issued in the name of Premier Hamaguchi and Foreign Minister Baron Shidehara.
- " 3. Navy Minister Admiral Takarabe resigns the post and is succeeded by Admiral Baron Abo.
- " 4. The Imperial message of the ratification of the London Naval Treaty is forwarded to London.
- " 6. The Bank of Japan lowers its official rates by 1 rin.
- " 10. Grand naval manoeuvres lasting for 12 days commences.
- " 12. A new commercial treaty is concluded between Japan and Turkey.
- " 15. Mr. K. Hirota, former Minister to Poland, is appointed Ambassador to Soviet Russia.
- " 26. The aboriginal tribesmen at Musha (Taiwan) starts a riot.
- " 27. A tourist party consisting of 36 influential business men of Canada arrives in Tokyo for observation of business condition.
- " 30. Another tourist party consisting of 21 prominent business men from England arrives at Kobe for observation of economic situation in Japan.

OBITUARY

(Nov. 1, 1929—Oct. 30, 1930)

- Nov. 3. INOUE, KATSUNOSUKE, Marquis, Privy Councillor, former Ambassador to St. James' Court; aged 65.
- " 9. SAITO, HIDESABURO, scholar of English and Principal of Seisoku English Language School; aged 64.
- " 11. MIYAKE, YONEKICHI, Dr. Lit., Pres. Tokyo College of Literature & Science and Dir. of Tokyo Higher Normal School, Court Councillor; aged 70.
- " 20. MIURA, MASATARO, Dr. Med.; aged 51.
- " 22. KISHINOUE, KENKICHI, Dr. Sci., noted zoologist, Mem. Imperial Academy, Emerit. Prof. Tokyo Imp. Univ.; aged 65.
- " 30. SABURI, SADAQ, Minister to Peking; aged 52.
- Dec. 3. OHNO, TADASUKE, noted violinist; aged 35.
- " 4. KABUTO, KUNINORI, LL.D., Mem. House of Peers; aged 55.
- " 11. TAKAGI, MASUTARO, M.P. for Tokyo, Lawyer; aged 61.
- 1930:
- Jan. 3. NAKAMURA, SEINAN, Dr. Sci., Mem. Imperial Academy, ex-Dir. of Central Meteorological Observatory, Principal of Tokyo Butsuri Gakko; aged 76.
- " 4. WATANABE, JIEMON, Pres. of Watanabe Bank; aged 60.
- " 9. YASUDA, ZENZABURO, noted business man of Tokyo, Crown Mem. House of Peers; aged 61.
- " 16. KOBAYASHI, UHSABURO, D.L., economist & financier, Dir. Japan Steel Foundry, etc.; aged 65.
- " 27. DEWA, SHIGETO, Baron, Adm. (ret.), hero of the Japan-China & Russo-Japanese wars; aged 76.
- " 29. MIURA, SHOZO, Captain, Naval Attache to the Japanese Embassy in Paris (died in Paris); aged 43.
- " 30. KODAMA, ICHIZO, Pres. of the Toyo Cotton Trading Co., Ltd.; aged 65.
- Feb. 3. NAKANISHI, ROKUSABURO, M.P.; aged 65.
- " 8. MIWA, ICHITARO, ex-M.P. for Tokyo; aged 64.
- " 22. TAKAMINE, JOSEPH, Dir. of Takamine Chemical Research Institute; aged 43.
- " 26. SUZUKI, MANJIRO, ex-M.P. for Tokyo; aged 71.
- Mar. 2. YAMAGIWA, KATSUSABURO, Dr. Med., Emerit. Prof. Tokyo Imp. Univ., Mem. Imperial Academy, authority on cancer research; aged 68.
- " 6. OTANI, YASUSHI, Crown Mem. House of Peers, Lord-in-Waiting at the Kinkei Hall; aged 87.
- " 9. OKANO, TOMOJIRO, Maj.-Gen.; aged 62.
- " 12. NIWA, TOKICHIRO, Dr. Pharm., Emerit. Prof. Tokyo Imperial Univ.; aged 75.

OBITUARY

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- Mar. 12. UMENO, NOBUYOSHI, Dr. Vet. Surg., Expert at Kitazato Epidemic Research Inst.; aged 59.
- " 19. YOSHIOKA, HANSAKU, Vice-Adm. (reserve); aged 62.
- " 25. GOTO, MAKITA, Emerit. Prof. Tokyo Higher Normal School, noted mathematician and scientist; aged 78.
- " 28. UCHIMURA, KANZO, noted Christian teacher & essayist; aged 70.
- Apr. 3. UZAKI, KOGORO, veteran Christian pastor (Japan Methodist Church); aged 61.
- " 14. KAWAMURA, JOZABURO, LL.D. Crown Mem. House of Peers, Lord-in-Waiting at the Kinkei Hall; aged 72.
- " 19. ITO, CHOSHICHI, educationist, Principal of Tokyo Prefectural 5th Middle School; aged 54.
- " 20. HONDA, KOSUKE, Dr. Agr., Court Councillor; aged 67.
- " 11. ISOME, ROKURO, Lieut.-Gen., Commander of 16th Army Division; aged 53.
- " 29. MAYEDA, KEIUN, Dr. Litt., noted Buddhist scholar, ex-Pres. of Toyo & Ryukoku Universities; aged 74.
- May 4. KASUYA, YOSHIZO, Adviser to the Seiyu-kai Party, ex-Speaker of the Lower House; aged 65.
- " 6. TANITA, BUN-E, Lieut.-Gen. (ret.); aged 76.
- " 8. FUKUDA, TOKUZO, D.L., noted economist, Prof. Tokyo Univ. of Commerce; aged 57.
- " 10. SHIMOMURA, HARUSABURO (art name, Kwanzan), master painter of Japanese school, Dir. of Japan Fine Art Academy; aged 58.
- " 13. TAYAMA, ROKUYA (pen-name, Katai), noted novelist; aged 60.
- " 16. KIMURA, TAIKEN, Dr. Litt., Prof. Tokyo Imperial Univ., authority on Sanscrit literature and Hindu philosophy; aged 50.
- " 20. IKUTA, SEIHEI (pen-name, Shungetsu), poet & novelist; aged 49.
- " 31. HATA, EITARO, Lieut.-Gen., Commander of Kwantung Army, ex-Vice-Min. of War, hero of the Tsingtao campaign; aged 64.
- June 8. AIHARA, MASUTAKA, Paym. Vice-Adm. (ret.); aged 76.
- " 30. YASHIRO, ROKURO, Baron, Admiral (ret.), Privy Councillor, hero of the Russo-Japanese war and Navy Minister in the Okuma Cabinet; aged 71.
- July 8. NISHIKUBO, HIROMICHI, ex-Mayor of Tokyo, Mem. House of Peers; aged 68.
- " 11. OGAWA, MASATAKA, ex-Pres. Tohoku Imp. Univ.; aged 66.
- " 14. TAKANE, YOSHITO, LL. D., Lawyer; aged 63.
- " 19. OKU, YASUKATA, Count, Marshal, ex-Chief of General Staff & Supreme War Councillor, hero of the Japan-China and Russo-Japanese wars; aged 85.
- Aug. 19. MURAOKA, CHOTARO, Lieut.-Gen., ex-Commander of Kwantung Army; aged 60.
- " 23. SHIMURA, GENTARO, Mem. House of Peers, former Governor of Japan Hypothec Bank, Pres. Central Bank for Coop. Societies, etc.; aged 64.
- " 24. YAMASHINA, REIZO, ex-Vice-Pres. of Tokyo Chamber of Commerce, Dir. of Nippon Marine Eng. Co.; aged 67.
- " 28. TANAKA, MASA-AKI, Paym. Lieut.-Gen. (reserve); aged 68.
- Sept. 2. TSUNODA, KORESHIGE, Maj.-Gen. (ret.), M.P.; aged 58.

- Sept. 8. SHIGEMUNE, TAKE-KO, Prop. of the Meidensha Electric Supplies Co.; aged 52.
- .. 15. HASHIZUME, SUTESABURO, Vice-Pres. of Kanegafuchi Cotton Spinning Co.; aged 64.
- .. 21. KAWASAKI, YASUNOSUKE, M.P.; aged 64.
- .. 29. SUZUKI, KEIJI, Vice-Admiral; aged 56.
- Oct. 12. AOKI, TETSUJI, L.D., Professor at Keio Univ., Lawyer; aged 57.
- .. 14. TOYOSHIMA, NAOMICHI, L.D., Public Procurator-General of Supreme Court; aged 60.
- .. 15. KURITA, KAN, scholar of Chinese classics; aged 74.
- .. 16. IWASAKI, TOSHIYA, Pres. of Asahi Glass Co., Ltd.; aged 50.
- .. 20. ISHII, SHOICHIRO, Mem. House of Peers; Lord-in-Waiting at the Kinkel Hall; aged 90.
- .. 23. TODO, TAKANARI, Baron, Mem. House of Peers; aged 64.
- .. 24. TOMITA, MATSUHIKO, Dir. of Finance Bureau, Taiwan Govt.-Gen.; aged 47.
- .. 30. TOYODA, SAKICHI, Pres. of Toyoda Spinning Machine Mfg. Co.; aged 64.

WEIGHTS, MEASURES AND MONEYS

WITH ENGLISH AND FRENCH EQUIVALENTS

DISTANCE AND LENGTH

<i>Ri</i> =36 <i>cho</i> =2160 <i>ken</i>	=2.44030 miles	=3.92727 kilomètres
<i>Ri</i> =(marine)	=1 knot	=1.85318 kilomètres
<i>Ken</i> =6 <i>shaku</i> =60 <i>sun</i>	=5.965163 ft.	=1.81818 mètres
<i>Shaku</i> =10 <i>sun</i> =100 <i>bu</i>	=0.994194 ft.	=0.30303 mètres
<i>Shaku</i> (cloth measure)	=1.25 <i>shaku</i>	
<i>Tan</i> (cloth measure)	=a roll of about 25 <i>shaku</i>	

LAND MEASURES

Square <i>ri</i> =1296 <i>cho</i>	=5.95505 sq. miles	=15.42347 kilomètres carrés
<i>Cho</i> =10 <i>tan</i> =3000 <i>tsubo</i>	=2.45064 acres	=99 17355 ares
<i>Tsubo</i> or <i>bu</i>	=3.95369 sq. yards	= 3.30579 centiares
<i>Ko</i> (Formosa)=2934 <i>tsubo</i>		

QUANTITY, CAPACITY AND CUBIC MEASURES

<i>Koku</i> =10 <i>to</i> =100 <i>sho</i>	= $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 4.96005 \text{ bushels} \\ 47.95389 \text{ gallons} \\ \text{(Liquid) U.S.A.} \\ 5 11902 \text{ bushels} \\ \text{(Dry) U.S.A.} \end{array} \right\}$	=1.80391 hectolitres
<i>Go</i> (10th of a <i>sho</i>)		
<i>Koku</i> (capacity of vessels)	=10th of a ton	
<i>Koku</i> (timber)	=about 1 cubic ft. \times 10	
<i>Koku</i> (fish)	=40 <i>kan</i> (in weight)	
<i>Shakujime</i> (timber)	=about 1 cubic ft. \times 12	
<i>Taba</i> (fagot, etc.)	=about 3 \times 6 \times 6 ft.	

WEIGHTS

<i>Kwan</i> (<i>Kan</i>)=1000 <i>momme</i>	= $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 8.26733 \text{ lbs. (Avoir)} \\ 10.04711 \text{ lbs. (Troy)} \end{array} \right\}$	=3.75000 kilogrammes
<i>Kin</i> =160 <i>momme</i>	= $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1.32277 \text{ lbs. (Avoir)} \\ 1.60754 \text{ lbs. (Troy)} \end{array} \right\}$	=0.60000 kilogrammes
<i>Momme</i> =10 <i>fun</i>	= $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0.13228 \text{ oz. (Avoir)} \\ 0.12057 \text{ oz. (Troy)} \end{array} \right\}$	=3.75000 grammes

MONEYS

<i>Yen</i> (¥)=100 <i>sen</i> =1000 <i>rin</i> =2 ⁸ 0 ^d .581	=2.583 francs
	0.4984 dollars (U.S.A) =2.0924 marks (Ger.)

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CHAPTER I GEOGRAPHY

POSITION, AREA, CLIMATE, ETC.

Position 21°45'-50°55' N.L. 119°18'-156°30' E.L.
 Area..... 673,658 sq. kilometres
 Of which, arable..... 60,304.056 sq. km.
 mountainous 227,123.066 sq. km.

Of which .	Area		Percent of area	Coast line (miles)
	(sq. miles)	(sq. kilom.)		
Japan proper (incl. outlying islands)	147,651.65	381,860	56.64	17,179.98
Honshu (" " ")	86,771.75	230,182	33.28	6,040.87
Shikoku (" " ")	7,030.95	18,768	2.70	1,649.18
Kyushu (" " ")	15,587.08	44,349	5.98	4,506.90
Hokkaido (" " ")	29,976.95	88,279	11.61	1,587.37
Other (Kuriles, Luchu, etc.)....	7,886.66	21,270	3.06	3,388.35
Taiwan (Formosa)	13,889.50	35,974	5.33	973.29
Karafuto (Saghalien)	2,024.30	36,090	5.34	945.01
Chosen (Korea)	85,228.68	220,017	32.69	9,324.00
Total	260,704.23	1,076,789		
Kwantung		3,462		
(Pacific Mandate		2,149)		

Population (Average density per sq. kilometre—126)
 Japan proper (" " " " " " —163)

Japan proper	62.12 million
Taiwan	4.24 "
Karafuto	0.20 "
Chosen	19.10 "
Kwantung	1.09 "
Pacific Mandate	0.06 "

Taiwan and outlying islands were acquired after the China war (1894-1895), the southern Karafuto after the Russian war (1904-05), and Chosen by virtue of the Treaty of Annexation concluded between Japan and Chosen in 1910.

Physical Features

Mountains.—The land is mountainous and volcanic and this feature is most conspicuous in Honshu where two branches of the Kwen-Lun system of China, one known as the Chugoku range and the other coming from

Shikoku, encounter at the middle of Honshu with the Saghalien system which forms the ridges in Hokkaido and northern Honshu. These three ranges converging there produce rugged upheavals popularly known as the Japanese Alps crowned by such peaks as Fuji, Norikuragatake, etc.

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

Japan Proper

Name	Locality	Height	
		(metres)	(feet)
Mt. Fuji	Suruga-Kai	3,778	12,394
Shirane Kitadake	Kai	3,192	10,472
Shirane Ainotake	Kai-Suruga	3,189	10,462
Yarigatake	Shinano-Hida	3,180	10,432
Higashidake	Suruga	3,146	10,321
Akaishidake	Shinano-Suruga	3,120	10,236
Oku-Hodaka	Shinano-Hida	3,103	10,180
Hodaka	"	3,090	10,137
Arakawadake	Suruga	3,083	10,114
Ontake	Shinano-Hida	3,063	10,047
Shlomidake	Shinano-Suruga	3,047	9,996
Senjogadake	Shinano-Kai	3,033	9,950
Kita-Hodaka	Kai	3,033	9,950
Shirane Nodoridake	Kai-Suruga	3,026	9,927
Norikuradake	Shinano-Hida	3,026	9,927
Hijiridake	Shinano-Suruga	3,011	9,878

Taiwan

Niitaka (Mt. Morrison)	3,950	12,959
Tsugitaka (Mt. Sylvia)	3,931	12,896
Shukoran-san	3,833	12,575
Maborasu-san	3,806	12,486
Nankodai-san	3,797	12,457
Chuo-Senzan	3,715	12,188
Kwan-san	3,667	12,030
Daisuikutsu-san	3,645	11,958

Chosen

Pelku-tu-san	2,774	9,100
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Rivers.—Principal rivers with their length, drainage area, etc. are given below:—

Flowing into	Name	Length		Drainage basin		Navigable length*	
		miles	km.	sq. miles	sq. km.	miles	km.
Japan Sea	Agano (Honshu)	105	169	3,212	8,340	217	585
	Go-no	124	200	1,471	3,810	124	200
	Ishikari (Hokkaido)	227	365	5,401	14,250	—	—
	Mogami (Honshu)	134	216	2,858	7,400	215	459
	Jinzu (")	78	126	1,073	2,780	27	55
	Noshiro or Yone-shiro (")	85	137	1,584	4,100	124	228
	Omono (")	93	149	1,614	4,180	142	334
	Rakuto (Chosen)	327	525	9,212	23,860	215	341
	Shinano (Honshu)	229	369	4,734	12,260	344	703
	Teshio (Hokkaido)	193	306	2,247	5,820	—	—
	Tumen (Chosen)	325	521	4,061	10,513	54	85
	Abukuma (Honshu)	122	196	2,114	5,480	81	149
Ara (")	110	177	1,209	3,130	154	475	
Kiso (")	144	232	2,511	6,500	278	448	
Kitakami (")	152	243	4,139	10,720	225	605	
Naka (")	78	126	1,262	3,270	68	118	
Shingu (")	100	161	942	2,440	183	295	
Pacific Ocean	Fuji (")	100	161	1,749	4,530	55	90

Inland Sea	Tenryu (Honshu)	134	216	1,888	4,890	176	357
	Tokachi (Hokkaido)	122	196	3,389	8,780	—	—
	Tone (Honshu)	200	322	6,086	15,760	415	852
Okhotsk Sea	Yoshino (Shikoku)	146	236	1,429	3,700	146	236
	Yodo (Honshu)	49	79	3,246	8,410	220	660
East China Sea	Tokoro (Hokkaido)	90	145	1,027	2,660	—	—
	Chikugo (Kyushu)	88	141	1,102	2,850	117	189
Yellow Sea	Dakusul (Taiwan)	95	165	—	—	—	—
	Daido (Chosen)	273	439	6,437	16,673	161	260
	Kan (")	320	514	10,147	26,279	205	330
	Yalu (")	491	790	12,255	31,739	434	698

* Including tributaries.

Lakes and Ponds.—These inland water basins are generally of volcanic or seismic origin, or have been formed by gradation.

The area and circumference of the principal lakes are as below:—

	Area (sq. km.)	Circumference (km.)		Area (sq. km.)	Circumference (km.)
Biwa-ko	674.80	235.20	Inawashiro-ko	103.64	56.08
Hachirogata	221.20	80.63	Nakano-umi	101.60	95.83
Tarafka-ko	180.06	80.63	Shinji-ko	83.13	50.50
Kasumiga-ura	177.50	150.42	Hamana-ko	80.26	126.22
Tomnal-ko	168.18	90.90	Towada-ko	78.02	46.20
Saroma-ko	151.17	77.00	Shikotsu-ko	77.60	40.98

Chuzenji in Nikko (23.35 km.), Ashi-no-ko in Hakone (20.2 km.), Suwa-ko in Shinano (18.18 km.), are noted mountain lakes.

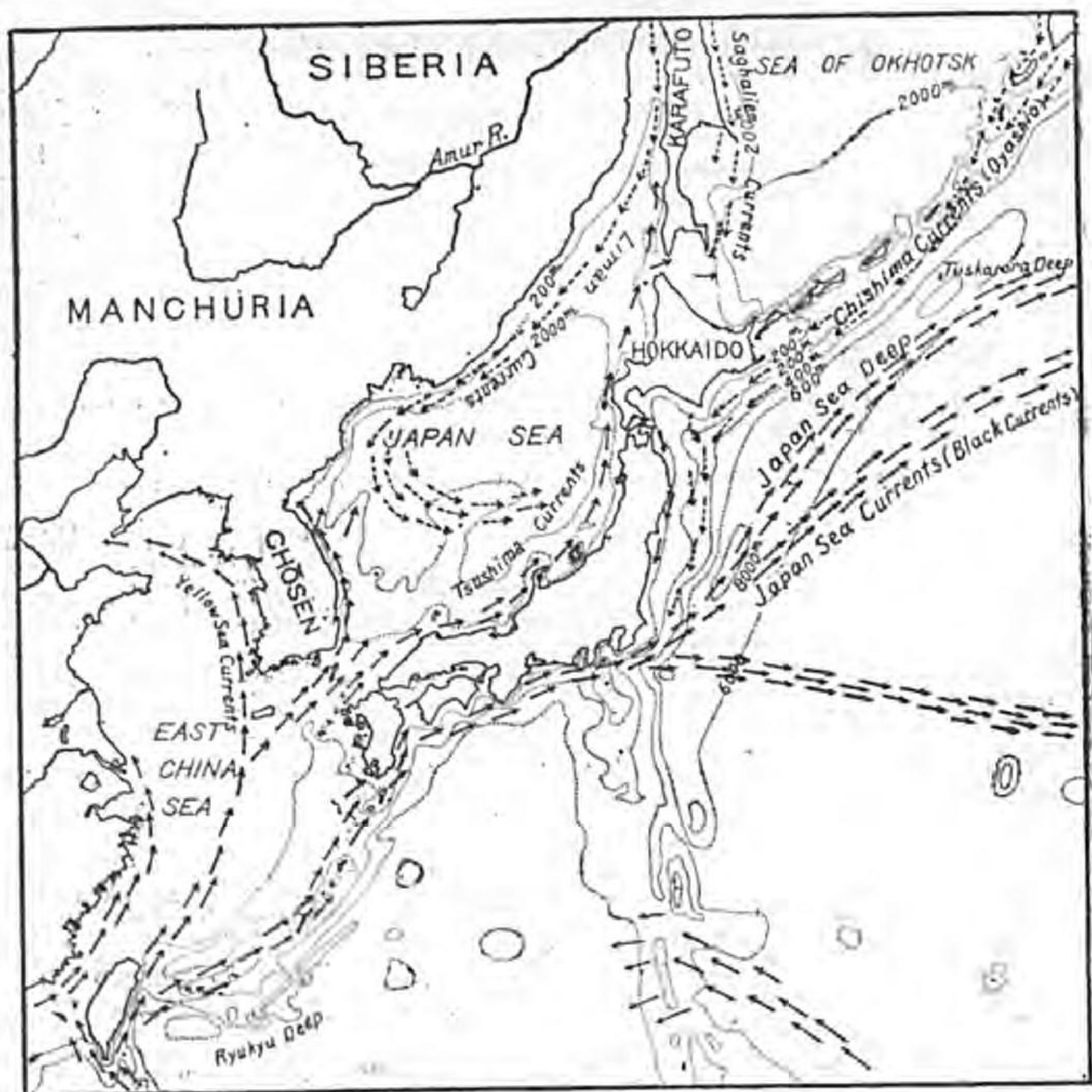
Plains.—Principal plains in Japan proper are:—

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

Adjacent Seas.—The East China Sea is shallow except for the portion near Taiwan and the Ryukyu Is., but the Japan Sea is deeper, the maximum depth being 1,880 fathoms. Great depressions exist in the Pacific waters not far from the coast. One of them, the Tuscarora deep (discovered by the American steamer Tuscarora in 1874) which extends for about 400 miles along the Chishima Is. has a maximum depth of 4,655 fathoms (8,514 metres), the Ryukyu deep being credited with 4,041 fathoms. The deepest sea-bot-

tom in the sea about Japan which hitherto was believed to be the Tuscarora deep has been ascertained to be a spot lying about midway between Hachijo and Ogasawara (Bonin) Islands, 30° 49' N.L. and 142° 18' E.L. where a maximum depth of 9,435 metres was sounded by the warship Manshu in October, 1926.

Ocean Currents.—Warm and cold currents encounter in Japanese seas, and produce favorable effect on the fishing and marine product interests of the country. The great warm current



SEA DEPTH AND CURRENTS

in the North Pacific, known as Kuroshio (Black or Japan Current), runs along the southeastern shores of Japan proper and Taiwan to a point of about $35^{\circ} 6'$ N.L. where it bifurcates and takes a northeasterly course. The Tsushima Current which branches from the Kuroshio near the Ryukyu Is. passes through the Straits of Tsushima and washes the Japan Sea coast of Honshu (main island), finally reaching Saghalien. The cold currents in the Japan Sea are the Okhotsk Current in the Okhotsk Sea and the Ulman Current which after washing the continental shores flows along the northeastern coast of Chosen. The Oyashio (Chishima Current) is also cold and washes the Pacific coast of the

Chishima, Hokkaido and the north-eastern coast of Honshu, and meets one of the branches of the Black Current off the Ojika Peninsula, noted for a bank that furnishes a good fishing ground.

Tides.—Tides register a very high range on the Yellow Sea and East China Sea coasts, reaching as much as 34-5 ft. at Jinsen (Chemulpo), Chosen. In Japan proper the highest range is 18 ft. at the port of Misaki, Kyushu. The difference is 6-13 ft. in the Inland Sea, 6-9 ft. on the Pacific coast and 4-5 ft. on the Okhotsk. The Japan Sea is one of the waters with the smallest tidal range in the world, being scarcely more than 2 ft. except at the Tsushima Strait. At Naruto,

one of the narrow straits connecting the Inland Sea with the Pacific the tidal streams form eddies and whirlpools, and present a very unique sight.

Coast Line.—The Pacific coast is more diversified in outline than the Japan Sea coast. The coast line of the former measures in aggregate 10,310.3 miles against 2,818.6 miles of the latter. In Honshu alone, the outer coast measures 3,199.3 miles and the other only 1,588.6 miles. The eastern coast of Northern Japan, between Cape Shiria and Cape Inubo outside Tokyo Bay, has only one continuous large inlet, the Sendai Bay and Matsushima Bay embraced by the Ojika Peninsula, but for about 146 miles north of Sendai it is rich in smaller indentations and forms a Ria coast. The southern coast of Honshu, extending from Tokyo Bay to Cape Satta in Kyushu abounds in large indentations and furnishes several excellent anchorages. These inlets are Tokyo Bay, Gulf of Sagami, Bay of Atsumi, Bay of Ise, Straits of Kii and Gulf of Tosa. The Inland Sea may practically be regarded as one large inland basin. It being connected with the outer sea by four narrow straits, i.e., Shimonoseki, Hayatomo, Yura and Naruto. It is dotted with small islets and is renowned for its charming scenic beauty.

The China Sea coast of Kyushu is much indented, and over the sea are scattered the islands of Goto, Hirado, Amakusa and Koshiki. In the north-east the Nishisonogi, Nomo and Shimabara peninsulas divide the coast into four bays of Omura, Nagasaki, Sasebo and Misaki. The Bay of Kagoshima also may be mentioned, for it contains the volcanic island of Sakurajima on which there occurred an eruption in 1914. The western part of the Japan Sea coast is much zigzagged and between Chosen and Kyushu there is a narrow strait rather shallow in depth. This strait is further divided into Iki,

East Tsushima and West Tsushima channels, by the islands of Iki and Tsushima. The West Tsushima channel is only 4,700 metres wide.

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

Harbours.—In Japan proper alone there are 1,463 harbours, large and small, the figure including 795 trade ports and 6 naval ports. The harbours open to foreign steamers number 62, i.e., 19 in Honshu, 14 in Kyushu, 1 in Shikoku, 5 in Hokkaido, 10 in Taiwan, 11 in Chosen, and 2 in Karafuto. Principal open ports are Yokohama, Kobe, Osaka, Nagoya, Shimizu, Yokkaichi, Tsuruga, Tokuyama, Shimonoseki (all in Honshu), Nagasaki, Misaki, Moji, Wakamatsu, Hakata, Karatsu (all in Kyushu), Hakodate, Otaru, Muroran (all in Hokkaido), Keelung, Tamsui, Takao (all in Taiwan), Fusan, Gensan, Jinsen, Moppo, Chinnampo, Masampo (all in Chosen), etc.

CLIMATE

The climate of Japan is chiefly governed by monsoons, the prevailing winds which periodically change their directions about every half year. During the warm season what is called

the summer monsoon prevails, its direction being generally south to southeast, and in the cold season the winter monsoon blows in the northerly or northeasterly direction. From

the latter part of September to March a large area of high barometric pressure covers the whole of Eastern Siberia, its centre being the districts around Lake Baikal. About the same time an area of low pressure appears over the northern Pacific extending to the south of Aleutian Islands. This results in the prevalence of anti-cyclonic winds over the whole of the Far East, its direction being west to northwest in Hokkaido, northwest in Japan proper, north in the Okinawa (Luchu) Islands, and northeasterly in Taiwan. The winter monsoon is remarkable for the constancy of its strength, it blowing for several days together, only broken by an occasional visitation of the atmospheric disturbances called cyclonic storm. From the

latter part of April to the end of August what is known as the grand Pacific high pressure occupies the central part of the north Pacific Ocean, its western margin reaching the coast of Japan. Then in the Tibetan plateau there develops a great low area with a secondary low area developing over the Mongolian desert. Thus a system of cyclonic circulations of air is established all over the Far Eastern coast. The summer monsoon is generally variable in strength and its duration rather short. Below are given the mean monthly barometric reading at leading stations as reduced to the sea-level and given in mm. and a table showing the directions of prevailing winds at principal localities:

Table I.—Atmospheric Pressure (in mm.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	66.0	65.0	63.4	60.6	57.7	55.2	54.4	53.8	57.0	61.3	64.1	65.7	60.4
Fukuoka	66.6	65.7	64.5	62.0	59.1	56.3	56.4	56.2	59.0	63.2	65.7	66.7	61.8
Kagoshima	66.0	65.0	63.8	61.6	59.0	56.6	56.9	56.3	58.3	62.1	65.1	66.1	61.4
Hiroshima	66.1	65.3	64.4	62.0	59.3	56.6	56.8	56.6	59.2	63.1	65.6	66.0	61.8
Osaka	65.1	64.4	63.9	62.0	59.3	56.7	57.0	56.9	59.3	62.7	65.0	65.0	61.4
Nagoya	64.2	63.6	63.3	61.9	59.3	56.9	57.2	57.2	59.5	62.5	64.4	64.3	61.2
Kanazawa	64.4	64.2	63.9	61.9	59.2	56.6	56.9	56.9	59.5	63.0	64.7	64.2	61.3
Tokyo	62.4	62.1	62.4	61.7	59.2	57.0	57.3	57.6	59.9	62.6	63.6	62.4	60.7
Niigata	63.5	63.3	63.5	62.1	59.3	56.8	57.0	57.2	59.8	63.1	64.3	63.2	61.1
Ishinomaki	62.1	62.0	62.5	61.7	59.2	57.2	57.4	57.7	60.2	62.8	63.4	62.1	60.7
Hakodate	62.1	61.2	61.6	61.0	58.7	56.8	57.0	57.7	60.0	62.4	62.5	60.7	60.0
Nemuro	58.9	59.7	60.2	60.4	58.7	57.7	57.7	58.5	60.6	61.7	60.6	58.3	59.4
Bonin	63.2	62.5	62.8	61.9	59.7	59.3	59.0	56.7	58.8	60.2	62.2	63.9	60.8

Table II.—Directions of Prevailing Wind

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ENE	E	E	E	E
Fukuoka	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE	SE
Kagoshima	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW
Hiroshima	NNE	NNE	NNE	NNE	S	SW	SW	SW	NNE	NNE	NNE	NNE	NNE
Osaka	W	N	N	NE	NE	NE	WSW	NE	NE	NE	NE	W	NE
Nagoya	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW	S	S	S	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW
Kanazawa	SE	SE	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	SE	E
Tokyo	NW	NW	NW	NW	S	S	S	S	NW	NW	NW	NW	NW
Niigata	NW	NW	W	W	W	SE	N	SE	SE	SE	S	NW	S
Ishinomaki	NW	NW	NW	NW	S	S	S	S	N	N	N	NW	NW
Hakodate	W	W	W	W	SE	SE	SE	ESE	E	N	W	W	W
Nemuro	NW	NW	NW	SSW	S	S	S	S	S	SSW	NW	W	SSW
Bonin	N	N	N	S	SSW	S	SE	E	E	E	NE	N	N

Cyclones & Typhoons.—Cyclones (or Continental cyclones) caused by the intruding polar front of general circula-

tion in higher latitude and belonging to the same category as the European rotatory storms are most frequent in

winter and very rare in summer. The typhoon which is of tropical origin as hurricanes in the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic, and the cyclones visiting the Bay of Bengal and Arabian Sea is most frequent between July and October, the severest occurring in August

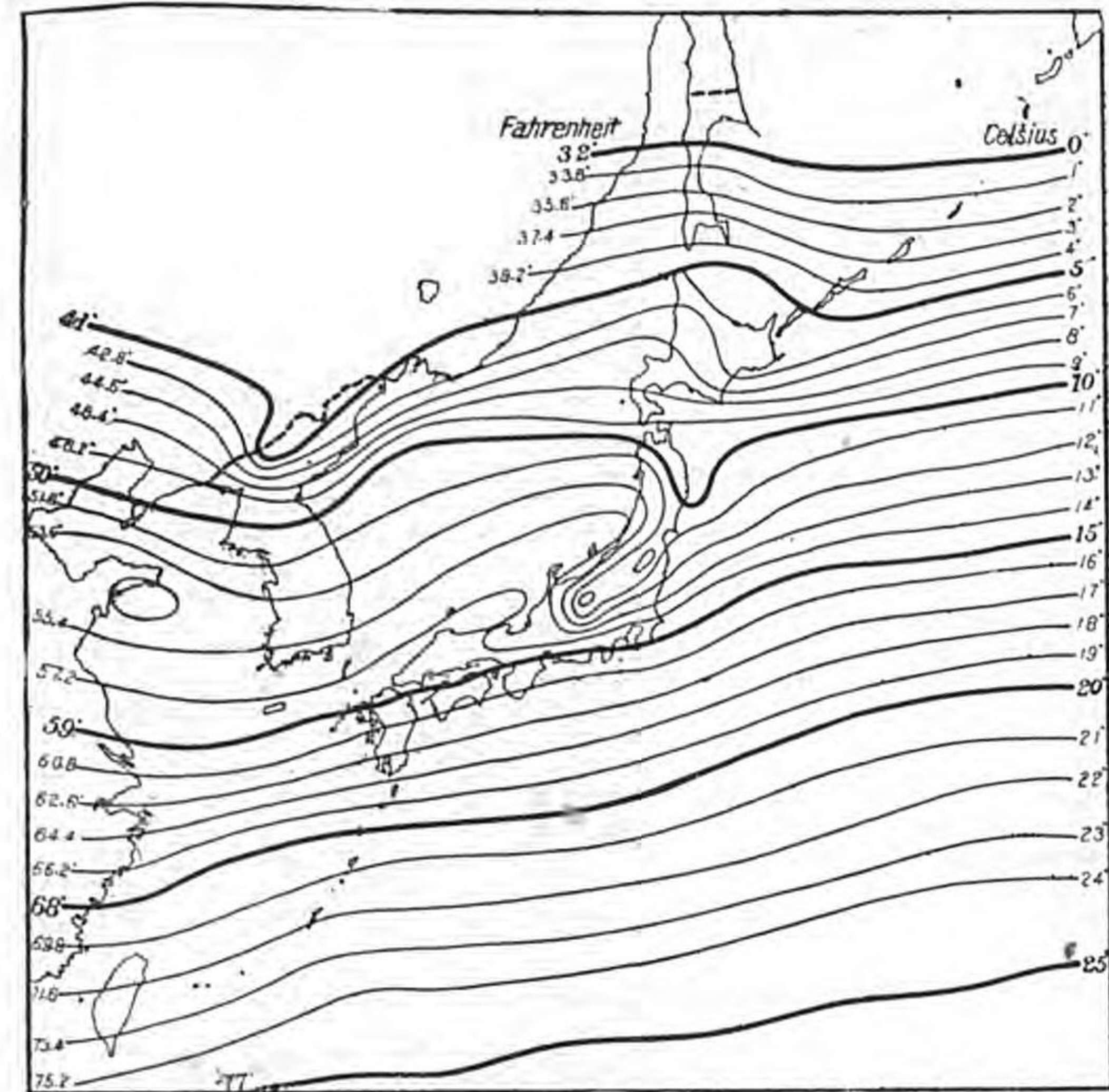
and September. In winter this kind of atmospheric disturbances is very rare. The frequency of the two kinds of rotatory storms is given in the following table quoted from Father Froc's well known memoir "L'Atmosphere en Extreme Orient":—

Table III.—Frequency of Cyclones & Typhoons (1893-1918)

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

Air Temperature.—In winter, the cold is intense in Japan proper for its latitude, owing to the cold air currents brought over from the Asiatic Continent by the winter monsoon, but much

milder than in the districts of same latitude in Manchuria and Siberia. The climate of Chosen is more continental and colder than that of Japan proper. The interior of Hokkaido is



ISOTHERMAL LINES

also marked for the continental feature of the climate, the low temperature of -41 C having been once registered at Asahikawa.

In summer, the air temperature on land is high due to isolation and as the effect of the summer monsoon the air is very frequently close or sultry owing to the moisture borne from the sea. Summer in Taiwan is most unbearable, because of the high temperature lasting from daytime to midnight, though the maximum is comparatively low. In Honshu (Main Island) and other islands of Japan proper, the temperature is low in evening and morning. In Hokkaido, however, it is as hot as

in Honshu in the daytime when tropical clothes are needful, but so cool in evening and early morning hours that people are liable to catch cold. On the coast of the Inland Sea (Setonaikai), land and sea breezes are well developed and consequently morning and evening calms marking the pause of these breezes occur very regularly. In the Inland Sea districts, during the hot season, the air is as still as dead, not a puff quivering the blade of grass, in the hours 7 to 9 p.m. Below we append the tables showing the monthly mean air temperature and the daily mean maximum and minimum:—

Table IV.—Monthly Mean Temperature of Air (in °C.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	15.2	14.7	16.9	20.6	23.9	26.6	28.1	27.9	26.1	22.9	19.7	16.7	21.6
Fukuoka	5.0	5.1	8.1	13.1	17.0	21.3	25.6	26.4	22.2	16.3	11.5	6.9	14.9
Kagoshima	7.1	7.4	10.8	15.5	18.8	22.2	26.0	26.7	24.2	19.0	13.8	8.8	16.7
Hiroshima	4.0	4.3	7.4	13.0	17.1	21.3	25.6	26.8	23.0	16.8	11.1	6.0	14.7
Osaka	4.2	4.4	7.4	13.3	17.5	21.8	26.0	27.3	23.4	17.1	11.5	6.5	15.0
Nagoya	3.2	3.9	7.0	13.1	17.3	21.5	25.7	26.6	22.9	16.6	10.6	5.3	14.5
Kanazawa	2.5	2.4	5.3	11.1	15.5	20.0	24.2	25.5	21.5	15.4	10.1	5.1	13.2
Tokyo	3.0	3.7	6.8	12.6	16.6	20.4	24.2	25.5	22.0	16.0	10.5	5.3	13.9
Niigata	1.4	1.4	4.4	10.3	14.8	19.4	23.8	25.6	21.4	15.2	9.5	4.1	12.6
Ishinomaki	0.3	0.2	3.1	8.9	13.2	17.3	21.2	23.2	19.8	13.7	7.8	2.4	10.9
Hakodate	3.0	2.3	0.7	6.4	10.4	14.4	18.9	21.5	17.8	11.7	5.6	0.2	8.5
Nemuro	5.0	5.5	2.5	2.9	6.5	9.8	14.3	17.2	15.2	10.5	4.4	1.4	5.5
Bonin	17.5	17.4	18.3	20.5	22.7	25.5	27.1	27.1	26.8	25.4	22.8	19.3	22.5

Table V.—Mean Daily Maximum Temperature of Air

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	19.1	18.4	20.9	24.8	28.3	31.4	33.1	32.8	30.8	27.2	23.6	20.5	25.9
Fukuoka	9.5	9.7	13.0	18.5	22.6	26.1	30.0	31.2	27.4	22.3	17.1	11.6	19.9
Kagoshima	11.9	12.1	15.6	20.3	23.5	26.1	30.0	31.0	28.5	24.0	19.0	13.9	21.3
Hiroshima	9.0	9.4	12.7	18.2	22.3	25.6	29.7	31.6	27.8	22.6	17.0	11.4	19.8
Osaka	8.6	8.9	12.3	18.3	22.6	26.2	30.3	32.1	28.1	22.3	16.7	11.3	19.8
Nagoya	8.2	9.1	12.6	18.7	22.9	26.3	30.4	31.7	27.7	22.0	16.5	10.5	19.7
Kanazawa	6.1	6.3	9.8	16.3	20.6	24.5	28.5	30.4	26.4	20.5	14.8	9.0	17.8
Tokyo	8.3	8.8	11.8	17.5	21.2	24.5	28.2	29.9	26.0	20.4	15.7	10.8	18.6
Niigata	4.2	4.7	8.5	15.1	19.7	23.7	27.8	30.0	25.8	19.6	13.4	7.4	16.6
Ishinomaki	3.4	4.2	7.3	13.3	17.3	20.8	24.4	26.4	23.4	18.1	12.3	6.3	14.8
Hakodate	0.3	1.3	4.5	10.9	14.9	18.4	22.6	25.3	22.2	16.7	9.6	3.2	12.5
Nemuro	2.0	2.2	0.8	6.7	10.6	13.8	18.2	20.9	18.6	14.0	7.7	1.6	9.1
Bonin	20.5	20.4	21.5	23.7	25.7	28.8	30.9	30.4	30.2	28.7	25.7	22.2	25.7

Table VI.—Mean Daily Minimum Temperature

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	12.3	11.8	14.0	17.3	20.5	22.9	24.2	24.1	22.5	19.8	16.7	13.3	18.3
Fukuoka	0.9	0.8	3.1	7.4	11.4	17.0	22.0	22.5	18.4	10.8	6.2	2.5	10.3

Kagoshima	2.7	3.1	6.1	11.0	14.5	18.9	22.7	23.3	20.8	14.9	9.2	4.3	12.6
Hiroshima	0.2	0.1	2.4	7.6	11.9	17.3	21.8	22.8	18.9	11.9	6.1	1.5	10.2
Osaka	0.3	0.4	2.9	8.4	12.7	17.9	22.5	23.4	19.6	12.7	6.9	2.3	10.8
Nagoya	1.0	0.7	2.0	7.8	12.1	17.3	21.8	22.6	19.0	11.9	5.7	0.8	10.0
Kanazawa	0.5	0.9	1.3	6.1	10.7	15.9	20.3	21.5	17.7	11.4	6.2	1.8	9.3
Tokyo	1.5	0.6	2.2	8.1	12.1	16.9	20.9	22.2	18.7	12.3	6.0	0.6	9.3
Niigata	1.2	1.4	1.0	6.1	10.8	15.9	20.5	22.0	17.9	11.7	6.1	1.2	9.2
Ishinomaki	3.8	3.3	0.7	4.8	9.3	14.1	18.4	20.4	16.6	9.7	3.6	1.2	7.3
Hakodate	7.3	6.9	3.5	1.7	5.7	10.5	15.5	17.7	13.1	6.1	1.0	4.3	4.1
Nemuro	8.8	9.6	6.3	0.5	2.9	6.6	11.0	44.2	12.1	6.7	0.6	5.0	2.0
Bonin	14.3	14.2	14.1	17.7	20.1	22.7	24.1	24.6	24.2	22.8	19.9	16.3	19.6

Precipitation.—During the cold season the northwesterly monsoon coming from the Continent blows across the Japan Sea, taking up considerable quantities of moisture there, and this inflowing air current strikes the coast and is forced to ascend the slopes of the central mountain ranges running almost parallel to the coast. Due to the adiabatic cooling of this ascending moist air a considerable quantity of precipitation, especially in the form of snow, falls while the wind prevails, and in consequence, the ground in the Japan Sea districts extending from northern Kyushu to Hokkaido, especially in the region from Kanazawa to Otaru, are covered by deep snow during winter. On the Pacific board, separated from the Japan Sea coast by the central mountain ranges, the northwesterly monsoon blows as a descending current so that the prevailing weather is generally fair. Thus the winter weather along the Pacific and the Japan Sea boards with high mountain ridges between are characterized by almost contrary phenomena. Only in the northeastern districts the central mountain ranges are not high enough to intercept the loaded current from the Japan Sea, so that the region from Aomori to Sendai is mostly covered with snow almost throughout

winter, though the districts south of Sendai is free from precipitation.

During the warm season the situation is quite different. Besides the general rainfall caused by the occasional visitation of cyclones and typhoons, a long spell of wet weather prevails for about one month, it setting in from about June 10 and lasting till about July 10. This rainy season is commonly known as "Tsuyu" or "Bai-u," the latter meaning "plum rain" as it occurs when the plums are getting ripe. It begins earlier in the lower latitude and progresses to the higher latitude, it occurring in May in the Luchu Islands and in July in North Chosen and Manchuria. The characteristics of this "Bai-u" lies not so much in the heaviness of rainfall as in the long spell of drizzling. Heavy down-pour of rain caused by the precipitation in a short space of time mostly occurs in August and September with the visitation of typhoons, resulting in the occasional overflow of rivers and general inundations. Heavy precipitation takes place twice in a year, i.e. in winter and summer on the Japan Sea coast and once, i.e. in summer on the Pacific coast. The following tables show the average monthly rainfall in m.m. and the number of rainy days:—

Table VII.—Amount of Precipitation (in mm.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	83.8	127.8	172.1	141.6	236.2	281.1	213.2	292.6	258.7	131.9	74.3	78.2	2091.6
Fukuoka	69.8	82.8	116.4	136.8	122.9	255.5	257.5	130.5	186.8	106.6	74.0	78.8	1615.9
Kagoshima	87.8	98.3	160.9	224.5	214.7	413.8	299.9	184.8	228.2	136.2	95.0	81.3	2225.4
Hiroshima	54.9	64.9	112.2	171.8	150.1	252.6	222.9	105.4	186.0	112.8	67.6	52.3	1553.5
Osaka	49.3	60.1	105.0	142.1	129.0	201.4	155.0	107.6	181.6	130.5	75.6	48.1	1385.1
Nagoya	59.6	70.5	125.7	165.3	162.9	229.0	191.2	177.2	246.0	154.1	87.2	55.8	1724.5

Kana-zawa	277.0	187.8	167.9	163.4	144.6	183.8	209.8	164.6	241.9	204.2	268.7	352.6	2566.2
Tokyo	56.6	73.7	111.5	131.7	155.4	166.6	141.6	160.5	228.2	192.4	101.5	53.3	1572.9
Niigata	191.6	127.8	110.1	104.4	91.9	128.5	159.6	120.7	192.9	159.1	196.0	231.0	1813.6
Ishino-maki	43.3	51.0	75.5	91.1	111.6	117.6	131.2	121.2	164.4	127.8	62.7	41.9	1142.4
Hakodate	62.6	58.5	66.2	69.2	83.6	94.8	133.7	128.4	166.8	120.0	102.8	75.9	1162.4
Nemuro	35.7	27.1	56.0	75.5	96.3	95.4	98.1	106.6	147.3	98.8	82.4	58.0	977.2
Bonin	112.2	85.6	109.8	117.9	216.3	114.2	101.0	188.5	137.6	128.0	141.4	136.2	1588.7

Table VIII.—Number of Days with Precipitation

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Taihoku	16.3	16.7	17.3	14.8	16.1	15.2	13.4	15.2	14.4	15.0	16.1	16.4	186.9
Fukuoka	16.7	14.7	15.7	14.0	11.9	15.4	14.1	11.2	14.4	11.4	12.0	16.0	167.6
Kago-shima	13.9	13.1	16.1	14.9	14.3	18.7	16.6	14.0	14.8	11.5	10.1	12.8	170.9
Hiro-shima	11.4	10.0	13.2	13.2	11.5	14.0	12.7	9.8	13.6	9.3	9.1	9.1	136.9
Osaka	8.9	9.6	13.1	13.4	12.5	14.8	12.6	10.1	14.3	10.8	9.8	9.2	139.1
Nagoya	9.6	8.9	12.7	12.7	12.4	15.1	14.8	12.2	15.8	11.8	10.2	9.4	145.5
Kana-zawa	26.7	22.6	21.0	15.5	14.1	15.3	15.3	12.0	16.8	17.5	20.8	25.8	223.4
Tokyo	7.4	8.2	13.4	14.2	14.0	15.7	14.8	12.6	16.7	14.4	10.0	6.6	147.9
Niigata	27.7	22.9	21.4	15.2	13.9	14.3	14.6	11.4	17.0	19.0	21.9	27.1	226.4
Ishino-maki	10.4	10.3	12.2	12.1	12.6	13.9	15.6	13.8	15.5	14.0	11.5	10.9	152.9
Hakodate	21.0	17.7	17.9	11.8	12.9	12.9	13.9	12.7	16.4	15.2	18.8	21.6	192.7
Nemuro	11.7	9.7	12.1	12.1	13.0	14.5	14.8	14.6	15.3	13.4	12.9	12.7	156.7
Bonin	17.1	15.6	16.0	14.5	18.3	11.2	14.0	17.2	16.9	18.4	17.3	17.1	193.6

Frost.—The inflow of the cold wind from the Continent often causes killing frost, inflicting heavy damage on young mulberry leaves and hence doing no small damage to sericultural interests. The record in leading sericultural centres is as follows:—

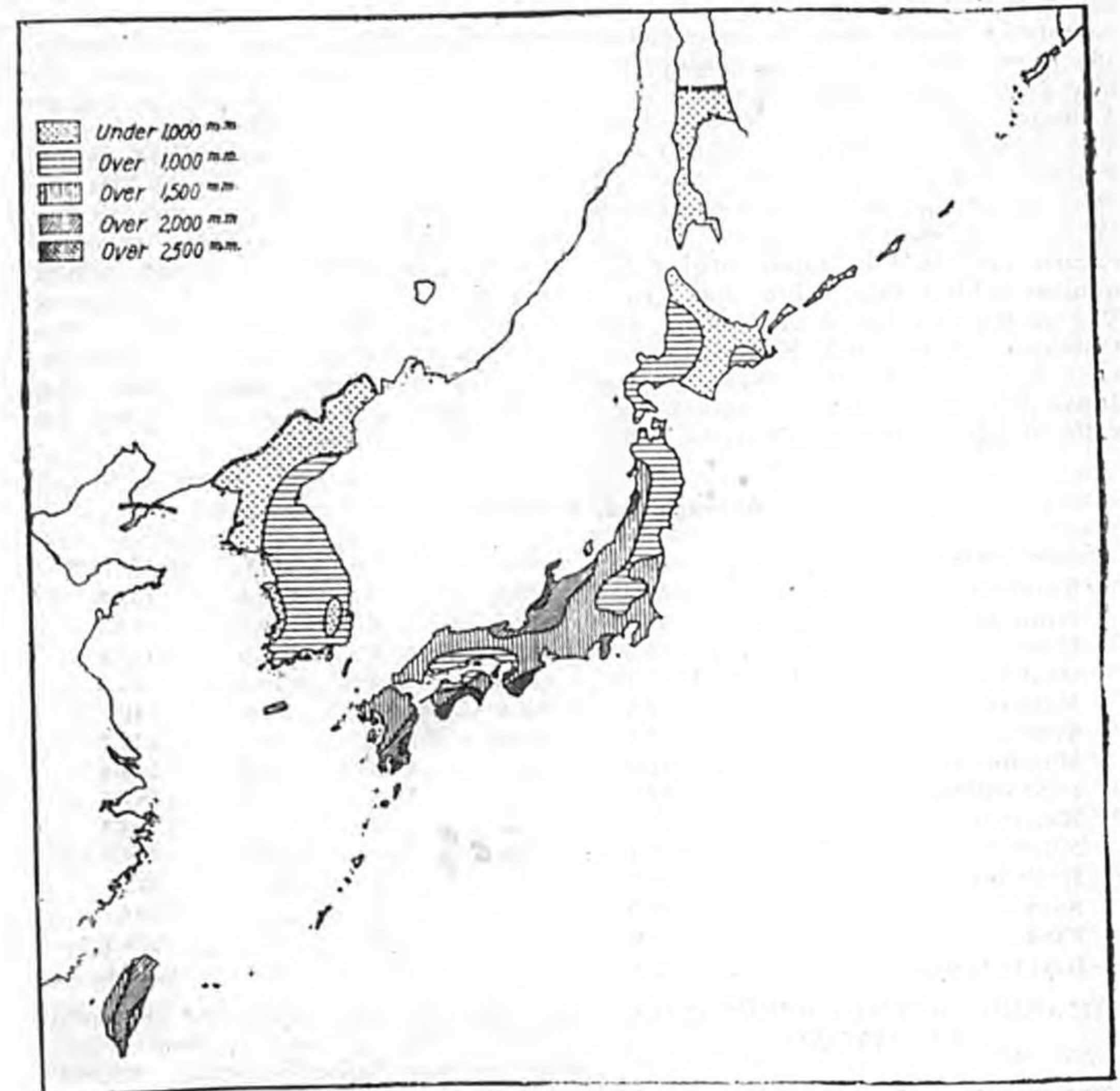
Districts	Average time	Time last occurred
Nagoya	April 13	May 13, 1902
Gifu	" 22	" 19, 1893
Matsumoto	May 14	" 29, 1921
Nagano	" 6	" 30, 1891
Maebashi	April 19	" 13, 1902
Kumagai	" 16	" 16, 1917
Fukushima	May 5	" 25, 1895, 1912

Humidity.—From her geographical position the climate of Japan is very moist, and for this is chiefly responsible the prevalence of southerly wind in summer travelling with the Black Current and of northerly wind in winter which blows with the Tsushima Current. For the reasons stated, Japan is one of the rainiest regions in the world, the average record of rainfalls ranging from 700 m.m. in Karafuto and Northern Chosen to 3,312 m.m. in Hachijo Island off Izu Peninsula. In Southern and Northern Taiwan, Okinawa Islands, and on the southeastern and Japan Sea coasts of Japan proper, it is generally above 2,000 m.m. In the middle part of the Inland Sea district, the inland basins of Nagano and other prefectures, the gauge registers below 1,200 m.m. The Pacific coast of Japan proper has generally little rain. The following tables show the records of average humidity and average precipitation taken at principal observatories:

Average Humidity (Per Cent)

(Taking saturation as 100)

Observatory	Jan.	Apr.	Jul.	Oct.	Year	Min.	Observatory	Jan.	Apr.	Jul.	Oct.	Year	Min.
Taihoku	83	83	78	81	82	29	Tokyo	64	73	83	80	74	8
Kumamoto	78	77	82	79	79	18	Matsumoto	79	70	80	83	77	17
Fukushima	74	67	80	82	76	12	Niigata	3	76	83	79	80	20
Kanazawa	80	74	82	79	78	19	Hakodate	77	72	86	74	77	19
Kure	71	72	79	74	74	22	Sapporo	80	72	84	79	79	8
Osaka	72	72	77	76	74	16	Fusan	50	66	82	64	65	5
Nagoya	75	72	78	78	75	21	Keijo (Seoul)	68	67	80	73	71	17



HUMIDITY (FOR ONE YEAR)

Average Precipitation (m.m.)

Observatory	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Yearly total	Max. per day
Taihoku	88	135	228	133	2,072	287
Kumamoto	65	163	273	113	1,789	187
Kure	59	150	199	111	1,457	163
Osaka	49	142	146	132	1,370	175
Nagoya	58	167	190	154	1,721	240
Tokyo	56	131	140	191	1,561	194
Matsumoto	46	89	132	124	1,162	156
Fukushima	52	85	150	166	2,028*	165
Kanazawa	277	166	205	201	2,548	156
Hakodate	63	69	131	121	1,157	147
Niigata	192	107	160	155	1,811	133
Sapporo	82	55	88	106	1,012	124
Fusan	53	162	275	72	1,419	251
Keijo (Seoul)	34	85	326	39	1,263	355

Because of the frequency of the heavy precipitation of rain or snow the number of sunny days is comparatively small. Rain or snow claims 150 days, on an average, against 215 fair days. Thus Japan has in a year 4 sunny days for every 3 wet days. The Pescadores (Taiwan) and Kamo are the two extremes, with 94.5 and 245.3 days respectively. In Chosen and Western Taiwan wet days do not exceed 120 while in Japan proper the number seldom falls below that figure. The Japan Sea board of Honshu and Okinawa, Bonin and Kurile Islands have more than 200 wet days. On the Japan Sea coast gloomy weather prevails in winter months (Nov. to Feb.),

over 23 days of a month being rainy or snowy.

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

Average No. of Wet Days

Observatory	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Yearly total
Taihoku	16.5	15.5	13.6	14.9	186.6
Kumamoto	12.4	13.8	15.8	10.4	155.3
Kure	8.5	12.3	11.6	9.0	125.4
Osaka	8.7	13.0	12.3	10.5	137.3
Nagoya	9.5	12.4	14.5	11.8	148.9
Tokyo	7.1	14.0	14.3	14.3	146.2
Matsumoto	11.6	12.1	15.6	12.5	148.1
Fukushima	14.3	11.8	16.8	13.3	167.6
Kanazawa	26.8	15.5	15.3	17.6	224.1
Niigata	27.7	15.3	14.2	19.1	226.9
Hakodate	20.7	11.9	13.5	15.1	192.1
Sapporo	20.5	12.5	13.0	17.0	194.7
Fusan	6.3	10.0	13.9	7.5	106.7
Keijo (Seoul)	7.8	8.4	16.3	6.9	112.8

THE AEROLOGICAL OBSERVATORY AT TATENO

The aerological observatory established at Tateno in Miyazaki prefec-

ture (Kyushu) was completed and open early in 1929, the cost of construction and fittings approximating ¥25,000. The observatory, which is the only one of the kind in this country, is exchange-

ing communications as to daily meteorological phenomenon with the Tokyo Meteorological Observatory and the meteorological stations in Komagal,

Nagano, Osaka, Kobe, Hiroshima, Fukuoka, Jinsen (Chemulpo), Heijo (Phyongyang), Nawa (Ryukyu), Salpan and a few other places.

FAUNA AND FLORA

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

Fauna

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

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

Land Fauna

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

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

The Kurile Group.—Of about 22 species of animals known in this group, two appear to be endemic and are spread over the two northern sub-groups, namely, the Kurile field vole (*Microtus uchidae*) and the Kurile mouse (*Mus kurilensis*). The birds

observed in the islands are much less in number than those of Hokkaido and apparently less peculiar. This is also true of reptiles and amphibians. There is a radical difference between the sub-region of islands not very far removed each other. Beyond doubt, the northern sub-group zoo-geographically belongs to Kamchatka, and the southern to Hokkaido. Of land snails, *Zonitoides chishimanus* and *Karatohellix urupensis* are the endemic species, the former being the smallest species of the land snails.

Saghalien.—Of about 30 species of mammals known in the island, 13 are identical with those of Amurland and these remain in the island without making their way to Hokkaido. The long-tailed mouse (*Sicista caudata*) is supposed to be the sole species in existence found nowhere else. Schrenck's fox (*Vulpes anadyrensis schrencki*) furnishes a very valuable quality of fur and this has led to the establishment of breeding farms with imported stock. Some additional light may be thrown upon this subject by the avifauna which is less rich, having about 150 species, a majority of which are almost or quite identical with those of the adjacent land and islands. Reptiles and amphibians are extremely scanty, and only 6 species are known, of which *Bufo saghalienensis* and *Hynobius cristatus* are considered as endemic. Of butterflies about 74 species and sub-species are found in the island, most of them being representative of the forms limited, in distribution, to the north of the Soya strait, such as *Melitoea maturna intermedia*, *Argynnis amathusia miyake*, *Lycaena karafonis*, etc. The land snail, *Karatohellix sachna*, is common.

Hokkaido.—In mammals, the island appears to be less rich, having only about 25 species, of which more than a half are related to those of Saghalien and the continent, either as identical or allied species. Amongst them, the

species common to the districts just mentioned are Pallas' ground squirrel (*Eutamias asiaticus*), Siberian ermine (*Mustella erminea kanei*), sable (*Martes zibellina*) and others, which are not found in Honshu. Turning to birds we find an enormous number of species which are quite identical with, or closely allied to, those found in Saghalien and on the continent. The species considered as peculiar are Yesoptarmigan (*Sittiparus varius*, *Dryobates leucotos subcitrus*, *Lynx torquilla hokkaidi*, etc.). With reptiles the case is different, because the number of the species which may be considered as those with southern affinities appears to exceed that of Eurasian types. Amphibians are represented by *Bufo vulgaris hokkaidensis*, *Rana temporaria* and *Hynobius retardatus*, etc. Passing on to the insect fauna, we find a large number of species which also inhabit Saghalien and Amurland. Of butterflies we have several species of Eurasian character. Frequently to be met with are such land snails as *Acusta galnesi*, *Eulota blakei*, *E. septentrionalis*.

Chosen (Korea).—In the Korean peninsula the fauna belongs decidedly to the Palearctic region but with a small number of Oriental types. Of mammals it possesses more than 50 species, of which about a half are identical with those found in China, Siberia and other adjacent districts. The species and sub-species which are considered as peculiar are numerous, comprising the Korean hare (*Lepus coreanus*), Korean wolf (*Canis lupus coreanus*), Korean red fox (*Vulpes peculiosus*), Korean badger (*Meles melanogenys*), tiger (*Felis tigris coreensis*), etc.

Of birds we are now acquainted with more than 300 species and sub-species, of which the majority are almost or quite identical with those of the continent. Recorded from the peninsula are about 16 species of reptiles, most of which are not found in Japan proper. Coming to amphibians we find many species which are known to occur on the adjacent mainland. Characteristic species are *Cacopoides tornieri*, *Rana temporaria koreana*, *Hynobius leechii*, etc. In the peninsula are found a large number of butterflies, most of which also inhabit the immediately

surrounding countries. Intermingled with them are seen such Oriental types as *Papilio protenor demetrius*, *Hestina assimilis*, etc. Freshwater bivalves are represented by *Cristaria parvula*, *Anodonta woodiana*, etc., and the land snails by *Strobilops hirasei*, *Eulota orientalis* and others.

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

Of mammals there are more than 50 species which are invariably confined to the south of Tsugaru Strait. Recently specified as "protected" is the racoon dog (*Nyctereutes viverrinus*) which, with other species of this genus, is the most typical representative of the animals characteristic of the East Asian sub-region. The birds ascertained to inhabit the islands reach an enormous number, the greater majority of them being represented by forms widely distributed in China and Korea. The number of species and sub-species which appear to be peculiar are 6 in Kyushu and 17 in Honshu. One of the most notable species is the Japanese ptarmigan (*Lagopus mutus japonicus*) with habitat in the Japanese Alps at the snow line. Recently specified as "protected" are some birds, which comprise besides the Japanese ptarmigan, the cranes (*Megalornis monachus*, *Pseudogeranus vipio*, *Sarcogeranus leucogeranus*, *Anthropoides virgo*, etc.), the Japanese stork (*Ciconia ciconia boyciana*), black-tailed gull (*Larus crassirostris*), swans (*Cygnus cygnus*), long-tailed fowl, the Chinese magpie (*Pica pica sesicae*) and the Japanese shearwater (*Puffinus leucomelas*).

Reptiles number about 13 species, most of them being related to those of Korea and chiefly inhabiting the southern region. The endemic species are *Achalinus spinalls*, *Dinodon orientale*, *Amyda japonica*, etc. We are acquainted with about 13 species of frogs and toads which, with the exception of an Oriental type, seem to be of a Palearctic character. The urodeles, the majority of which are considered as peculiar, are represented by *Hynobius nebulosus*, *H. stejnegeri*, *Onychodaetylus japonicus*, etc. Most

noteworthy is the giant salamander (*Megalobatrachus japonicus*) which inhabits the cool mountain streams of provinces in Honshu and Kyushu. Intermingled here are found a large number of insects which are of three different characters, Eurasian, East Asian and Oriental. The so-called alpine species inhabit the high mountain districts of central Honshu, these being represented by *Aporia hippia japonica*, *Erebica Ligea takanonis*, *Oeneis jutta japonica*, etc. The molluscs are very abundant and varied. The freshwater bivalves and land snails of the endemic species very frequently met with are *Hylopsis schlegelii*, *Cristaria spatiosa*, *Margaritifera*, etc., and *Eurota senkenbergiana*, *E. quaesita*, *Megalophaedusa martensii*, etc.

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

Of birds we find more than 330 species and sub-species, of which 33 are common to the island, China and the Philippines, and about 87 belong to peculiar forms. One of the most notable species is the Mikado pheasant (*Neocalophasis mikado*) which lives in the central and eastern mountainous parts, 6,000-9,000 feet above the sea level. More than 65 species of reptiles and amphibians are known to inhabit the island, and very frequently to be met with is *Trimeresurus gramineus*, a poisonous snake, which is of an almost uniform green colour and widely distributed in tropical districts. The insect fauna is exceedingly rich and varied. We are acquainted with about 319 forms of butterflies, most of which are known from the tropical countries. Of freshwater bivalves and land snails we find such species as *Corbicula maxima*, *C. fulmeba* and *Dollicheulota formosensis*, *Formosana taiwanica*, *Tortaxis matsudai*, etc.

The Ryukyu Group.—The animal forms of this group are of two different characters, Oriental and Palearctic, the former types considerably exceeding the latter in number. About 36 species of mammals have been recorded, the most notable being Ishigaki great leaf-nosed bat (*Hipposideros turpis*) in the Ishigakishima sub-group and Amami hare (*Pentalagus furnessi*) in the Amami-Oshima.

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

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

Marine Fauna

Japanese waters command a very rich and varied marine fauna, there being found two types of animal life,

the Indo-Pacific region and northern region.

1. Northern Zone.—It extends from the shore of the Kurile group to the north of Kinkwasan. Amongst the carnivorous mammals the sea-otter (*Enhydra lutris*) is confined to the north of Hokkaido, while Stellar's sea-lion (*Eumetopias jubata*) and several seals (*Phoca vitulina*, etc.) frequent the more southern waters. The northern fur-seal (*Callorhinus ursinus*) which is of economic importance particularly abounds in Kaihyo-to. We find three whalebone whales, such as the southern right whale (*Balaena glacialis*), Arctic right whale (*Balaena mysticetus*) and Californian gray whale (*Rhachianectus galucus*). Around the Kuriles, Hokkaido and Saghalien are found in immense quantity a great variety of fishes such as cod, salmon and herring which are of the same great economic importance as in Norway, Scotland and other countries. Much less developed here than in the tropics are a number of echinoderms. Amongst sea-cucumbers, *Sticopus japonicus* and *Cucumaria japonica* are of great economic value in this country. In the sea ranging from the Behring Sea to the Japan Sea occurs *Parallithodes camtschatica* which attains very large size and is of great economic importance. A large number of molluscs are also known from this district, the most valuable species being *Ostrea gigas*, *Maetra sachalinensis*, *Pecten yessoensis*, *Ommastrephes sloani pacificus*, etc.

2. Middle Zone.—Most of the types characteristically Japanese belong to this zone. Some whalebone whales may be recorded which are of great economic importance. As principal species of fishes, the abundance of which distinguishes this zone from the others, may be counted *Cynlas manazo*, *Hyporhamphus sajori*, *Apogon semilineatus*, etc. Echinoderms are plentiful, comprising a number of interesting species. Amongst crustaceans, the most notable is the giant crab *Macrocheira kaempferi*, which attains more than 3 meters in extent of legs. Besides we find *Tachypleus tridentatus* in the inland sea of Seto and Ariake Sea. In the depth of Tosa, the Kii and the Sagami Seas occur three

species of *Pleurotomaria* which are of great interest on account of their representing a relic of the geological period. One of the notable cephalopods is an oegopsid, *Watasenia scintillans*, which emits luminosity. It appears abundantly in Toyama bay, about May every year. Also in the deeper parts of the Pacific side, there are found *Hyalonema*, *Euplectella*, *Rhabdocalyp-tus* and other silicious sponges.

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

Noted Specialists.—C. Ishikawa, D. Sci., A. Oka, D. Sci. (for Hirudinae), N. Yatsu, D. Sci., S. Hatai, D. Sci., C. Sasaki (Entomologist), M. Matsumura, D. Sci. (Entomologist), T. Komai, T. Kawamura, D. Sci., H. Oshima, D. Sci. (for Echinoderms), S. Uchida (Ornithologist), H. Kishida (for mammals).
Principal Societies & Publishing Organs.—Zoological Magazine (in Japanese); Annotations Zoologicae Japonensis (in foreign language) issued by Zoological Society of Japan (Tokyo); Insecta Matsumurana (Sapporo); The Magazine of Applied Zoology (in Japanese) (Tokyo); Annotations Ornithologicae Orientalis (Tokyo); Bulletin of the Bio-geographical Society of Japan issued by Bio-geographical Society of Japan (Tokyo); Japanese Journal of Zoology (Tokyo); Tori or "Birds" (in Japanese) (Tokyo); The Venus (in Japanese) by Malucological Society of Japan (Kyoto); Folia Anatomica Japonica (Tokyo); Zephyrus (in Japanese) issued by Cho-ruï Dokokwai (Fukuoka); Konchu or "Insects" (in Japanese) issued by Tokyo Entomological Society (Tokyo).

Flora

Owing to the peculiar topographical condition the flora of the Japanese Empire consists of several distinct groups, and at present nearly 10,000

flowering plants and ferns are known, with the possibility of new additions through further study. In point of fact no small number of new genera have already been established by Japanese botanists, and of these may be mentioned *Taiwania*, Hayata (Conifer), *Chosenia*, Nakai (Salicaceae), *Hanabusaya*, Nakai (Campanulaceae), *Mitrostemon*, Makino (Rafflesiaceae), *Hakonechloa*, Makino (Gramineae), *Matsumurella*, Makino (Labiatae), etc., etc. The names of Dr. T. Makino and Dr. T. Nakai stand out prominent as discoverers, the latter as specialist in Korean flora having enriched it with 190 genera and some 440 species and varieties, while the former, who chiefly devotes himself to the main island, is responsible for some new genera and several hundreds of new species.

In 1929 a remarkable genera *Japanolilion* was established by Dr. Nakai, represented only by *J. Osense* found at Ose in Nikko. It is a small prenal weed. Another striking discovery is that of 2 new species belonging to family *Podostemonaceae* in Kyushu by S. Imamura. None of this family had been found in Japan up to this discovery in 1927. Many new lichens both new to Japan and to science are enriching the lichen flora through Dr. Asahina's discoveries. Japan is rich in bamboos with over 60 species and a number of new species still coming to the light, most of them belonging to new genera which are indigenous to Japan. Merit in this direction is due to Dr. Makino.

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

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

Speaking of some common familiar plants there grow in Japan some 130 species and varieties of violets, according to Dr. T. Nakai. About 30 species of primroses are known to grow in the alpine districts. *Primula Sieboldii*

is growing wild even near Tokyo and is "protected." *P. japonica* was introduced into England as early as 1863 and called "Queen of Primroses" by Robert Fortune.

Trees and shrubs number over 600 species. To mention those that are noted for ornament, or use, or both, there are Japanese mountain cherries growing wild everywhere, of which *Prunus serrata* var *spontanea* is most common. At high altitudes are found *P. nipponica*, *P. Maximoviczii*, *P. incisa*, etc., the last growing abundantly at the foot of Mt. Fuji and flowering in May. Of conifers we have *Cryptomeria japonica* and *Chamaecyparis obtusa*, two of the most important timber and ornamental trees; then among the *Pinus* may be mentioned *P. Thunbergii* and *P. densiflora*. The *Quercus* family is represented by nine important species, while of *Rhododendron* (*Azalea*) Japan boasts about 50 species with garden varieties numbering several hundreds. *R. Komiyamae* is a new addition recently found near Mt. Fuji. An interesting species belonging to this family is *Teusiophyllum Tanakae*, Maximovicz that grows on mountain rocks in some limited localities in Middle Japan; it is a dwarfish tree with scaly green leaves and white tube-shaped flowers. As regards Willows our sallowologists say that the final enumeration as to number of existing species should be reserved for the future, but so far some sixty species have been identified. Bamboos count over 50 species in Japan proper, exclusive of numerous garden varieties.

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

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

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

Noted Specialists.—In Systematic botany there is a long list of distin-

guished men, as Dr. J. Matsumura (d. 1928), Dr. T. Makino, Dr. Yabe (noted for his South Manchuria and North China flora), Dr. B. Hayata (for Taiwan flora), Dr. T. Nakai (for Korean and Japanese flora), Dr. Y. Kudo (for Hokkaido flora), Dr. M. Honda (grasses), Dr. K. Miyabe (for Hokkaido and South Saghalien flora), Dr. K. Okamura (specializing in marine algae), Dr. S. Okamura, Y. Hori-kawa (in mosses and liverwort), Dr. S. Kawamura (fungi), Drs. R. Nakazawa and K. Saito (yeasts), Mr. K. Minakata (slime molds), Dr. Y.

Asahina (lichens).

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

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

CHAPTER II

GEOLOGY, VOLCANOES AND MINERAL SPRINGS

A. Geology of Japan

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

Another interesting geological fea-

ture of Japan is that the Main Island or Honshu is divided into "North Japan" and "South Japan" by the so-called Fuji volcanic zone that runs across its middle from the Japan Sea to the Pacific Ocean, the zone containing the great cone of Fuji and other volcanoes.

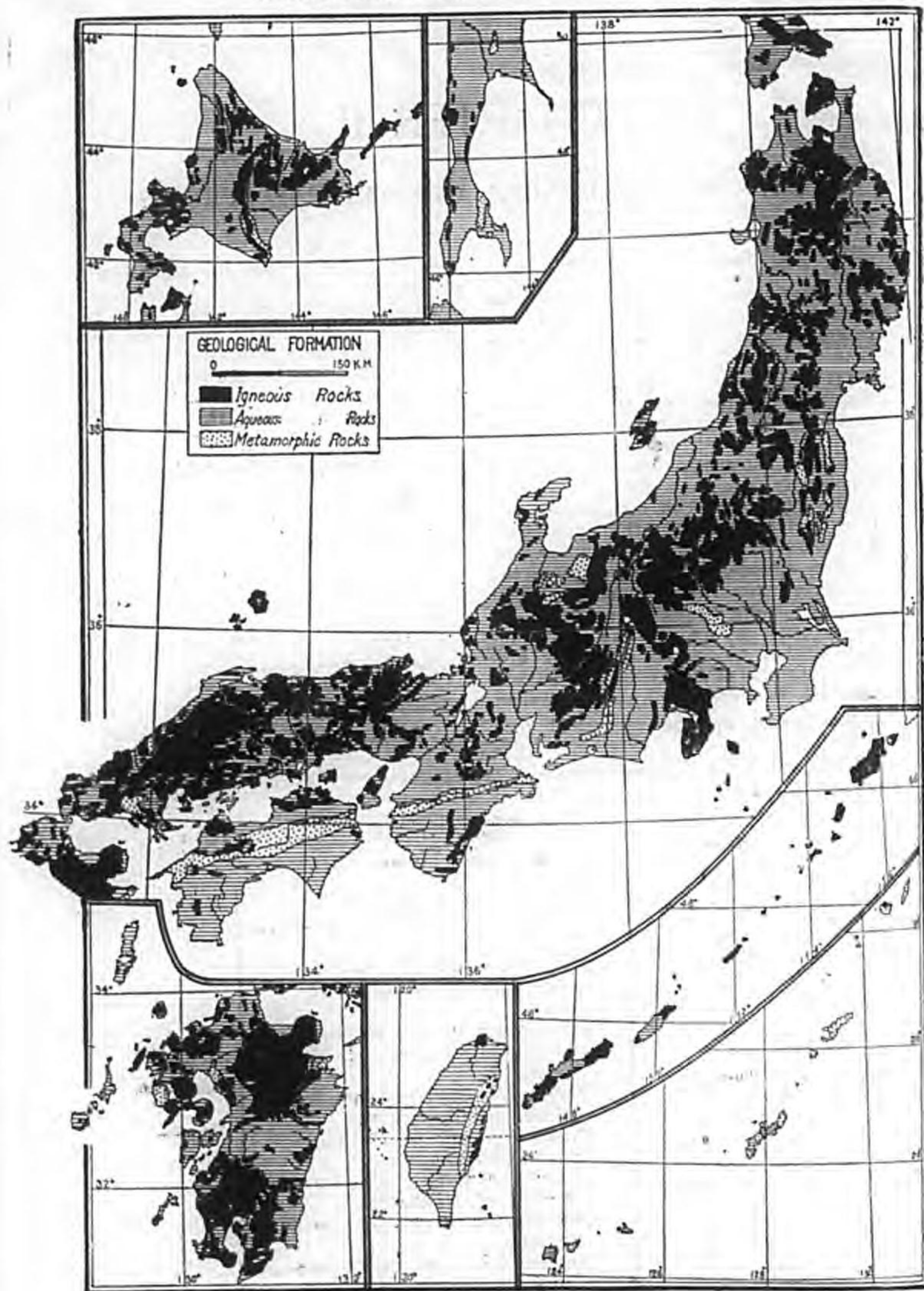
Geological Composition

Geological composition of Japan as investigated by the Government Geological Survey.

	Area (km.)	%
Paleozoic	75,426	16.39
Mesozoic	46,498	10.11
Tertiary	93,276	20.27
Quaternary	90,101	19.50
Igneous (older) ...	73,673	16.02
Igneous (younger)	81,048	17.62
	460,022	100.00

The sedimentary formations and contemporaneous igneous rocks of Japan are tabulated below.

	Sedimentary Formations Recent Pleistocene Loam Terrace Deposits	Igneous Rocks Liparite, Andesite, Basalt,
Quaternary		
Cainozoic { Tertiary	Pliocene; Musashino Formation, Tertiary of Tanabe, Kakegawa, etc., Plant fossil Bed of Mogi, Upper Tertiary of Hokkaido.	
	Miocene; Plant fossil Bed of Itsukaichi, Orbitoides-Limestone of Nakao- zaka, Shiramizu (Coal-bearing Series) of the Joban District, Middle Tertiary of Hokkaido.	Liparite, Andesite, Basalt.
	Oligocene and Eocene; Lower Tertiary (Coal-bearing Series) of Hokkaido, Coal-bearing Series of Northern Kyushu, Nummulites Beds of Bonin & Luchu.	



Mesozoic	Cretaceous	Senonian-Gault; Futaba Series, Izumi-Sandstone, Trigona-Sandstone and Ammonites Beds of Hokkaido.	Granite, Porphyrite, Gabbro, Serpentine, etc.	
		Neocomian; Lower Bed of Miyako Series, Ryoseki Series and Torinosu Limestone.		
	Jurassic	Malm; Upper Shizukawa Series, Tetori Series. Dogger; Middle Shizukawa Series. Liasic; Lower Shizukawa Series.	Porphyrite.	
Palaeozoic	Triassic	Rhaetic; Plant Bed of Yamanoi. Noric; Pseudomonotis Beds. Ladinic; Daonella Beds of Rikuzen and Tosa. Anisic-Skytic; Geratites Beds.	Porphyrite.	
		Permian and Carboniferous	Middle and Upper divisions of the Chichibu system. Mikabu Series (Lower division of	Granite, Diorite, Gabbro, Diabase, etc.
		Pre-Carboniferous	the Chichibu System), Sambagawa Series.	Granite, Amphibolite, Serpentine.

The Chichibu System

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

Economic Geology of Japan

Carboniferous and similar Paleozoic strata formed in Japan are, unlike those in the West, not generally coal-bearing as they originated under the sea, though with small exceptions. Coal-seams of economic importance exist in Japan in Tertiary formations, that is in Kyushu, Hokkaido and the Joban districts. Oil-fields chiefly occur in the

younger Tertiary of the Inner zone, mostly in Echigo, Akita and Hokkaido. Mr. Kanehara writes that the coal-bearing series of northern Kyushu is an important representative of the Japanese Palaeogene, the fossils found being mainly of Eocene forms. Thus the Takashima coal field has yielded *Sabal nipponica*, *Kryst*, also *Osmunda*, *Lastrea*, *Salvinia*, etc., the Miike coal-measure *Aturia*, *Pholadomya*, *Crasatella*, *Cardit*, etc. One noteworthy thing is that in the coal-fields of Sasebo and Imari, economically less important than the two others given, an *Anthracoherid* tooth and *Brachyodus* were discovered, these judged to be of Lower Oligocene origin. The plant and shell fossils as found in the coal-measures of Hokkaido and Karafuto are nearly identical with those of northern Kyushu. The Neogene in the Joban district consists of the Shiramizu (Miocene), the Yunagaya (Miocene) and the Shirado

(Pliocene) series, the lowest part of Shiramizu being now extensively worked for its bitumen. In the meridional and western parts of Northern Honshu, the Neogene extends from Shinano and Echigo on the southwest to the northern end of Aomori, through Akita. The older Neogene of this region often contains coal-seams in the lower part while the younger is often petroliferous, constituting the oil-fields of Echigo, Akita and Aomori. Then the lower Neogene found in Shizuoka Prefecture is Miocene and petroliferous. In Taiwan there exists the coal-bearing Neogene

in the north, while in the south it is petroliferous. In Hokkaido the Tertiary consists of the Lower, the Middle, the Upper and the Uppermost. The Lower is the coal-bearing Palaeogene and the other three range between Miocene and Pliocene or Pleistocene. The Middle Tertiary has Poronai series in its lower part and the Kawabata series in the Upper, the Momiji-yama series lying between being of a transitional formation. The Upper Tertiary is often oil-bearing, its rocks resembling those of similar formation in northern Honshu.



MOUNTAIN RANGES AND VOLCANIC CHAINS.

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

Mineral Deposits:—are chiefly found in the Tertiary terrain. Gold-quartz and cupriferous pyrite-quartz veins are common in the Tertiary liparite or andesite and their tuffs. Cupriferous pyrite deposits imbedded in the Palaeozoic schists and clayslates are of a great economic importance. Magnetite masses and hematite veins in granite, and galenablende masses or veins are found respectively in the Palaeozoic limestone, and Tertiary tuffs. The coal-seams and oil-fields are as mentioned before.

B. Volcanoes

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

Fuji zone that cuts across the middle of Honshu from the Japan Sea to the Pacific Ocean and continuing to the Seven Islands of Izu, Bonin Islands, Sulphur Islands and to the Mariana and Caroline Group. The zone contains Myoko-zan, Togakushiyama, Tateshina-yama, Yatsuga-take,

Fuji-san, Hakone, Amagi, etc.

Nasu chain which forms the backbone of North Japan and extends further north to Hokkaido, the chain comprising Osore-zan, Ganshu-zan, Nasu-san, Nantai-san (Nikko), Akagi, Haruna, Asama, etc. The other chains are Chokai that runs parallel to the Nasu chain, the Chishima chain that extends from Hokkaido to Chishima and further to Kamchatka, the Haku-san chain that contains Haku-san, Daisen, Samba-yama, etc., and the Kirishima chain which traverses the western margin of the island of Kyushu. With Kirishima as center it extends to Unzen on the north and to the volcanic islands in the Ryukyu arc. For the past half a century Japanese volcanoes have invariably been of the Strombolian type as exemplified in the eruption of Bandai-san (1888), Azuma-san (1893), Adataro-yama (1900), and Torishima (1902), Asama, Yarigata-take and Kirishima are known for their paroxymal, though not destructive explosions. Aso in the Kirishima chain is a complex volcano with its highest cone towering 1,592 m., and is perhaps the largest volcano in the world, its crater extending about 15 miles north and south and 10 miles the other way.

C. Hot Springs

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

List of Popular Hot Spring Resorts

Name	Nearest Rly station	Character	Above sea level. ft.	Ave. Temperature	
				C.	F.
Arima	Arima	{ Simple carbon-dioxated	1,287	57.8°	136.0°
Asamushi	Asamushi				
Atami	Atami	{ Concentrated common salt (Seaside)	74	79.0°	174.2°
Beppu	Beppu				
Dogo	Dogo	{ Sulphated bitter	50	53.0°	127.4°
Hakone	Odawara				
Miyanoshta		{ " "	35	44.5°	112.1°
		{ Alkaline common salt	1,377	—	127.2°

Ashino-yu		Sulphur	2,760	—	137.0°
Higashiyama	{ Aizu Wakamatsu	Saline bitter	850(about)	47.5°	117.5°
Ikao	Shibukawa	Sulphated bitter	..2,800	46.0°	114.8°
Ito	Atami	{ Simple thermals (Seaside)..	46.9°	116.4°	
Kinosaki	Kinosaki	{ Earth-muriated common salt....	—	—	126.1°
Kusatsu	Kusatsu	Acid vitriol	4,500	62.0°	143.6°
Misasa	Kurayoshi	Simple thermals ..	50	71.0°	159.8°
Nagaoka	Nagaoka	" "	100(about)	48.5°	119.3°
Nasu	Kuroiso	Hydrogen sulphide	4,500	—	82.4°
Nikko Yumoto	Nikko	{ " " 4,590(about)	—	—	113.9°
Noboribetsu	Noboribetsu	Vitriol	660	97.0°	206.6°
Shibu	Toyono	{ Sulphated common salt ...	6,950	76.0°	168.8°
Shima	Shibukawa	{ Earth-muriated common salt ...	2,500	93.0°	199.4°
Shiobara	Nishinasuno	Alkaline	1,150	—	132.4°
Shuzenji	Shuzenji	{ Saline common salt	330	77.0°	170.6°
Unzen	Isahaya	{ Acid hydrogen sulphate	2,400	51.5°	124.7°
Wakura	Nanao	{ Earth-muriated common salt (Seaside)	—	—	179.2°
Yamanaka	Daishoji	Sulphated sulphur	—	—	120.2°
Yamashiro	"	Saline sulphur ...	—	—	149.5°
Yugawara	Yugawara	Common salt	351	88.5°	191.3°

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

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

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

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

Radio-activity of Japanese Mineral Springs

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

A List of the Radio-Active Springs (Emanation per liter of water in Mache's unit)

Hot Springs

Name	Prefecture	Mache's units	Character	Temperature	
				C.	F.
Misasa	Tottori	142.14	Simple	71.0°	159.0°
Sekigane	"	33.47	Sulphur	42.0°	107.6°
Tochiomata	Niigata	25.86	Simple	39.0°	102.2°
Tokatta	Miyagi	14.58	Carbonated	56.0°	132.8°

Cold Springs

Name	Prefecture	Mache's units	Character	Temperature	
				C.	F.
Masutomi	Yamanashi	1,425	Earthy common salt...	23.0°	73.4°
Takayama	Gifu	281	Simple	10.0°	50.0°
Ikeda	Shimane	187	Carbonated (?)	17.0°	62.6°
Arima	Hyogo	87	—	24.0°	75.2°
Hirukawa	Gifu	60	Simple	12.0°	53.6°

CHAPTER III

EARTHQUAKES IN JAPAN

Seismic Record for the Past 50 Years

The record for Japan and Italy, most noted for seismic activity in the world, is as follows for the last half-century:—

The principal earthquakes occurring since the advent of the Tokugawa Regency are:—

Regency are:—

		Houses destroyed	No. of deaths
1605, Jan. 31	Tokaido & Shikoku (Pacific coast) (with tidal waves).....	—	5000
1611, Sept. 27	Aizu in Iwashiro.....	—	3700
1611, Dec. 2	Hokkaido & Sanriku dist. (Pacific coast) (with tidal waves).....	—	5000
1633, Mar. 1	Odawara	—	150
1649, July 29	Yedo	—	several hundreds
1662, Jun. 16	Places about Kyoto.....	5500	500
1666, Feb. 2	Takata in Echigo.....	—	1500
1694, Jun. 19	Noshiro in Ugo.....	2760	390
1703, Dec. 31	Places about Yedo (Tokyo).....	20162	5233
1707, Oct. 28	Pacific coast of Tokaido, Kyushu & Shikoku (with tidal waves).....	29000	4900
1751, May 20	Takata in Echigo.....	6088	2000
1711, Jun. 24	Ishigaki-jima (with tidal waves)....	—	9400
1766, Mar. 8	Hirosaki	7192	1335
1792, May 21	Hiizen, Higo and vicinity (with tidal waves)	12000	15200
1804, July 10	Kisakata	5500	333
1828, Dec. 18	Sanjo in Echigo.....	9808	1443
1830, Aug. 19	Kyoto	—	151
1847, May 8	Shinano & Echigo.....	34000	12000
1854, July 9	Yamato, Iga, and Ise.....	5000	1352
1854, Dec. 23	Tokaido & Shikoku (with tidal waves)	60000	1000
1855, Nov. 11	Tokyo	50000	6757
1858, Apr. 9	Northern Hida	709	203
1862, Jun. 6	Tainan, Kagi (Taiwan).....	—	about 1000
1872, Mar. 14	Hamada, Iwami	5000	600
1891, Oct. 28	Mino & Owari.....	142177	7273
1894, Oct. 22	Shonai	6006	726
1896, Jun. 15	Sanriku dist. (tidal waves).....	106170	27122
1896, Aug. 31	Semboku, Ugo	5911	206
1904, Nov. 6	Toroku, Kagi (Taiwan).....	400	148
1906, Mar. 17	Kagi, Taiwan	6769	1251
1909, Aug. 14	Omi	976	41
1914, Mar. 15	Akita	640	90
1923, Sept. 1	Sagami Bay	576262	99331
1925, May 23	Northern part of Tajima.....	3300	395
1927, Mar. 7	N.-W. part of Tango.....	15413	3017

Seismic Zones

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

Lesson from the Kwanto Earthquake of 1923

The exhaustive researches of our seismologists coupled by the extensive surveying carried out by the Military and Naval surveying departments have done much towards throwing light upon the mysterious subterranean working of the earth's crust incidental to seismic activity and towards placing this infant science on definite system. The researches and surveying combined have made it clear that at the seat of the epicentre of the 1923 quake, i.e. the bottom of the Bay of Sagami, a tremendous fault occurred, resulting in an enormous depression on one part and an equally extensive upheaval on the other, and that similar extraordinary topographical changes were witnessed in the Kwanto block itself. It has also been ascertained that for two years previous to 1923 the land adjoining the seat of the disturbance was undergoing secular subsidence and slight elevation, all these indicating the accumulation of a gigantic subterranean stress for many years in this particular region. Dr. Imamura's careful researches on the connection between seismic activity and secular changes of land are highly valuable as they throw important light on the obscure subject of prediction. The researches have enabled him to trace the relation between the destructive earthquake that visited Kwanto in 1793, and which was seismologically of similar character to that of 1923, and the topographical feature of the region. With the exception of after-shocks that disturbed it for two or three years after, but none severe, seismic quiescence with practical absence of change in land-level prevailed in

Kwanto for 150 years. The next 70 years was a period of local shocks, the activity culminating in the memorable occurrence of 1923 with a number of years of settling movements to follow.

Seismic Dormancy in the Region around Tokyo

The learned Doctor's interesting investigation for the district is carried much longer, in fact over the past 2000 years, by aid of authentic chronicles and traditions and especially by observing the holes of the boring bivalve called *Lithophaga nasuta* left on the elevated cliffs on the Pacific beach of the Boso Peninsula. It can only be stated here that as a result of his study he ventures an explanation that in that long period the Kwanto district must have had four cycles of destructive earthquakes with accompanying crustal movements, and that the district will probably be free for a century or more hereafter from severe seismic dislocations. He writes that the shocks felt at Tokyo during the four months following the great earthquake were 1044 while the record for the four years 1924-27 was respectively 154, 68, and 65 as against the yearly mean frequency of 115 during the period from 1888 to 1921, this suggesting that the Kwanto region is now approaching the dormant state of seismic activity. It should be remembered that in 1905 the Doctor boldly announced that his historical and statistical study of destructive earthquakes in Tokyo in particular and Japan in general had suggested to him a possibility of Tokyo being visited by a destructive quake in a near future and that unless the fire-prevention system was properly improved Tokyo might be overtaken by a terrible disaster with a general conflagration killing 100,000 or more lives. This bold hypothesis caused something like a sensation not only among laymen but even among specialists all of whom joined in severely denouncing him as a mischievous monomaniac given to indulging in absurd and even dangerous fancy. Dr. Imamura will long be remembered as a scientific martyr in association with the Kwanto earthquake of 1923. It is of special signi-

ficance that on the occasion of the catastrophe Dr. Omori, his senior, who had discredited his warning, was attending a scientific congress in Australia, and that he died soon after reaching home from the illness he had been suffering.

Seismic Prediction and Seismic Activity in the Kyoto-Osaka Region

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

An extensive area including the southern part of Shikoku and the peninsula of Kii has been selected by Dr. Imamura as a region demanding his vigilant watch, for it was fairly well ascertained that this area had recurring seismic activity during the last 500 years with a period of 100-150 years, the last culmination occurring in 1854. The fact that the submarine basin lying between Wakayama, Kii, and Awaji Island has shown seismic activity in recent years and that the region is undergoing tilting motion similar to that which overtook the Kwanto block previous to the catastrophe of 1923 must at least be interpreted as an ominous phenomenon portending a possible calamitous visitation as that in 1923. The researches for the area, heretofore undertaken almost single-handed by Dr. Imamura

and therefore necessarily imperfect, will be conducted systematically and with greater accuracy when all the observation stations mentioned elsewhere begin to function.

The Earthquake Research Machinery

The Imperial Earthquake Investigation Commission ceased to exist in 1925 after 30 years' untiring labors to investigate this least-understood though the most dreadful malady inherent to Mother Earth. The Commission has indeed bequeathed most important seismic literature ever known, it consisting of 100 proceedings in Japanese, 25 in European languages and 11 memoirs also in European, and these will stand as a lasting monument to perpetuate the memory of the Commission. To keep up the task undertaken by the Commission the Earthquake Research Institute was created the same year as affiliated to the Tokyo Imp. Univ., though on a smaller scale than the one abolished. The Institute will specially cover both sides of the Kii channel as its field of work, and its stations will be equipped with the Ishimoto clinograph and the Imamura tronometer. Though a simple instrument costing only ¥600 the clinograph is said to be highly useful, for it can be easily operated even by an amateur and yet gives a very accurate register of minute land vibrations. The research work of the Central Meteorological Observatory has also been very much enlarged, chiefly with the object of establishing a network of observation stations throughout the country. Lastly there is Dr. Imamura's private effort in similar direction with the support of some public-spirited capitalists, three stations to be established by him in the Kwanto district.

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

Loss of Life and Property

Dr. Imamura's data on seismic

casualties in Japan are,—loss of one life per eleven houses collapsed when an earthquake is free from a consequential fire, this ratio to increase three or four times when a disastrous fire follows, as in the case of the Kwanto catastrophe of Sept. 1, 1923. The houses collapsed in Tokyo on that occasion probably amounted to 10,000, so that according to the formula the loss of life may not have exceeded 1,000 but the actual number returned was about 100,000. For this excessive fatality the horrible fire caused by a dreadful tornado was chiefly responsible. The Doctor ventures to say that the September disaster of 1923 should more properly be considered as conflagrational rather than seismic. In the great earthquake of San Francisco in 1906 the damage and casualties caused were also largely due to the fire following the quake.

Earthquake-proof Construction

The problem of earthquake-proof buildings is believed to have been practically solved in Japan as a result of prolonged researches of the Imperial Committee and similar bodies and especially in consequence of the terrible test to which a million or so of the buildings in the Kwanto district were subjected in the September (1923) cataclysm when, as described in subsequent paragraphs, several buildings designed by foreign experts were badly damaged in contrast to those by Japanese architects with greater knowledge and experiences on quake-

proof construction. The lesson of the 1923 disaster was fully taken into account by the Home Office in revising the Building Regulation now in force. The height of a high-class building, for instance, is generally limited to one hundred feet. Prof. T. Naito, Waseda University, of international fame for his anti-seismic designs, states that whatever be the nature of the skeleton structure, whether wood, steel or reinforced concrete, rigid walls and rigid bents are absolutely necessary for minimizing the deformation due to lateral load. The several elements that constitute a building, i.e., flexible and rigid bents, partitions, bracing, and external walls, etc., should be tied together horizontally with monolithic floors at each story, and that a building should be as rigid as possible so that it may satisfactorily resist the effect of the external lateral force upon it and minimize the danger of deflection. In the Regulation the seismic coefficient of 1/10 has been adopted. But it is as regards wooden-frame structures, or practically the entire residential houses in Japan, that a simple precaution enforced in the Regulation has proved highly effective. In the destructive earthquake of March 1927 when most of the pre-Regulation unseismic-proof houses in the town of Minciyama collapsed, the simple station buildings with only diagonal bracings and with bolts at the joints, as specified in the Regulation, were left practically unhurt. To ensure perfect safety earthquake-proof buildings must of course be fire-proof.

TECHNICAL ASPECTS OF THE EARTHQUAKE DAMAGE TO PUBLIC WORKS

As described at some length in the Earthquake Appendix of the 1924-25 edition (J.Y.B.) the damage caused by the 1923 earthquake to public works in the afflicted area was estimated at a little over 100 million yen. Below is quoted from the Appendix some paragraphs demonstrating the technical aspects of the earthquake damage.

Slopes of Cuttings and Bankings

Slopes are so designed as to keep the angle of repose. But at the time

of earthquake intense acceleration both horizontal and vertical acts on the soil grain to diminish the angle of repose and finally to cause the collapse of the slope. It is customary to give an inclination of about 1 in vertical; 0.8 in horizontal to the slopes of hard clay and weathered volcanic rocks. Still at the time of severe shocks the angle of repose for these formations diminishes to 45° or 1 in vertical; 1 in horizontal. For the banking of ordinary soil a slope of 1 in vertical; 1.5 in horizontal is gen-

erally admitted as proper. In a great shock the angle of repose is reduced to about 25° or 1 in vertical: 2 in horizontal, and followed by collapse.

Retaining Walls and Earth Pressure

The earth pressure shows a remarkable increase for the same reason that the angle of repose shows a decrease. For instance, the pressure of the ordinarily banked soil in severe earth tremor grows by from 1.5 to 2 times that of normal conditions, and the walls retaining it give way at once, their factor of safety being far smaller than in other structures. The retaining walls much adopted in this country may be classified into dry rubble, concrete and re-inforced concrete walls. The first have been widely adopted in Japan from olden times for protecting roads and river-sides. They are constructed by laying one upon another large pyramid-shaped stones, with their bases turned outside, and filling in the gaps in the back with small rubbles. The banks of the moats surrounding the Imperial Palace in Tokyo afford an example of this construction. This kind of wall is the weakest against earthquake, but it seldom overturns or slips out en masse, the damage being generally limited to the upper part. In massive concrete walls the damage consists mostly of tilting or slipping out, and less often of horizontal cracks of execution joints. Tilting and cracks seldom occur in re-inforced concrete walls; only a weak formation causes more or less slipping out. The quay walls of Yokohama port, 30'-40' in height and consisting of large concrete blocks piled up one upon another, suffered severely from the quake, some portions overturning or tilting badly, and others sliding out several feet. Such construction having thus proved incapable of resisting severe shocks, the authorities contemplate rebuilding these quay walls with large caissons of re-inforced concrete.

Banking

Almost all the roads and embankments built by banking up earth on soft ground suffered from the earth-

quake, sinking as a result of the diminished bearing power of the formation soil. At the time of great shocks the bearing power is reduced to one half in the soil whose angle of repose is less than 20° . In saturated silt the power almost disappears. In bankings upon silt longitudinal cracks are developed by the remarkable slipping which horizontal shocks bring about on the contact face of silt and banked earth.

Abutments and Piers of Bridges

The abutments and piers supporting permanent superstructures are mostly masonry work of bricks, concrete or stone, which can bear heavy vertical load but are very weak against bending from horizontal force, hence their cracking and splitting at the time of seismic disturbance. Investigation into the damaged bridges shows that the tensile strength of masonry work at execution joints is only 16-30 lb. per sq. in. In order to increase seismic stability it is necessary to adopt such construction as will resist bending, i.e. re-inforced concrete. Taught by the severe lesson of the 1923 catastrophe the Government has made it a principle to so design the substructures as to make them capable of resisting a horizontal force equivalent to 30 per cent of the vertical load and their own weight, acting at the center of their gravities.

Superstructures of Bridges

As permanent superstructures, steel girders, steel trusses, re-inforced concrete beams, steel arches, plain or re-inforced concrete arches have been widely in use. Heavy structures possess weak seismic stability when acted upon by strong horizontal vibration. Almost all bridges built of re-inforced concrete beams upon re-inforced concrete piers fell off into the stream, so that such design should not be used hereafter except in the case of short spans for lighter traffic. Steel girders and trusses are very strong and even when those of railway bridges were thrown off from the piers more than 30 ft. high they were not so badly broken beyond repair but could be put

to use again with more or less of mending or re-inforcing, if there were some water cushion. But those of high-way bridges with heavy solid floors sustained serious injury. Therefore to make it safe against earth tremor a steel bridge must be provided with a substructure and support construction strong enough to resist enormous horizontal force. The support as adopted heretofore leaves much room for improvement, for a slightly severe shock is enough to bend or shear off anchor bolts, and to draw out bed-stones, causing the displacement of superstructure. Arch bridges generally suffered little from the calamity, partly because they are usually built with strong foundation upon firm ground and partly because of the statical property of the arch. On the whole those arch bridges so designed as to be safe against the change of $\pm 15^\circ$ C. in the temperature were not affected at all by the catastrophe. Only radial cracks were seen where for the purpose of saving expense re-inforcement was not used.

Tunnels

The Miura Peninsula and adjoining districts are a hilly region of tertiary formation, and on their highways there are many tunnels, with a lining of brickwork about 3' 6" in thickness. All of these tunnels received more or less damage. In most cases it was due to the collapse of the cuttings at the portals, which blocked the entrances. In the lining longitudinal cracks on the upper part predominated, these being more serious near the entrances. To make the tunnels earthquake-proof, the cuttings at the approaches must be avoided as much as possible while the lining should be of re-inforced concrete or concrete re-inforced with steel frames. But this means great increase of cost of tunnel-driving. The authorities should dispense with tunnels so far as circumstance permits.

ARCHITECTURE AND EARTHQUAKE

General Observations

It may be stated at the outset that in representing the strength of earth-

Waterworks and Sewage

The extensive damage on waterworks in Tokyo and Yokohama is chiefly attributed to the weakness of pipe joints against the shocks and the non-resistance of the whole structure against the horizontal bending force. The pipe joint in this country consists of a socket filled with lead. The lead was thrust out by the motion of the pipes in different directions, leaving gaps for the high-pressure water to easily leak out. The settling basins, filter beds, pure water reservoir, etc. were mostly of brickwork, and they developed cracks both large and small. Especially in Yokohama they became incapable of holding water. In Tokyo three out of six delivery pipes at the pumping station were broken, causing much difficulty for repairs. These pipes had been fixed at one end to the wall of the pump-house and at the other to the concrete mass outside. The result was the difference of motion at both ends caused by the quake and the great bending movement that occurred ultimately resulted in the dislocation of the pipes. The open channel which connects the river with the settling basin was damaged at three places through the collapse of concrete walls, and occasioned for a time the stoppage of water supply for the whole city.

The sewers in Tokyo city have been in recent years reconstructed of re-inforced concrete, and on the fatal occasion the canals and conduits all came out safe. Only some cracks occurred in the settling basin at the purifying plant which was built of plain concrete on a made-up ground, while 20,000 gallon elevated tank of re-inforced concrete fell down because of the weak stand giving way. Being old-styled conduits of brick or concrete, the sewers in Yokohama were mostly crushed under ground, and a great deal of difficulty was experienced in their reconstruction.

quake vibrations engineers generally use the seismic coefficient (K) and determine its relation to seismic force

(F) according to the following formula:

$F = Ma = -WK$, where M stands for "mass," W "weight" and a "maximum acceleration due to earthquake," and g "acceleration due to gravity," i.e. 9,800 mm/sec. $2''$.

Except at places very close to the centre of disturbance, the destructive force of an earthquake as acting upon buildings chiefly comes from horizontal vibration. The force as affecting a building may therefore be considered as lateral and in proportion to its weight. Upon that hypothesis the value of K in Tokyo as regards the September earthquake is represented as follows:

Up-town (alluvial formation), Tokyo	0.1
Down-town (alluvial formation), Tokyo	0.25

The late Dr. Omori, who made an exhaustive study of the natural vibration period of many high and low buildings made of steel or re-inforced concrete, observed that in all cases the period of the vibrations did not exceed one second, in some cases it being between 0.3 and 0.5 seconds, far shorter than 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ seconds as in the late great earthquake. From this fact he came to the conclusion that each building was practically one simple body and is most strongly stressed at the base, this rule applying to almost all kinds of buildings. From the point of view of theory and practical experience so far it may be said that the principle of the earthquake proof system of construction of steel, re-inforced concrete and other buildings is to build them as one mass from the base to the roof with the greatest possible rigidity. Devices should also be employed to magnify to the greatest possible degree the resisting power of the buildings against their being compressed out of form on account of the lateral force exerted by earthquake vibrations. However, this is a matter of great difficulty, because the mode of construction and planning of buildings differ according to the different purposes for which they are intended. For instance, some buildings have to be divided into many small rooms or sec-

tions, others require to be built so as to have spacious halls as in the cases of auditoriums, libraries, theatres and the like, while still others must be built so as to have spacious halls on the ground floor but with storeys above divided into many smaller rooms as in the case of banking houses. Such being the case, it is very difficult strictly to observe the aforementioned principle in the construction of all kinds of buildings. That many Japanese wooden framed buildings built with pillars, beams and girders fell easy victims to the late great earthquake and not a few American style buildings built with a steel skeleton and facing of hollow bricks were subject to severe damage in the same quake was due to their poor power of resisting the lateral force and the consequent increase of the possibility of their being compressed out of form. The only method to erect houses and other buildings as one whole body or mass is as follows:

- (1) To protect the walls against their being compressed out of form, they should be braced or made of re-inforced concrete.
- (2) The floors should be made as rigid as possible for which purpose re-inforced concrete answers very well.

Walls and Floors

By following the above mentioned principles both walls and floors should be secured against the attack of the lateral force. Any massive buildings can be made as rigid as one simple body or mass because the walls thus secured against the lateral force serve as a perpendicular cantilever and the floor as monolithic conveying to the walls the lateral force of the earthquake vibrations which act on the floor. The walls sustain more or less shock of the lateral force thus conveyed by the floor in due proportion to the degree of its rigidity; and this can be ascertained through minute calculations. To illustrate, take an open bottomless box and a closed box of the same make, and place them on the floor or ground with their sides upward and press forcibly upon them. The former will be crushed easily and destroyed, while

the latter will remain tight and unchanged in shape, to stand as one concrete substantial mass however hard you may press upon it. This is because of its superior rigidity on account of the bottom which acts as walls supporting the box and protecting it against the lateral force which most strongly acts at the end or corner of the walls. The explanation holds good in the case of buildings in which the extra force acts on the pillars connected with walls, and hence the pillars and the base supporting them must be made as strong as possible. To prevent the joints connecting the pillars and beams from being compressed out of form by the influence of the lateral force it is necessary to use brackets, knees or diagonal braces in the joints; at the same time the joints of each section of the building should be made as simple and rigid as possible, and above all it is very important to make the fixing perfect and strong. Again, the base of the building must be as strong as possible and utmost care should be exercised to make tight the connection of the pillars, because a partial sinking or displacement of the base very often causes the total collapse and destruction of the whole building. In wooden framed buildings, in particular, the joint connecting the pillars with the beam should be made as strong as possible, and care must be taken to form a triangular frame by using bolts, straps and struts in the

joints and using bracing in the walls, because any object of triangular form becomes strong and firmly fixed in shape if its three sides are settled and secured.

REVISED CONSTRUCTION REGULATIONS

Based on the researches of the seismic disaster of September 1, 1923, the authorities revised the construction regulations as quoted below in part:

All buildings shall be provided with bracing or struts;

In case the walls of the building are made of stone or bricks, either steel beams or re-inforced concrete beams shall be provided at the top of the walls;

In steel buildings, the joints connecting the beams or other cross-pieces with pillars shall be firmly fixed by using proper struts or panels or other skirting, except at the places where the walls are made of bracing or re-inforced concrete;

In steel buildings and re-inforced concrete buildings, they shall be provided with proper bracing or walls made of re-inforced concrete, etc. etc.;

In the calculation of the rigidity of the buildings, the unit of the horizontal vibrations of an earthquake shall be fixed at 0.1 degree and upwards.

CHAPTER IV

OUTLINE OF JAPANESE HISTORY

ANCIENT TIMES

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

Legendary Period.—From the accession of the first Mikado, *Jimmu Tenno*, B.C. 660, to about the reign of *Yuryaku Tenno* (457-480 A.D.), the Imperial House was chiefly employed, according to the time honored legends and traditions, in subjugating the northeastern region still held by the earlier inhabitants the *Ainus*, and *Kyushu* which was probably in close touch with the kingdoms in the Korean Peninsula. In the dim light of this prehistoric period move such heroic figures as *Yamatodake-no-mikoto* who was sent to subjugate the regions at the north and the south, while the name of the Empress *Jingo* stands conspicuous as the conqueror of the hostile Korean kingdoms. Her grand counsellor, *Takenouchi-no-Sukune*, is our Methuselah, being recorded to have attained the age of 300.

Introduction of Buddhism and Establishment of Capital at Kyoto.—We begin to tread on surer ground from the reign of *Kimmei Tenno* when, with the introduction of Buddhism and Chinese classics through Korea, Japan gradually advanced toward civilization through contact with the more enlightened Korea, and through her with China. The arrival of this exotic religion occasioned a fierce internal discord between the rival clans of the *Moriya* and the *Soga*, and the latter,

which was in favor of adopting it, came out triumphant. The *Soga* family assumed the real power of the country, assassinated a Mikado who was unfriendly to them, and through their encouragement and that of Prince *Shotoku*, Buddhism spread both in the Court and among the masses. This caused a marked rise of Japanese art, principally of a religious character, especially in the reign of the first Empress in Japan, i.e., *Suiko* (593-628). The *Horyuji* temple in *Yamato*, built more than 1300 years ago and the oldest wooden structure existing in the world, is one of the temples erected at that time. In 607 A.D. Japan first sent an embassy to China, then under the *Tung* dynasty. The arrogance of the *Soga* invited their downfall in the reign of *Tenchi Tenno*, who, before accession to the Throne, had headed the faction that destroyed the family. The Court then recovered its supreme authority. Meanwhile *Hokkaido* was subdued and the victorious arm was even extended to northern *Manchuria*. On the other hand Japan lost the suzerainty over *Korea*. The reign of *Kotoku Tenno* (645-654), the predecessor of *Tenchi*, is remarkable for having thoroughly remodelled the administrative system on that of China, and for having introduced the Chinese custom of "year name." *Gemmyo Tenno* (708-715), the 5th Empress of Japan, removed the seat of the Court, which had been shifting its seat from one place to another, to *Nara*, where for about seventy years art and culture burst into splendor seldom equalled in some respects, as may be judged from the treasures, over 3000 articles in all, kept in the storehouse of *Shoso-in*, *Nara*, and comprising the articles that were used by *Shomu Tenno* and presented to the temple after his death

in 756. The first Japanese book extant, *Kojiki*, and first Japanese anthology, *Manyo-shu*, were the production of the *Nara* period. Buddhism retained its great influence over the Court to such an extent that an infatuated Empress *Koken Tenno* (749-758) even contemplated elevating her favorite monk *Dokyo* to the Throne, though from this fate Japan was saved by the fearless opposition of *Wake-no-Kiyomaro*.

Court at Kyoto.—Established as the Imperial capital in 794 *Kyoto* was the centre of power and culture for about 400 years till 1192 when *Yoritomo* established at *Kamakura* the *Shogun* government, and reduced the position of the Imperial city to one of nominal importance. Meanwhile the actual power at the Imperial Court had passed to the ministerial family of *Fujiwara* which was founded by *Kamatari*, *Tenchi Tenno's* righthand man in the plot against the *Soga* family. Art and literature made a striking development. The Court gave itself up to refined amusement, leaving the sterner duty of maintaining peace to warrior classes of which *Taira*, or *Heike*, and the *Minamoto*, or *Genji* family came to the front. The period witnessed the invention of the "kana" scripts, an innovation of immense educational importance as it helped the spread of learning among the people, and made possible the appearance of such classics as *Genji Monogatari* by *Murasaki Shikibu*, *Makuranososhi* by *Seiwhonagon*, *Yei-gwa Monogatari* by *Akazome-emon*, and others, all maids of honor. *Ki-no-tsurayuki*, who compiled another anthology, *Kokin-shu*, furnished a model of the mixed style of Chinese characters and "kana," in his classic diary, *Tosa-nikki*. The custom of sending students to China for study had already been discontinued.

The effeminacy of the ruling class at the Court was followed by the rise of the military family of *Heike* which overthrew its rival the *Genji* and assumed the administrative authority as successors to the *Fujiwara*. It proved a very short ascendancy of only about 20 years, for living amidst the enervating atmosphere of *Kyoto* the original warlike spirit was soon sapped, and the *Heike* fell an easy prey before the fierce attack of the rough and rude

followers of the *Genji* who had been watching their opportunity in the provinces. The battles fought between the rival armies near *Kobe*, *Yashima* and *Dannoura*, furnish romantic chapters in the history of Japan.

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

The Imperial Court that had long been chafing under the humiliating treatment of military rulers repeatedly attempted to recover its legitimate authority, and an abortive rising in 1221 resulted in the wholesale exile of the three retired *Tenno*. A similar attempt by *Godaigo Tenno* (1319-1399) fared no better at first, but by this time the maladministration of the *Hojo* had very much alienated public support. *Kusunoki Masashige* first raised the anti-*Hojo* banner near *Kyoto* and he was followed by *Nitta Yoshisada*, and lastly *Ashikaga Takauji*. *Kamakura* was sacked and taken by *Nitta*, and the *Hojo* regency ceased to exist. *Godaigo*, who had been exiled to *Okii*, reascended the throne and the restoration of the Imperial power was consummated, but only for a short while. The courtiers and favorites claimed the lion's share in the distribution of the vast domains hitherto held by the *Hojo*, and there was only a little left to be given to those generals and their followers who at the cost of their lives and blood pulled down the *Hojo*. *Takauji* read the signs of the times, raised the banner of rebellion at *Kamakura* and set up one of the Imperial

princes as his own Emperor. For half a century Japan had two Imperial Courts, the Southern Court, which was supported by the followers of the unfortunate Godalgo, and the Northern Court backed by the Ashikaga. Kusunoki, Nitta, Kitabatake, and others who remained faithful to the Southern Court were killed in one battle after another, till the rival courts were fused in 1392.

Ashikaga Shogunate.—The rule of the Ashikaga shogunate established at Kyoto was never a strong one and the powerful barons in the provinces were practically left a free hand. As regards matters of taste and refinement, however, this period made a very valuable contribution to the history of civilization in Japan. Thus it was in the time of the 8th Shogun Yoshimasa (1436-90) that the art of tea ceremonial, the lyric drama called No, and other arts were originated in this country. The period is also memorable for having revived trade with China, then under the Sung dynasty, and witnessed the visit of many Japanese artists to and learned priests from the opposite shore. Japanese freebooters also ventured out in their frail craft and spread terror along the coast of Korea and China. The arrival of the first Portuguese ship in 1541, of the Spaniards not long after, and of Francis Xavier, a Jesuit missionary, in 1549 are noteworthy incidents in our history.

For more than a century, from about the middle of the 15th century, a state of anarchy prevailed, the shogunate having completely lost its prestige. By force of arms and by crafty schemes all the ambitious barons were bent on annexing the domains of weaker neighbors. One of them, Oda Nobunaga, of Owari, succeeded in subjugating all the neighborhood, and the way to Kyoto thus cleared, he was able to advance to the Imperial capital, which must have been left in a state of utter desolation in consequence of repeated battles fought in and about it. His victorious troops conquered in the east and the west. In this expedition of territorial expansion Hideyoshi, one of his generals who had entered his service as a mere menial retainer, distinguished himself over all the veteran generals of Nobunaga. When

Nobunaga was killed by his general Mitsuhide in 1582, Hideyoshi came back in a hurry, revenged his lord upon traitor in a pitched battle fought near Kyoto, and by promptly forestalling all the other generals of the unfortunate Nobunaga, made himself the master of the grand edifice nearly completed by his chief.

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

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

Hideyoshi next turned his attention to the ambitious project of subduing China, and in 1592 the invading army landed in Korea. For seven years, with the interruption of three intervening years, the invaders routed the Koreans and their allies the Chinese army. The expedition, however, was rendered abortive by the death of Hideyoshi in 1598.

Tokugawa Shogunate.—Iyeyasu was now the most powerful man, for Hideyoshi's son Hideyori at Osaka was still a minor. The jealousy of a number of the followers of Osaka brought about in 1600 the great battle of Sekigahara between them and Iyeyasu in which the two houses of Mori and Shimazu that sided with the former fared hard. Iyeyasu's victory further strengthened the position of the Tokugawa family, which then provoked war upon Osaka and the latter fell in 1615.

Japan enjoyed on the whole peace and prosperity during the shogunate of Tokugawa that lasted over two centuries and a half. Christianity that had been tabooed by Hideyoshi was at first tolerated, and intercourse with foreign countries was encouraged. Thus in 1610 the Spaniards who were wrecked on the coast of Japan were sent to Mexico by a Japanese ship, while in 1614 Date Masamune, the lord of Sendai, dispatched Hasekura Rokuemon to Rome to inspect the state of affairs there. This liberal policy was soon superseded by one of prohibition owing to the rivalry between the Dutch and the Portuguese traders. The rising of the Christians into rebellion at Amakusa in 1637 was followed by a severer policy against the religion and foreign commerce, exception being made only in favor of the Dutch and the Chinese. Japan remained secluded till the arrival of Commodore Perry's mission in 1853 to demand the opening of the country for commerce.

Learning was encouraged by the shogunate, chiefly to check the war-like propensity of the daimyos. Indirectly it fostered historical and literary research by our scholars and it is interesting to note these researches brought home to their mind the abnormal state into which the executive power of the country had fallen and especially to the encroachment of the military classes on the sovereignty of the Court. Meanwhile the extravagance of the successive shoguns highly impaired their credit, while the arrival of foreign missions one after another in quick succession in the early 19th century, demanding the conclusion of treaties of commerce, further tended to reveal their internal decay. Chiefly to gain time, the shogunate applied to the Court for permission to open the country and thus involuntarily placed itself under the direction of the legitimate rulers. The Court then ordered the expulsion of the foreign missions. It was a highly irresponsible decision, but the Court had been long estranged from active politics and was moreover

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

Meanwhile those young patriots who had so zealously taken up the bigoted and dangerous cause were disillusioned of their fatal error from the knowledge though scanty, which they obtained either by staying abroad a short while, as Ito, Inouye and some others of the Choshu clan did, or by some indirect means. Their attitude was completely changed, for it now was "Learn of foreigners where they are strong and remedy our defects." By the time the

shogunate had fallen the Jōi agitation had practically disappeared, in fact most of the agitators were soon converted into radical reformers.

MODERN JAPAN

The 45 years of the reign of the late Emperor Meiji will forever remain in the history of Japan as the most illustrious epoch in the development of the nation, besides supplying to the history of human progress a memorable chapter, teaching how a nation, even when placed under serious disadvantage, may, by dint of untiring diligence and patriotic endeavors and perseverance, succeed in pushing ahead the prosperity of the nation and in expanding its prestige and credit. Fifty years ago Japan was a terra incognita or at best a geographical name, but today she is a respected member of the great comity of nations.

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

The task which these young Councillors of State had to undertake was really herculean. First they had to

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

Foreign Troubles.—When the Imperial Government was restored, the news was duly conveyed to Korea with the idea of reminding the latter to send a congratulatory envoy as had been invariably done whenever a new Shogun was installed, but which courtesy had been neglected by Korea in the latter days of the Tokugawa. While this question of Korean discourtesy was still pending the Iwakura mission started for the West in Oct. 1871 with the object of having the one-sided Treaties of Commerce revised the following year, as expressly stated in the documents. When the mission returned in Sept. '73, humored at most places but sincerely advised at a few others to effect first of all a thorough internal reform before approaching the Powers to revise the Treaties, Iwakura, Okubo, Kido, Ito and others that formed the mission found their colleagues fully determined to send a punitive expedition to Korea, if the returning ministers approved. The latter stoutly opposed the decision and the first serious split in the new Government was the result, Saigo, Soejima,

Itagaki and other Ministers resigning office. The other foreign complications in which the new Government was involved were the expedition to Formosa in 1874 for chastising the natives who had murdered the shipwrecked fishermen of Luchu, for China had tried to disown responsibility on the ground that the island was outside her control; the protracted negotiation with Russia about the delimitation of boundary in Saghalien, resulting in the relinquishment of our claim to the island in exchange for the absolute control of the Kuriles, in 1875; definite recognition by China, through President Grant's intercession, of Japan's right over Luchu which had been feudatory to the House of Shimazu for centuries but which had secretly maintained a relation of vassalage to China.

Civil Wars.—The ministerial split of 1873 soon brought two civil wars as a sequel of the Korean question. The first broke out in 1874 at Saga under the ex-Minister of Justice Eto, but was fortunately suppressed in a few weeks, but the other that was started in Feb. 1877 in Kagoshima by the faithful adherents of the elder Saigo proved a rebellion of the gravest character, for it took some seven months before the Imperial Government could subdue the rebels who, led by men that held high office in the Imperial army, offered desperate resistance. The rebellion was the most formidable crisis which the Meiji Government had to encounter at home, for since the memorable Ministerial dissension the whole country had been seething with discontent and Saigo, who was a simple-mannered soldier of strong personal magnetism, had numerous friends in many parts of the country ready to rise and take up his cause at the first opportunity. The rebellion served as an occasion for demonstrating most emphatically that the much despised son of farmers, if properly disciplined, could make as good soldiers as the young samurai who formed the bulk of Saigo's army. There occurred minor uprisings shortly before Saigo's rebellion, at Kumamoto, Akitsuki and Hagi, but they were merely explosions of those who were roused to see the time honored manners and customs ruthlessly superseded by the foreign

and "barbarous" ways. The suppression of the rebellion ended in establishing on a firm basis the prestige of the Meiji Government and bringing the country into unity, but the cost paid for it was very dear, not only on account of the vast disbursements, over ¥40 millions, but in the loss of hundreds of men of uncommon ability and usefulness. The great Okubo was assassinated by a number of Saigo's adherents in the year following the subjugation.

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

The opening of the Diet in 1890 occasioned between Government and the House prolonged contests that were bitter and fierce. The members returned were all serious politicians of strong conviction and staunch views who had staked all they had in promoting the cause of constitutional movement. They were most of them veterans in speech and debate, and completely out-argued Cabinet ministers and their lieutenants on the platform, and out-voted them too, for it was significant as a sign of the times that ministerial candidates were held in utter contempt by the general public and had little chance of getting into the House. When the attempts made by the bureaucrats to form their own party in the House failed, they next adopted the conciliatory policy of admitting one or another leader of a predominant

party into the Cabinet but of course this paltering measure could not long keep the opposition in silence.

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

Revision of Treaties

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

Between 1882 and 1892, when the treaty was revised first of all with Great Britain, the Foreign Office changed its Minister no less than five

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

National Expansion

While Japan was bent upon the stupendous task of reorganizing her institutions on a Western model and introducing the important innovations of modern civilization, her two nearest neighbors, Korea and China, were still stubbornly wedded to their old effete routine, hating to open the countries to foreign intercourse and generally despising foreign ways. They were too haughty and self-important to perceive how greedily the aggressive Powers of the West were watching them, ready

to pounce at the first favorable opportunity. China was the worse sinner of the two as regards this attitude of apathy and defencelessness, for Korea, though an independent kingdom, contented herself with being a slavish imitator of her great neighbor, allowing the latter to assume the relation of a suzerain. Japan concluded a treaty of commerce with Korea in 1876, for she wanted the latter to be sufficiently strong to protect herself against foreign aggression. In Korea Japan stood for progress and China for reactionary interest; Korea herself was divided by two native rival factions which kept the country in interminable disturbances. These ceaseless troubles at last involved their two patrons in open war in 1894.

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

lease of Weihaiwei, while Japan obtained from China the pledge of non-alienation of the province of Fukien that lies opposite Formosa to any other Powers.

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

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

The whole nation, except perhaps a handful of pacifists, went into this war as one man, with the grim resolution to conquer or to die, for all believed implicitly that on the issue of the war depended the very existence of the nation. On the other hand, to the muzhiks the war had no meaning; they could not understand why they should have to give their lives in fighting Japan. General Kuropatkin, the unfortunate Commander-in-Chief in the disastrous battle of Mukden, must have thoroughly measured the fighting strength of the Japanese army when

he visited our country a few years before the outbreak of the war, but evidently he did not take into full account this vital factor in the psychology of the two warring nations. Better equipped than their foe, strongly entrenched, the Russian army was dislodged from one position after another, lost Port Arthur, though after a heroic defence lasting for about six months, was routed in the great battle of Mukden, and when the Baltic fleet, after having effected with credit the weary voyage, was literally wiped off the face of the Japan Sea by Admiral Togo in May 1905, Russia decided to give up the hopeless war. The result was the Portsmouth Treaty signed by the representatives of two hostile countries on 5th Sept., 1905, through the mediation of President Roosevelt. Russia refused to pay any indemnity, but agreed to recognize Japan's supremacy in Korea, to hand over to Japan the lease of the Liaotung peninsula and the South Manchuria Railway with the mining and other rights pertaining to it and to cede to her the southern half of Saghalien.

Anglo-Japanese Alliance.—It was in 1902, or a little before the Russo-Japanese war, when the attention of the European Powers was directed to the Far East, that Japan and Great Britain entered into an Agreement for Alliance, the two parties mutually recognizing as well as safeguarding their own interests in China, and Britain admitting Japan's special position in Korea. In 1905 the Agreement was enlarged in scope and was replaced by a new stipulation designed to cover the maintenance of general peace in Eastern Asia and India; was further modified in 1911 and made effective till July 1921. The dual compact on the whole worked with marked success, and while it greatly strengthened the position of Japan in the Far East, it enabled Britain to concentrate her fleet at home.

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

Japan in International Politics

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

Death of Emperor Meiji.—On July 31, 1912, Meiji Tenno died before attaining his 60th anniversary, but it may be said that his memorable reign was brought to a fitting close. His memory will forever be held in profound veneration by the people as one of the most illustrious sovereigns that have ever ruled over the country. With the immediate accession of his

son Prince Yoshihito (Emperor Taisho) to the Throne began the new era of Taisho.

The World War and Japan

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

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

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

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

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

The affair has proved a costly one to Japan. Since Aug. 18, 1918, when her troops first landed at Vladivostok, Japan dispatched in turn 11 divisions; the number of these troops amounted

in November, 1918, to some 70,000 (including non-combatants) but this was soon reduced to 26,000 by the end of that year, to be further withdrawn thereafter. The total casualties numbered about 1,475 officers and men killed and over 10,000 wounded, besides 610 who fell victims to illness. The expenditure of the military operations that spread over five years drained the national coffers of about ¥700 millions.

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

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

Washington Conference

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

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

Crown Prince's Journey Abroad

In the spring of 1921 Crown Prince Hirohito (the present Emperor) proceeded to Europe to make observations and exchange courtesies with sovereigns and rulers of European countries, the Prince returning home in September the same year. It was an epoch-making event in the history of the Japanese Imperial house and was moreover unqualified success in every respect. In May, 1925, his young brother Prince Yasuhito Chichibu went to England for study and entered Oxford in October 1926 to pursue his study, but owing to the serious illness of his father Emperor Taisho the Prince had to leave Oxford and returned home in January 1927.

The New Era of Showa

After returning from his foreign tour Crown Prince Hirohito was appointed Regent in November, 1921, to conduct the affairs of the State in place of his father who, on account of chronic illness, was incapacitated from performing his heavy duties as Emperor. In the spring of 1924 the Crown Prince married Princess Nagako, first daughter of the late Prince Kuni. Then on

December 25th, 1926, His Majesty Emperor Yoshihito (Taisho Tenno) passed away and on the same day the Prince Regent ascended the Throne as the 124th Emperor, the new era named Showa being adopted for the reign. The enthronement of the new Emperor was celebrated at the ancient capital of Kyoto on November 10-15, 1928, after lapse of one year's mourning over the demise of the departed Emperor according to the traditional custom, the national function being performed with the time-honored ceremonies. For the first time in the history of the Empire

the Empress was also in presence at this grand function, the Throne for Her Majesty being erected by the side of that for the Emperor at the Shishii-den Hall. This is a matter of great significance and is noteworthy as an event marking the formal recognition of the status of an Empress and her privilege to attend the grand State ceremonies with her Imperial consort. Formerly the status of an Empress was not properly recognized but placed on a lower level under the social conditions that obtained in those days.

CHAPTER V

POPULATION & EMIGRATION

I. POPULATION

The total population as shown in the 2nd census taken on Oct. 1, 1925, stands at 59,736,822 in Japan proper, as against 55,963,053 returned in the 1st census taken in 1920, an increase of 3,773,769. The rate of increase in the quinquennium was 6.7 percent, this corresponding to the average annual increase of over 750,000. The statistics for Japan proper and colonies are shown below:—

Japan Proper:

Honshu (Main Island) ..	44,981,502
Shikoku	3,173,966
Kyushu	8,524,953
Hokkaido	2,498,679
Other (Luchu)	557,622
Total	59,736,822
Taiwan (Formosa)	3,993,408
Chosen (Korea)	19,522,945
Karafuto (Saghalien) ..	203,754
Grand total	83,456,929
Men	42,209,100
Women	41,247,829
Kwantung leased territory.	1,054,074
Pacific mandate	56,294

Density.—The average density of population in the Empire is 120 per square kilometre, while that of Japan proper is 156, which makes Japan one of the most densely populated lands in the world, coming next to such industrial countries of Europe as Belgium, Holland and Great Britain. The density is the greatest in the Kwanto plain, followed by the Osaka plain and Kyoto basin, the Pacific coast

of central Honshu, and north-western Kyushu. Then come the districts of north Honshu, southern Chosen and northern Taiwan. North-eastern Hokkaido and Karafuto are less inhabited. The density for Japan proper, as returned at 156 in the last census is a gain of 10 persons on the figure of the 1920 census which returned 147 persons for every square kilometre. Based on the cultivated area instead of gross area the density stands far ahead of European countries as follows:—

Density per square k.m. of Cultivated Area

England	226
Germany	185
Switzerland	168
France	108
Spain	90
Holland	273
Italy	205
Belgium	394
Japan	969

Sex Ratio.—The male population (for Japan proper) is returned at 30,013,109 as against 29,723,713 female population, the former outnumbering the latter by 289,396. The ratio stands at 101 males to every 100 females as against 100.4 to 100 of the previous census.

Normal Growth.—Calculating the excess of births over deaths, and of emigration over immigration, Japan's yearly increase of population during the five years (1920-1924) was as follows per 1,000 population:—

	Birthrate	Deathrate	Excess Emig-ration	Rate of Increase
1920	36.2	25.4	0.1	10.7
1921	35.1	22.7	0.4	12.0
1922	34.2	22.3	—	11.9
1923	34.9	22.8	0.3	12.5
1924	33.8	21.2	0.1	11.9
Average	34.1	22.2	0.3	11.9

POPULATION & EMIGRATION

Thus the yearly increase per 1,000 inhabitants stands at 11.9 so that it may be concluded that Japan's population multiplies at the rate of 1.2% per annum. Based on the above data the

population returned for 1925 will be doubled in about 40 years. Meanwhile the increase per decade is estimated as follows:—

1925	59,736,704	1955	85,325,000
1935	67,275,000	1965	108,821,000
1945	75,758,000		

Japan's position in birthrate and deathrate compares with Western countries as follows:—

Birthrate per 1,000 people

	1871-'80	1881-'90	1891-'00	1901-'10
Japan	25.1	28.1	29.8	32.9
Great Britain	25.5	32.5	30.0	27.2
Germany	39.1	36.8	36.1	33.4
France	25.4	23.9	22.1	20.7

Deathrate per 1,000 people

Japan	19.6	20.8	20.5	23.5
Great Britain	21.5	19.2	18.4	15.8
Germany	27.1	25.1	22.2	18.7
France	23.7	22.1	22.1	19.4

Thus Japan is one of those countries with the heaviest rate both in birth and death, and is, in short, a country with excessive racial growth though not creditable in quality. Analytical examination of deaths shows that diseases claim 85%, senility 6%, unnatural deaths 6% and unknown causes 3%.

The natural increase of population (for Japan proper) in 1929 is returned as 815,798, the rate of increase being 12.96 per 1,000 souls, or 2,235 per dlem, according to the official returns recently announced. Compared with

the preceding year's returns the figure shows a decrease of 83,343 or 1.51%. The number of births was 2,077,026, a decline of 58,826 against 2,135,271 of the previous year, the rate per 1,000 souls standing at 33.

The similar figure for deaths was 1,261,228 as against 1,232,490 of the previous year, the rate per 1,000 souls being 20.04.

The rate of increase in recent years is, however, on the decline as shown below:—

	Births	Deaths	Increase
1927	2,050,364	1,209,313	841,051
1928	2,135,271	1,261,228	874,043
1929	2,077,026	1,261,228	815,978

Urban Population.—Of the 101 cities in Japan proper, 23 returned a population of over 100,000, Osaka taking the lead with 2,114,804 followed by Tokyo with 1,995,567, Nagoya with 768,558, Kyoto with 679,963, Kobe with 644,212 and Yokohama with 442,938. Then comes Hiroshima with 195,731 population, followed by Nagasaki, Hakodate, Kanazawa, Kumamoto, Fukuoka, Sapporo, Sendai, Kure, Otaru, Kagoshima, Okayama, Yawata, Niigata,

Sakai and Yokosuka in the named order.

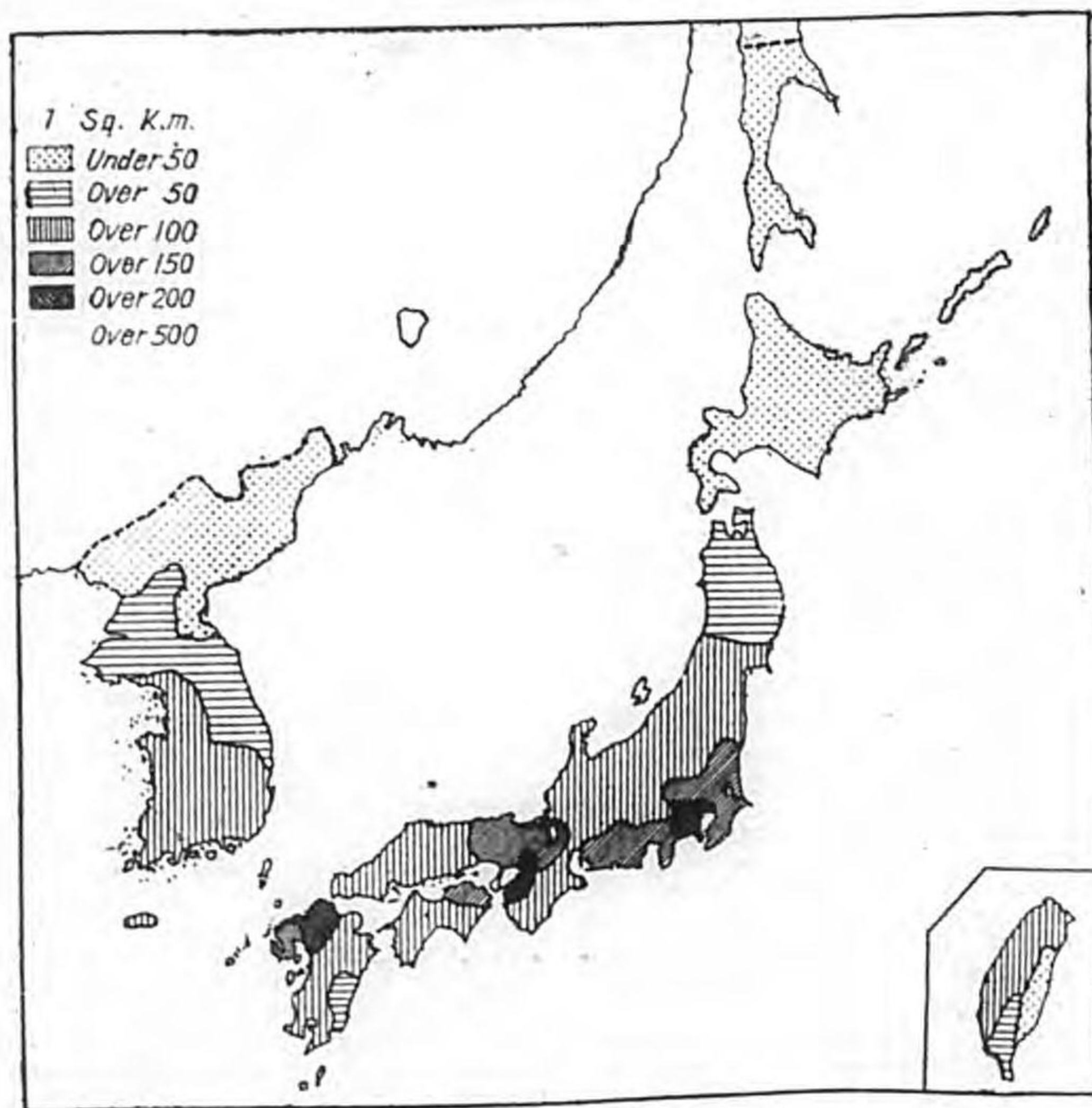
The above 22 cities each having over 100,000 souls contained 8,843,298, forming 14.8 percent of the whole population of the country. The figure was composed of 4,669,535 males and 4,173,763 females, at the ratio of 112 males to every 100 females, while the general ratio is 101 to 100 as mentioned before.

POPULATION IN JAPAN PROPER

Returns of "Legal" Population

Year	Males	Females	Total	Annual incr. per. 1,000 pop.	Males per 100 females
1921 (Dec. 31).....	29,656,261	29,040,875	58,697,136	13.44	102.12
1922 (").....	30,040,963	29,419,289	59,460,252	13.00	102.11
1923 (").....	30,445,661	29,812,281	60,257,941	13.42	102.12
1924 (").....	30,860,032	30,221,948	61,081,954	13.67	102.11
1925 (").....	31,340,278	30,704,411	62,044,649	15.76	102.08
1926 (").....	31,820,065	31,186,535	63,006,595	15.50	102.03
1927 (").....	32,246,999	31,615,547	63,862,538	13.40	102.00
1928 (").....	32,727,461	32,097,345	64,824,797	14.84	101.96

Note:—Where the total disagrees with its components it is due to people of unknown sexes being included in it.



DENSITY OF POPULATION

Population by Age and Sex

Based on the results of the 2nd census taken Oct. 1, 1925.

Age	Real number			Ratio per 1,000 population
	Males	Females	Total	
0-4	4,160,479	4,104,104	8,264,583	138.4
5-9	3,491,171	3,433,261	6,924,432	115.9
10-14	9,410,991	3,324,039	6,735,030	112.8
15-19	2,388,370	2,896,907	5,885,277	98.5
20-24	2,574,799	2,485,728	5,060,527	84.7
25-29	2,256,502	2,136,969	4,393,471	73.6
30-34	1,920,177	1,795,910	3,716,087	62.2
35-39	1,768,538	1,680,839	3,449,377	57.4
40-44	1,624,224	1,597,541	3,221,765	53.9
45-49	1,539,488	1,515,661	3,055,149	51.1
50-54	1,223,831	1,227,072	2,450,903	41.0
55-59	981,235	1,009,582	1,990,817	23.3
60-64	754,000	814,341	1,568,341	36.3
65-69	601,475	692,865	1,294,340	21.6
70-74	401,555	515,625	919,180	15.4
75-79	213,632	309,382	523,014	8.8
80-84	79,096	136,738	215,834	3.6
85-89	17,585	36,653	54,238	0.9
90-94	3,515	9,209	12,724	0.2
95-99	398	1,148	1,546	0.0
Over 100	48	139	187	0.0
Unknown	—	—	187	0.0
Total	30,013,109	29,723,713	59,736,822	1,000.0

The married and unmarried population in Japan proper was first compiled in 1886, the quinquennial figures given below:—

Dec. 31	Married			Unmarried		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1898	7,979,858	7,979,858	15,959,716	14,093,234	13,709,665	27,802,899
1903	8,229,152	8,229,152	16,458,304	15,372,488	14,902,084	30,274,572
1908	8,583,168	8,583,168	17,166,336	16,463,212	15,959,256	32,422,468
1913	9,144,727	9,144,727	18,289,454	17,819,859	17,253,369	35,073,228
1918	9,568,500	9,568,502	19,137,002	19,057,117	18,473,592	37,530,709
1923	11,860,690	11,881,960	23,742,650	16,739,639	14,454,786	31,194,425

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

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

	Married			Unmarried		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1898	182.3	182.3	364.6	322.1	313.3	635.4
1903	176.1	176.1	352.2	328.9	318.9	647.8
1908	173.1	173.1	346.2	332.0	321.8	653.8
1913	171.4	171.4	342.8	333.9	323.3	657.2
1918	168.9	168.9	337.8	336.2	326.0	662.2

Births, Deaths, Marriages and Divorces

The returns showing births and deaths were first prepared in 1883, and stillbirths in 1886. The following figures represent the average in each five years:—

Average for	Births	Stillbirths	Deaths	Marriages	Divorces
1909-13	1,729,925	153,920	1,052,735	434,786	59,023
1914-18	1,803,391	141,965	1,215,254	456,074	58,495
1919-23	1,961,547	136,277	1,322,411	514,833	53,998
1924-28	2,077,121	122,239	1,215,484	504,964	50,735

Ratios of these numbers per 1,000 population are as follows:—

Average for	Births	Stillbirths	Deaths	Marriages	Divorces
1909-13	33.7	2.99	20.5	8.45	1.15
1914-18	32.6	2.57	22.0	8.07	1.06
1919-23	34.4	2.39	23.2	9.03	0.95
1924-28	34.3	2.02	20.1	8.34	0.84

Age of Marriages

Age	1927		1928		Ratio for 1928	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Under 15	—	62	—	27	—	0.1
15-19	12,378	120,584	11,654	117,694	23.3	235.6
20-24	147,413	231,869	146,627	243,966	293.5	488.4
25-29	191,938	75,979	202,217	78,086	404.8	156.3
30-34	65,236	26,673	68,419	27,480	137.0	55.0
35-39	28,754	13,114	28,629	13,223	57.3	26.6
40-49	27,464	13,633	27,431	13,223	54.9	26.5
50-59	10,622	4,860	10,535	4,735	21.1	9.5
Above 60	4,046	1,076	4,043	1,047	8.1	2.1
Total	487,850	487,850	499,555	499,555	1,000.1	1,000.1

Birthrates

Year	Males	Females	Total	Males per 100 females	Legitimate	Illegitimate
1923	1,043,599	999,698	2,043,297	104.4	92.3	7.7
1924	1,019,988	978,532	1,998,520	104.2	92.4	7.6
1925	1,060,827	1,025,264	2,086,091	103.5	92.7	7.3
1926	1,081,793	1,022,611	2,104,405	105.8	93.1	6.9
1927	1,048,946	1,011,791	2,060,737	103.7	93.0	7.0
1928	1,018,477	1,045,150	2,135,852	104.4	93.3	6.7

Rates of Stillbirths

Year	Males	Females	Unknown	Total	M. per 100 F.	Legitimate	Illegitimate
1923	72,126	61,312	425	133,863	117.6	78.1	21.9
1924	67,777	57,707	355	125,839	117.5	78.6	21.3
1925	67,580	56,506	317	124,403	119.6	79.1	20.9
1926	67,562	56,136	340	124,038	120.4	79.8	20.2
1927	63,401	53,140	381	116,922	119.3	79.8	20.1
1928	65,339	54,432	420	120,191	120.0	80.0	20.0

The Average Age of Mortality

According to the investigation effected by the Statistics Bureau in 1929 on the basis of the 1st and 2nd census, the average age of mortality of Japan-

ese is 42.14 years for men and 43.09 for women. The average age of death for those males who survive five days after birth is 42.14, for those surviving one year 49.21, five years 50.52, ten years 46.53 and twenty years 39.10.

POPULATION OF THE PREFECTURES

(Based on the Census taken Oct. 1, 1925)

Prefecture	Area in sq. km.	Pop.	Pop. per sq. km.	Prefecture	Area in sq. km.	Pop.	Pop. per sq. km.
Aichi	5,055	2,319,294	459	Miye	5,702	1,107,692	194
Akita	11,724	936,410	80	Nagano	13,557	1,629,217	120
Aomori	9,631	812,977	84	Nagasaki	4,116	1,163,945	283
Chiba	5,079	1,399,257	276	Nara	3,730	583,828	157
Ehime	5,699	1,096,366	192	Niigata	12,594	1,849,807	147
Fukui	4,019	597,899	149	Oita	6,227	915,136	147
Fukuoka	4,922	2,301,668	468	Okayama	7,019	1,238,447	176
Fukushima	13,720	1,437,596	105	Okinawa	2,151	557,622	259
Gifu	10,462	1,132,557	108	Osaka	1,761	3,059,502	1,718
Gumma	6,315	1,118,858	177	Saga	2,444	684,831	280
Hiroshima	8,448	1,617,680	191	Saitama	3,804	1,394,458	367
Hokkaido	88,279	2,498,690	28	Shiga	4,031	662,412	164
Hyogo	8,427	2,454,679	291	Shimane	6,618	722,402	109
Ibaraki	6,100	1,409,092	231	Shizuoka	7,787	1,671,217	215
Ishikawa	4,198	750,854	279	Tochigi	6,448	1,090,428	169
Iwate	15,235	900,984	59	Tokushima	4,135	689,814	167
Kagawa	1,845	700,308	379	Tokyo	2,142	4,485,144	2,093
Kagoshima	9,011	1,472,193	163	Tottori	3,500	472,230	135
Kanagawa	2,252	1,416,792	604	Toyama	4,257	749,243	176
Kochi	7,088	687,478	97	Wakayama	4,733	787,511	166
Kumamoto	7,432	1,296,086	174	Yamagata	9,306	1,027,297	110
Kyoto	4,559	1,406,382	308	Yamaguchi	6,087	1,094,544	180
Miyagi	7,287	1,044,036	143	Yamanashi	4,455	600,675	135
Miyazaki	7,738	691,094	89				

POPULATION OF THE CITIES

(Based on the Census taken Oct. 1, 1925)

Cities	Pop.	Households per H.	Pop. per H.	Cities	Pop.	Households per H.	Pop. per H.
Akashi	37,244	8,566	4.3	Kawasaki	54,634	11,277	4.8
Akita	43,887	7,994	5.5	Kiryu	42,553	8,374	5.1
Amagasaki	44,241	9,887	4.5	Kishiwada	32,050	7,153	4.5
Aomori	58,794	11,316	5.2	Kobe	644,212	151,505	4.3
Asashigawa	72,341	13,121	5.5	Kochi	65,723	15,162	4.3
Ashikaga	39,401	7,685	5.1	Kofu	68,275	14,302	4.8
Beppu	37,529	8,748	4.3	Kokura	51,663	10,776	4.8
Chiba	41,806	8,788	4.8	Koriyama	42,984	8,091	5.3
Fukui	59,943	14,229	4.2	Kumamoto	147,174	29,032	5.1
Fukuoka	146,005	28,029	5.2	Kure	138,863	29,872	4.7
Fukushima	41,379	7,651	5.4	Kurume	72,221	13,338	5.4
Fukuyama	34,048	7,640	4.5	Kushiro	42,332	8,463	5.0
Gifu	81,902	17,616	4.6	Kyoto	679,963	148,672	4.6
Hachioji	45,288	9,136	5.0	Marugame	27,971	6,189	4.5
Hakodate	163,972	33,318	4.9	Matsumoto	63,427	12,973	4.9
Hamamatsu	92,152	18,925	4.9	Matsuyama	58,292	13,270	4.4
Himeji	55,713	11,582	4.8	Matsuyue	41,396	9,206	4.5
Hirosaki	36,293	6,552	5.5	Mayebashi	73,688	14,152	5.2
Hiroshima	195,731	42,866	4.6	Mito	46,527	9,563	4.9
Ichinomiya	34,746	7,035	4.9	Miyakonjo	30,421	6,293	4.8
Imaharu	37,713	8,158	4.6	Miyazaki	42,945	8,780	4.9
Kagoshima	124,734	24,527	5.1	Moji	95,087	21,750	4.4
Kanazawa	147,420	32,455	4.5	Morioka	50,030	9,366	5.3
Kawagoye	31,905	6,507	4.9	Muroran	50,640	10,150	4.9

Nagano	66,555	13,351	5.0	Takaoka	42,660	8,300	5.7
Nagoka	53,156	10,156	5.2	Takasaki	45,698	9,274	4.9
Nagasaki	189,071	40,560	4.7	Takata	30,897	5,595	5.5
Nagoya	768,558	164,141	4.7	Tobata	37,748	8,393	4.5
Nara	48,879	10,369	4.7	Tokushima	74,545	16,946	4.4
Nawa	54,643	13,304	4.1	Tokyo	1,995,567	429,852	4.6
Niigata	108,941	22,077	4.9	Tottori	35,120	7,523	4.7
Nishinomiya	34,427	7,452	4.6	Toyama	67,490	14,453	4.7
Numazu	38,042	6,977	5.4	Toyohashi	82,371	15,559	5.3
Ogaki	33,639	7,065	4.8	Tsu	52,536	11,154	4.7
Oita	53,352	9,331	5.7	Tsuruoka	31,830	6,103	5.2
Okayama	124,521	28,005	4.4	Ube	48,750	11,705	4.2
Okazaki	44,556	10,052	4.4	Uji-Yamada	44,803	9,652	4.6
Omuda	68,256	14,134	4.8	Utsunomiya	76,138	15,362	5.0
Onomichi	27,740	6,554	4.2	Uwajima	38,534	8,723	4.5
Osaka	2,114,804	483,990	4.4	Uyeda	32,589	7,120	4.6
Otaru	134,469	26,556	5.1	Wakamatsu			
Otsu	33,779	7,824	4.3	(Fukushima-ken)	41,952	7,756	5.4
Saga	42,160	8,124	5.2	Wakamatsu			
Sakai	105,009	23,145	4.5	(Fukuoka-ken)	49,930	11,401	4.4
Sapporo	145,065	28,726	5.0	Wakayama	95,622	21,517	4.4
Saseho	95,385	18,038	5.3	Yamagata	55,994	10,023	5.6
Sendai	142,894	26,814	5.3	Yawata	118,376	27,079	4.4
Shimizu	46,339	9,053	5.1	Yokkaichi	40,393	8,560	4.7
Shimonoseki	92,317	20,835	4.4	Yokohama	405,888	95,377	4.3
Shizuoka	84,772	16,524	5.1	Yokosuka	96,351	18,429	5.5
Shuri	20,582	4,858	4.2	Yonezawa	44,602	8,194	5.4
Takamatsu	71,897	15,896	4.5				

DISTRIBUTION OF URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION

Population	Result of 1st Census			Result of 2nd Census		
	No. towns	Population	Percentage	No. towns	Population	Percentage
Under 500	126	36,419	0.07	82	26,103	0.04
501- 2,000	2,662	4,007,310	7.21	2,545	3,854,410	6.45
2,001- 5,000	7,259	23,062,027	41.21	7,050	22,532,803	37.72
5,001- 10,000	1,639	10,821,175	19.34	1,733	11,470,200	19.20
10,001- 20,000	374	5,074,460	9.07	392	5,229,161	8.75
20,001- 50,000	136	4,102,746	7.33	145	4,437,992	7.43
50,001-100,000	31	2,105,318	3.76	51	3,444,916	5.77
Over 100,001	15	6,753,598	12.07	21	8,741,237	14.63
Total	12,243	55,963,053	100.00	12,019	59,736,822	100.00

FOREIGN VISITORS TO JAPAN

Nationality	1929	1928	Nationality	1929	1928
Austria	68	27	Italy	146	74
Belgium	83	34	Norway	48	17
Britain	3,827	3,243	Philippines	578	189
British-India	225	132	Poland	72	20
Canada	135	89	Portugal	70	79
China	14,204	11,982	Russia	880	670
Czechoslovakia	68	14	Spain	54	33
Denmark	136	74	Sweden	50	58
France	412	485	Switzerland	186	159
Germany	1,169	529	U. S. A.	8,117	6,932
Holland	164	121	Total incl. others.	31,183	25,194

FOREIGN RESIDENTS IN JAPAN

The number of foreign residents in various parts of this country for five years ending in 1928 is as follows:—

Year	Male	Female	Total
1924	17,537	6,585	24,122
1925	20,610	7,669	28,279
1926	22,483	8,657	31,140
1927	23,746	9,171	32,917
1928	25,048	9,869	34,917

The detailed figures for 1927 and 1928, tabulated according to nationality, are as follows, omitting those of less importance as to number:—

Nationality	1928	1927	Nationality	1928	1927
Austria	61	70	Italy	107	99
British-India	208	271	Netherlands	129	100
China	25,963	23,934	Portugal	180	164
Canada	165	141	Russia	1,473	1,419
Denmark	105	104	Sweden	81	91
France	486	497	Switzerland	237	196
Germany	1,059	1,110	United States	2,038	2,012
Great Britain	2,104	2,205	Total incl. others	34,917	32,917

LEGAL STATUS OF FOREIGNERS

Landownership and Naturalization

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

Alien Landownership

This was first sanctioned in 1910 by law, but as the date for putting it into operation was left unfixd the law remained as dead letter. A new law voted in the 50th session of the Diet and promulgated on April 1, 1925, has

replaced the original enactment, the measure being put in force on November 10, 1926. The law in question is essentially based on the spirit of reciprocity and recognizes the right of alien ownership as mutual concession. In other words, this right is extended only to citizens, either as individuals or as majority partners, shareholders, etc., of foreign juridical persons, of those foreign countries that recognize mutatis mutandis similar right of Japanese subjects. According to the law foreigners cannot own land or acquire superficies or emphyteusis in certain districts of strategic importance without permission of the Ministers of Army and Navy, such districts being designated in the ordinance relating to the operation of the alien landownership law, promulgated on Nov. 1st, 1926.

Naturalization

A foreigner may become a Japanese subject under the following conditions, viz., (1) That he has been domiciled in Japan for at least five years continuously; (2) is at least 20 years of age and possesses civil capacity according to the law of his native

country; (3) is of good morals; (4) possesses property or ability to maintain himself; (5) possesses no nationality or will lose it on being made a Japanese subject.

The above conditions are much modified for those whose fathers, mothers or wives were Japanese subjects, and for those who were born in Japan of either Japanese father or mother. Those who are living in Japan for ten years or more may be naturalized even when they are not domiciled for five consecutive years, while for those of distinguished service to Japan the process of naturalization may, with

Imperial sanction, be made very simple, i.e., continuous residence or domicile in Japan for at least one year and good morals. The nationality can also be acquired by being adopted by a Japanese subject. Naturalizations still remain comparatively insignificant in number, the bulk being supplied by Chinese living in Formosa.

Year	Marrying into family	Adopted	Naturalized	Rehabilitated
1924	1	2	4	5
1925	1	2	7	3
1926	4	7	7	4
1927	—	8	9	17
1928	2	7	14	19

II. EMIGRATION

Japanese emigration to foreign lands is not so great as that of some European nations. According to official returns the number of Japanese residing abroad as on the 1st of October, 1928, was 709,838. Of that number about 260,000 reside in South Manchuria and China. The number of our emigrants on the Pacific coast of the United States is now decreasing on

account of unfavorable social and other conditions there. On the contrary, a new field in the Brazilian plateau has in recent years been opened for emigrants from Japan, and at present there are approximately 78,000 Japanese in Brazil, enjoying a peaceful life in the pursuit of coffee plantation, rice cultivation and similar other lines of industry.

The number of emigrants who went to and those returned from different countries during the ten years ending 1928 is tabulated below:—

	No. of emigrants who departed			Those returned (men and women)	Money remitted by emigrants (Yen 1,000)
	Men	Women	Total		
1919	11,033	7,211	18,244	18,114	29,641
1920	7,632	5,909	13,541	20,376	34,707
1921	8,117	4,827	12,944	18,755	31,524
1922	8,747	4,132	12,879	14,912	25,972
1923	5,712	3,113	8,825	10,784	25,852
1924	7,884	5,214	13,098	15,579	25,121
1925	7,077	3,619	10,696	13,918	25,453
1926	10,555	5,629	16,184	14,549	24,945
1927	11,735	6,306	18,041	14,735	24,441
1928	12,502	7,348	19,850	15,004	27,613

The figures for the 5 years ending 1928, apportioned according to different destinations, are as follows:—

	1924	1927	1926	1925	1924
Brazil	12,002	9,625	8,599	4,908	3,689
Philippines (incl. Guam)	2,077	2,659	2,197	1,635	648
Peru	1,410	1,271	1,250	922	651
Canada	1,050	1,062	1,009	979	1,103
U.S.S.R.	870	896	531	108	329
U.S.A.	306	370	344	289	4,064
Hawaii	265	526	636	485	2,163
Straits Settlements & Malay States	420	475	402	437	152
Mexico	353	319	336	160	76

	1928	1927	1926	1925	1924
Argentina	387	262	182	121	58
Dutch East Indies	191	248	226	169	75
Australia	270	129	139	250	112
Cuba	37	45	117	127	—
Others	318	154	216	106	78
Total	19,850	18,041	16,184	10,696	13,098

Japanese Emigrants

The number of Japanese residing abroad at the end of 1928, returned as 709,838 in the latest official report, shows increases of 36,163 and 33,576 on the similar figures for 1926 and 1927 respectively. Excepting European countries, Oceania, Dutch East Indies and South American states other than Peru, Brazil and Argentina, which showed more or less decrease, the figures in other directions generally increased as compared with the previous returns. Of the total figure for the year about 260,000 represents those residing in Manchuria and various parts of China, where the field of activities of Japanese is very extensive and the lines of occupations engaged in are variegated. Apart from those places, the principal places where the presence of Japanese emigrants is making itself felt are as follows:—

Asiatic Russia.—About 4,200 Japanese, mostly petty traders, reside in Harbin and neighborhood, besides some 600 firm clerks and employes with their families. These Japanese organize themselves into a self-governing body, and maintain their own schools and also a public hospital for the treatment of Japanese and foreigners. In the Maritime Provinces there were about 500 Japanese, chiefly employed in fishing, packing and other lines. The total annual catch and tinned and salted articles reach about 50 million yen including those of Kamchatka. In Northern (Russia) Saghalien there live about 760 Japanese, mostly employed in mining, timber felling and pulp-making, which are conducted by Japanese concerns.

Malay Peninsula.—In Singapore, Johore and other states there are about 7,500 Japanese, about 500 being employed in rubber plantation either as planters or workers. They lease about 150,000 acres of land of which three quarters are under rubber trees. Besides, some 800 live in British North

Borneo, Sarawak and other places.

Hawaiian Islands.—The emigrants at the end of 1927 numbered about 130,000, including 37,740 living in Honolulu and neighborhood, where 670 were employed in farm work, 8,000 in other work and 1,500 in petty trade. Elsewhere some 20,000 were engaged in farm work, mostly on sugar plantations, others being employed in coffee cultivation and fishery. The Japanese settlers in the islands maintain their own schools (144 elementary and 8 middle schools) for education of their children. Many of them being American-born are American subjects by right.

The Philippine Islands.—Over 11,000 Japanese resided in the islands at the end of 1927, most of them working on plantations owned by the Mindanao Island Exploit Co. and other establishments. Fishery in the islands is practically in the hands of Japanese, those in the Sooloo archipelago being nearly all pearl-fishers.

Mexico.—Over 600 Japanese are engaged in agriculture, chiefly cotton and coffee cultivation, besides some 500 carrying on petty trade. Some 300 Japanese are also working as farm laborers on the plantations belonging to the Japan-Mexico Co-operation Co. and another Japanese concern, which either own or lease about 15,000 acres of cultivated land. Over 1,000, mostly farm and mine workers, were living in Lower California.

Cuba.—About 740 Japanese, mostly farm workers, were residing at the end of 1927.

Canada.—Of over 21,000 Japanese (including some 11,000 women and children) residing in Canada at the end of 1927, the largest percentage, viz. 20,053 represents those living in British Columbia. These Japanese were mostly engaged in factory labor, farming, fishing and other marine product industry, the rest being occupied in petty trade and various lines of

industry. About 800 resided in Alberta and other states, and 290 in Ottawa and neighborhood.

The United States.—Some 35,000 Japanese resided at the end of 1927 on the eastern coast, mostly engaged in farming, horticulture, fishing, etc. Japanese in the Imperial Valley on the Mexican borderland and those in the Rocky Ford are raising common and water melons. As compared with the previous returns the Japanese population throughout the states showed an increase of 7,104.

Brazil & Other S. American States.—Japanese emigration to South America dates from 1899, when a batch of emigrants were sent to Peru by an emigration agency. At present, there are about 15,300 Japanese, including some 2,000 engaged in farming and other lines in the hinterland, the remainder living in Lima and neighborhood as farm workers, petty traders, etc. Brazil is now the mecca of Japanese emigrants, and as Japanese laborers are welcomed there for exploiting the boundless wild land in that vast country it is considered the most desirable outlet for the congested population of Japan. At the end of

1928 there were living about 76,500 Japanese, most of whom were leading a comparatively happy and peaceful life in San Paulo and other places, working on farms or plantations of their own or leased. To encourage the emigration of propertied classes to Brazil an Emigration Corporation scheme was enacted in 1927, its purpose being to give support to members of provincial emigration corporations intending to establish themselves in Brazil. Under the law, which took effect the same year under the name of the Industrial Corporation Law, approved emigrants are given a small sum to help their passage. At the same time an Emigrants Home was established at Kobe for benefit of those emigrants booked for Brazil, to provide various necessary services for them. The Government plan is to secure a land of about 100,000 acres at San Paulo and send there 1,600 families in three years commencing 1927. By the end of 1928 about 9,600 emigrants went to the destination, to be followed by 16,000 in the course of 1929-30. Besides, there are about 21,600 Japanese in Peru, Argentina, Bolivia, Chili and other S. American states.

JAPANESE RESIDING ABROAD

The following returns by the Foreign Office give data for October 1928:—

	Males	Females	Total
Grand total	405,499	304,339	709,838

I. Asia

	Males	Females	Total
Total	158,961	133,345	292,306
District	Males	Females	Total
Manchuria	53,691	50,029	103,720
Kwantung	51,991	48,718	100,709
East Russia	1,283	309	1,592
Vladivostok	311	220	531
Nikolisk	10	5	15
Petrovavrovsk	19	4	23
Habarovsk & Nikolalevsk....	126	2	128
N. Saghalien	813	68	881
China	30,801	24,355	55,156
Mukden	21,520	19,865	41,385
Liaoyang	5,901	5,332	11,233
Tientsin	3,788	3,426	7,214
Tsinan	1,166	1,034	2,200

	Males	Females	Total
Changchun	8,189	7,563	15,752
Shanghai	15,787	10,790	26,577
Antung	5,683	5,576	11,259
Tsingtao	7,251	6,681	13,932
Canton	226	194	420
Amoy	160	154	314
Fuchou	146	163	309
Newchuang	4,783	4,428	9,211
Swatou	78	88	166
Siam	179	105	284
French Indo-China	150	182	332
Netherlands India	3,168	1,706	4,874
Straits Settlements, Malay States and British N. Borneo	4,434	3,266	7,700
Hongkong	907	670	1,577
Singapore	2,374	1,099	3,473
Calcutta	195	148	343
Bombay	293	178	471
British Borneo & Sarawak...	4,904	3,575	8,479
Philippines	10,920	3,018	13,938
Manila	1,931	798	2,729

II. Europe

	Males	Females	Total
Total	2,369	623	2,992
District	Males	Females	Total
England	525	195	720
France	767	188	955
Germany	719	76	795
Italy	43	31	74
Switzerland	60	20	80
Belgium	53	20	73
Netherlands	16	9	25
U.S.S.R.	47	21	68

III. North America

	Males	Females	Total
Total	104,022	65,547	169,569
District	Males	Females	Total
U.S.A.	86,403	55,147	141,550
California N.	34,770	20,572	55,342
San Francisco	5,016	3,781	8,797
California S.	32,435	19,174	51,609
Los Angeles	22,200	12,511	34,711
Seattle	9,922	7,046	16,968
Portland	4,094	2,833	6,927
New York	1,789	475	2,264
Canada	13,845	8,661	22,506
Mexico	2,951	1,554	4,505
Panama	823	185	1,008

IV. South America

	Males	Females	Total
Total	57,656	40,381	98,037

District	Males	Females	Total
Brazil	42,707	33,781	76,488
Argentina	2,635	831	3,466
Peru	11,435	5,544	16,979
Bolivia	352	69	421
Chili	477	146	625

V. Africa

	Males	Females	Total
Total	57	29	86

VI. Oceania

	Males	Females	Total
Total	82,434	64,414	146,848
District	Males	Females	Total
Japanese Mandate	7,838	4,443	12,281
Australia	3,351	275	3,626
Hawaiian Islands	71,245	59,696	130,941
Honolulu	20,156	18,063	38,219

EXPATRIATION OF JAPANESE

Japan did not recognize till 1916 the expatriation of her sons or daughters who acquired foreign citizenship, excepting those females who married foreign subjects. The result was the Japanese who legally became American citizens, for example, still figured on Japanese census register so that they stood on the peculiar status of double nationality. This procedure was at last changed and the Law of Nationality was revised in Aug. 1916. The law

was further amended in December 1924 and the foreign countries to which the expatriation applies was designated to be, 1. U.S.A., 2. Argentina, 3. Brazil, 4. Canada, 5. Chili, 6. Peru. It may be noted that those American or Canadian-born Japanese boys not yet expatriated are still technically liable to the Japanese conscription law, so that the crux of "double nationality" question remains unsolved, as is also the case with the Prussian or French boys born in America.

CHAPTER VI

IMPERIAL COURT

(ALSO DECORATIONS, PEERS, ETC.)

Reigning Sovereign

His Imperial Majesty Hirohito, the 124th Emperor of Japan, and the first living son of the late Emperor Taisho born on April 29th, 1901; proclaimed Crown Prince Sept. 9th, 1902; appointed Captain of the Army and Lieutenant of the Navy in 1916; promoted to Lieut.-Colonel and Commander in 1923, and Colonel and Captain in 1925; visited Europe in 1921; appointed Regent in November, 1921, on account of the illness of his father Emperor Taisho; married Princess Nagako Jan. 26th, 1924; ascended the Throne Dec. 25th, 1926, on the death of Emperor Taisho; formally enthroned in Kyoto in November, 1928.

Nagako, the Empress, 1st daughter of the late Prince Kuni, born Mar. 6th, 1903.

Shigeko Teru-no-miya, 1st daughter of the Emperor, born Dec. 6th, 1925.

Kazuko Taka-no-miya, 3rd daughter of the Emperor, born Sept. 30th, 1929.

(Sachiko Hisa-no-miya, 2nd daughter of the Emperor, born Sept. 10th, 1927; died Mar. 8th, 1928).

Sadako, the Empress Dowager, born June 25th, 1884; 4th daughter of the late Prince Kujo, a noble of the first rank; married Emperor Taisho May 10th, 1900; widow Dec. 24th, 1926.

Brothers of the Emperor

Yasuhito, Chichibu-no-miya, 2nd son of Emperor Taisho, born June 25th, 1902; on his attaining majority in 1922, founded a new house by Imperial order; graduated from the Military Academy July, 1922; appointed Sub-Lieutenant Oct. the same year; promoted to Lieutenant '25 and then to Captain in Mar. '30; is attached to the

Imperial Guard Division. Went to England for study leaving Japan May 24, '25 and after studying at Oxford returned home Jan., 1927, owing to the demise of his father Emperor Taisho. Married Miss Setsuko Matsudaira, daughter of Tsuneo Matsudaira (then Ambassador to St. James' Court) Sept. 28, 1928. The Prince is Hon. President of the British Society and the Siamese Association, both in Tokyo and of the Japan Press Association; presided over the World Engineering Congress held in Tokyo in Oct.-Nov. 1929; is also an honorary member of the Ski Club of Great Britain, and a member of the Alpine Ski Club, the Swiss Alpine Club and the Alpine Club of England.

Nobuhito, Takamatsu-no-miya, 3rd son of Emperor Taisho, born Jan. 3rd, 1905; graduated from the Naval Academy May '24; appointed 2nd Sub-Lieutenant of Navy, Dec. '25; further studied at the Torpedo School ('25-26) the naval aviation institution at Kasumiga-ura ('27) and then at the Naval Gunnery School; is now 1st Sub-Lieutenant. The Prince married Princess Kikuko, daughter of the late Prince Yoshihisa Tokugawa Feb. 4, '30; started on a tour to Europe on Apr. 21, '30, accompanied by the Princess.

Takahito, Sumi-no-miya, 4th son of Emperor Taisho, born Dec. 2nd, 1915.

Daughters of Emperor Meiji Living

Masako, Princess Tsune (6th daughter of Emperor Meiji), married Prince Takeda Apr. 27th, 1908; widow '19.

Fusako, Princess Kane (7th daughter of Emperor Meiji), married Prince Kitashirakawa Apr. 29th, 1909; visited Europe '22; widow '23.

Nobuko, Princess Fumi (8th daughter of Emperor Meiji), married Prince

IMPERIAL HOUSES

Asaka May 9th, 1910.

Toshiko, Princess Yasu (9th daughter of Emperor Meiji), married Prince Higashi-Kuni May 18th, 1915.

Fushimi.—The oldest of the princely families, founded in the 14th century by a son of the 102nd Emperor Gohanzono Tenno.

Prince **Hiroyasu**, head, 22nd of the line, 1st son of late Prince Sadanaru, born Oct. 16th, 1875; studied at the Naval Academy and then in Germany and England; Vice-Adm. '17; full Adm. '22; War Councillor '20. The Prince is Hon. President of the Imperial Life Boat Ass'n, the Japan Seamen's Rescue Society, the Japan Fishery Ass'n, the Cancer Research Society, etc. Res. Kioi-cho, Koj. Tokyo.

Princess **Tsuneko**, consort, daughter of the last Shogun, born Sept. 23rd, '82; married Jan. 9th, '96.

Issue:—Four sons and three daughters.

Prince **Hiroyoshi**, 1st son of Prince Hiroyasu, born '97; is Lieut.-Commander of the Navy; married Princess Tokiko (daughter of Prince Ichijo), 1919.

Princess **Tokiko**, consort of the above, 2nd daughter of Prince Ichijo, born 1903.

Prince **Hironobu**, 3rd son of Prince Hiroyasu, born 1905, was ordered to set up a new house as Marquis Kwacho '26 by Emperor Taisho; graduated from the Naval Academy July, '25, and is now Sub-Lieutenant.

Prince **Kunika**, 2nd son of the late late Prince Sadanaru, born 1880. Res. Nakano, Tokyo.

Kan-in.—The House was founded by Prince Naohito (1703-52 A.D.), eldest son of the 114th Emperor. Prince **Kotohito**, head, 16th son of Prince Kuniye Fushimi, born Sept. 22nd, 1865; studied at the Military Preparatory School and then at a French Military School; Lieut.-General '05; Div. Commander, 1906; full General and Supreme War Councillor, '12; Marshal, '19; is Hon. President of the Japan Red Cross Society and the Japan Sericultural Ass'n, the Franco-Japanese Society, the Russo-Japanese Society, the Tokyo Geological Association, the Tokyo

Club, etc. Accompanied the Crown Prince (the present Emperor) to Europe in '21. Res. Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

Princess **Chiyeko**, consort, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Sanetomi Sanjo, born May 25th, 1872; married the Prince Dec. 19th, '91. The Princess is Hon. President of the Japan Women's Education Ass'n and the Red Cross Volunteer Nurses' Ass'n.

Issue:—A son and four daughters.

Prince **Haruhito**, 2nd son of Prince Kotohito, born Aug. 3rd, 1902; Sub-Lieutenant of Cavalry attached to the Guard Division; married Princess Naoko (daughter of the late Prince Saneteru Ichijo), July '26.

Princess **Naoko**, consort of the above, 4th daughter of the late Prince Saneteru Ichijo, born Nov. 7th, 1908; married the Prince July 14th, 1926.

Higashi-Fushimi.—The House was founded by the late Adm. Prince Yorihito, younger brother of Prince Sadanaru Fushimi and Kan-in, and 17th son of the late Prince Kuniye Fushimi. The Prince died heirless in 1922.

Dowager Princess **Kaneko**, 1st daughter of the late Prince Tomosada Iwakura, born Aug. 29th, 1876; married Feb. 1898. The Princess is Hon. President of the Ladies Patriotic Ass'n and the Japan Women's Hygiene Ass'n. Res. Tokiwamatsu, Shimoshibuya, Tokyo.

Prince **Kunihide**, adopted heir, 3rd son of the late Prince Kuniyoshi Kuni, born May 16th, 1910.

Yamashina.—Prince **Takehiko**, 3rd of the line, head, 1st son of the late Prince Kikumaro, born Feb. 13th, 1898; studied at the Naval Academy; attached to the Naval Aviation Corps as Sub-Lieutenant '21; Lieutenant and attached to the Naval Board of Command '25; retired from active service '27 owing to declined health. Married Princess Sakiko (died Sept. '23), 2nd daughter of the late Prince Kuniyoshi Kaya.

Dowager Princess **Hisako**, mother of the above, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Tadayoshi Shimazu, born Feb. 7th, 1874; married the late Prince Kikumaro Nov. 26th, 1902; widow '08.

Res. Fujimi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

Kaya.—Prince **Tsunenori**, 2nd of the line, head, 1st son of the late Prince Kuninori, born Jan. 27th, 1900; grad. from the Army Cadets School '21 and the Military Staff College '26; is Captain of Cavalry attached to the General Staff Office; married Princess Toshiko '21. Res. Ichiban-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

Princess **Toshiko**, consort, 5th daughter of Prince Kujo, born May 26th, 1903.

Issue:—Two sons and a daughter.

Dowager Princess **Yoshiko**, eldest daughter of the late Marquis Daigo, born Oct. 20th, 1865; married the late Prince Kuninori '92; widow 1910.

Kuni.—Prince **Asa-akira**, head, 3rd of the line, head, eldest son of the late Marshal Prince Kuniyoshi, born Feb. 2nd, 1900; studied at the Naval Academy; appointed Lieutenant 1928; married Princess Tomoko, daughter of Prince Hiroyasu Fushimi, Jan. 26th, 1925. Res. Shibuya, Tokyo.

Princess **Tomoko**, consort, 3rd daughter of H.L.H. Prince Hiroyasu Fushimi, born May 18th, 1906; married the Prince Jan. 26th, 1925.

Issue:—Two daughters.

Princess Dowager **Chikako**, consort of the late Prince Kuniyoshi and the mother of the Empress, 7th daughter of the late Prince Tadayoshi Shimazu; born Oct. 19th, 1879; married Dec. 13th, 1899; visited Europe 1909; widow Jan., 1929. Res. Shibuya, Tokyo.

Prince **Taka**, 5th son of the late Prince Asahiko; was born 1875 in Kyoto; Acting Grand Custodian of the Great Shrine of Ise; married in 1905 Lady Shizuko, daughter of Viscount Minase. Res. Kyoto.

Issue:—Three sons and three daughters.

Nashimoto.—Prince **Morimasa**, 2nd of the line, General and Supreme War Councillor; 4th son of the late Prince Asahiko; born Mar. 9th, 1874. The Prince studied at a French military academy '03-04 and again in '07-08; took part in the Japan-Russian war ('04-05); full General '23; then Supreme War Councillor; is Hon. President of the Franco-Japanese Society, the Japan Agricultural Ass'n., the Japan Forestry Ass'n., the Italian Society,

etc. Res. Aoyama Kita-machi, Tokyo.

Princess **Itsuko**, consort, 2nd daughter of Marquis Nabeshima, born Feb. 2nd, 1882; married Nov. 28th, 1900; made tour in Europe '08-09.

Issue:—2 daughters; no heir.

Princess **Masako** (1st daughter) married in '20 Prince Yi Kon, younger brother of the late Prince Yi Chlok and Heir of the Royal House of Korea.

Kitashirakawa.—Prince **Nagahisa**, 4th of the line, eldest son of the late Prince Narihisa, born Feb. 19, 1910; succeeded to the title on the death of his father in Paris in 1923; is studying at the Army Cadets School. Has three sisters. Res. Takanawa, Tokyo.

Dowager Princess **Tomiko**, mother of the late Prince Narihisa, adopted daughter of the late Prince Hisamitsu Shimazu, born Aug. 8th, 1862; widow '95.

Dowager Princess **Fusako**, consort of the late Prince Narihisa, born 1890, 7th daughter of the Emperor Meiji.

Takeda.—The House was newly created Mar. 30th, 1906, by the late Prince Tsunehisa (died in '03), eldest son of the late Prince Yoshihisa Kitashirakawa. Prince **Tsuneyoshi**, 2nd of the line, eldest son of the late Prince Tsunehisa, born in 1909; is studying at the Army Cadets School. Res. Takanawa Minami-cho, Tokyo.

Dowager Princess **Masako**, 6th daughter of the late Emperor Meiji, born Sept. 1888; married the late Prince Tsunehisa in 1903; widow '19. The Princess is Hon. President of the Tokyo Charity Association.

Asaka.—Prince **Yasuhiko**, Major-General; born '87, 8th son of the late Prince Kuni, the House having been newly created Mar. 30th, '06; married Princess Nobuko 1909; stayed in France for military study; is an Instructor in the Military Staff College. Res. Takanawa Minami-cho, Tokyo.

Princess **Nobuko**, consort, 8th daughter of the Emperor Meiji, born Aug. 7th, 1891; visited Europe and U.S.A. '25.

Issue:—Two sons and two daughters.

Higashi-Kuni.—Prince **Naruhiko**, Major-General, 9th son of the late Prince Kuni, born '87. Was ordered by Emperor Meiji to set up the House Nov. 2nd, '06; married Princess

Toshiko May, 1915; stayed in France for study '20-26; is Commander of the 5th Infantry Brigade (Nagoya) since Aug. '30.

Princess Toshiko, consort, youngest daughter of the Emperor Meiji, born May 11th, 1896.

Issue:—Three sons.
Res. Ichibel-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo.
Masako.

Royal House of Korea

Yi, the former royal family of Korea. Prince Gin, head, brother of Prince Chlok, the late head of the house, born Oct. 20th, 1897. Grad. from the Military Academy; Captain of Infantry and attached to the General Staff Office; married Princess Masako 1920; visited Europe 1927 for study and

observation, accompanied by Princess Masako. Res. Roppongi, Azabu-ku, Tokyo.

Princess Masako, consort of the above, 1st daughter of Prince Nashimoto, born Nov. 4th, 1901.

Princess Im, consort of the late Prince Yi, born Sept. 19, 1894; widow in 1926. Res. Seoul, Chosen.

Princess Tokukei, sister to the head, born May 25th, 1912. Res. Roppongi, Azabu, Tokyo.

Prince Yi Kang, 5th son of the late Grand Prince Yi and elder brother to the head, born Mar. 30th, 1877; married Lady Kim Dec. 1893; is attached to the Chosen Army Headquarters. Res. Seoul, Chosen.

Issue:—Two sons.

THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

(Promulgated Feb. 11, 1889).

Chapter I. Succession to the Imperial Throne

Art. I.—The Imperial Throne of Japan shall be succeeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors.

Art. II.—The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest son.

Art. III.—When there is no Imperial eldest son, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest grandson. When there is neither Imperial eldest son nor any male descendant of his, it shall be succeeded to by the Imperial son next in age, and so on in every successive case.

Art. IV.—For succession to the Imperial Throne by an Imperial descendant, the one of full blood shall have precedence over descendants of half blood. The succession to the Imperial Throne by the latter shall be limited to those cases only in which there is no Imperial descendant of full blood.

Art. V.—When there is no Imperial descendant, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial brother and by his descendants.

Art. VI.—When there is no such Imperial brother or descendant of his,

the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial uncle and his descendants.

Art. VII.—When there is neither such Imperial uncle nor descendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the next nearest member among the rest of the Imperial Family.

Art. VIII.—Among the Imperial brothers and the remoter Imperial relations, precedence shall be given, in the same degree, to the descendants of full blood, and to the elder over the younger.

Art. IX.—When the Imperial heir is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists, the order of succession may be changed in accordance with the foregoing provisions, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

Chapter II. Ascension and Coronation

Art. X.—Upon the demise of the Emperor, the Imperial heir shall ascend the Throne and shall acquire the Divine Treasures of the Imperial Ancestors.

Art. XI.—The ceremonies of Coronation shall be performed and a Grand

Coronation Banquet (Daijosai) shall be held at Kyoto.

Art. XII.—Upon an ascension to the Throne, a new era shall be inaugurated, and the name of it shall remain unchanged during the whole reign in agreement with the established rule of the 1st year of Meiji.

Chapter III. Majority, Institution of Empress and of Heir-Apparent

Art. XIII.—The Emperor, the Kotalshi, and the Kotalson shall attain their majority at eighteen full years of age.

Art. XIV.—Members of the Imperial Family, other than those mentioned in the preceding article, shall attain their majority at twenty full years of age.

Art. XV.—The son of the Emperor who is Heir-apparent, shall be called "Kotalshi." In case there is no Kotalshi, the Imperial grandson who is Heir-apparent shall be called "Kotalson."

Art. XVI.—The Institution of Empress and that of Kotalshi or of Kotalson shall be proclaimed by an Imperial Rescript.

Chapter IV. Styles of Address

Art. XVII.—The style of address for the Emperor, the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager, and of the Empress shall be "His," or "Her," or "Your Majesty."

Art. XVIII.—The Kotalshi and his consort, the Kotalson and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, and the princesses shall be styled "His," "Her," "Their," or "Your Highness" or "Highnesses."

Chapter V. Regency

Art. XIX.—When the Emperor is a minor a Regency shall be instituted. When he is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing, a Regency shall be instituted, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

Art. XX.—The Regency shall be assumed by the Kotalshi or the Kotalson, being of full age of majority.

Art. XXI.—When there is neither Kotalshi nor Kotalson, or when the Kotalshi or Kotalson has not yet arrived at his majority, the Regency shall be assumed in the following order:—

1. An Imperial Prince or a Prince.
2. The Empress.
3. The Empress Dowager.
4. The Grand Empress Dowager.
5. An Imperial Princess or a Princess.

Art. XXII.—In case the Regency shall be assumed from among the male members of the Imperial Family, it shall be done in agreement with the order of succession to the Imperial Throne. The same shall apply to the case of female members of the Imperial Family.

Art. XXIII.—A female member of the Imperial Family chosen to assume the Regency shall be exclusively one who has no consort.

Art. XXIV.—When, on account of the minority of the nearest related member of the Imperial Family, or for some other cause, another member has to assume the Regency, the latter shall not, upon the arrival at majority of the above mentioned nearest related member, or upon the disappearance of the aforesaid cause, resign his or her post in favour of any person other than of the Kotalshi or of the Kotalson.

Art. XXV.—When a Regent or one who should become such, is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists therefor, the order of the Regency may be changed, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

Chapter VI. The Imperial Governor

Art. XXVI.—When the Emperor is a minor, an Imperial Governor shall be appointed to take charge of his bringing up and of his education.

Art. XXVII.—In case no Imperial Governor has been nominated in the will of the preceding Emperor, the Regent shall appoint one, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

Art. XXVIII.—Neither the Regent nor

any of his descendants can be appointed Imperial Governor.

Art. XXIX.—The Imperial Governor can not be removed from his post by the Regent, unless upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council and upon that of the Privy Council.

Chapter VII. The Imperial Family

Art. XXX.—The term "Imperial Family" shall include the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager, the Empress, the Kotoishi and his consort, the Kotoison and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, the Imperial Princesses, the Princesses and their consorts, and the Princesses.

Art. XXXI.—From Imperial sons to Imperial great-grand-sons, Imperial male descendants shall be called Imperial Princes; and from Imperial daughters to Imperial great-grand-daughters Imperial female descendants shall be called Imperial Princesses. From the fifth generation downwards, male descendants shall be called Prince and females Princesses.

Art. XXXII.—When the Imperial Throne is succeeded to by a member of a branch line, the title of Imperial Prince or Imperial Princess shall be specially granted to the Imperial brothers and sisters, being already Princes or Princesses.

Art. XXXIII.—The birth, namings, marriages, and deaths in the Imperial Family shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

Art. XXXIV.—Genealogical and other records relating to the matters mentioned in the preceding Article shall be kept in the Imperial archives.

Art. XXXV.—The members of the Imperial Family shall be under the control of the Emperor.

Art. XXXVI.—When a Regency is instituted, the Regent shall exercise the power of control referred to in the preceding Article.

Art. XXXVII.—When a member, male or female, of the Imperial family is a minor and has been bereft of his or her father, the officials of the Imperial Court shall be ordered to take charge of his or her bringing up and education. In certain circumstances,

the Emperor may either approve the guardian chosen by his or her parent, or may nominate one.

Art. XXXVIII.—The guardian of a member of the Imperial Family must be himself a member thereof and of age.

Art. XXXIX.—Marriages of members of the Imperial Family shall be restricted to the circle of the Family, or to certain noble families specially approved by Imperial Order.

Art. XL.—Marriages of the members of the Imperial Family shall be subject to the sanction of the Emperor.

Art. XLI.—The Imperial writs sanctioning the marriages of the members of the Imperial Family, shall bear the countersignature of the Minister of the Imperial Household.

Art. XLII.—No member of the Imperial Family can adopt any one as his son.

Art. XLIII.—When a member of the Imperial Family wishes to travel beyond the boundaries of the Empire, he shall first obtain the sanction of the Emperor.

Art. XLIV.—A female member of the Imperial Family, who has married a subject, shall be excluded from membership of the Imperial Family. However, she may be allowed, by the special grace of the Emperor, to retain her title of Imperial Princess or Princess, as the case may be.

Chapter VIII. Imperial Hereditary Estates

Art. XLV.—No landed or other property, that has been fixed as the Imperial Hereditary Estates, shall be divided up and alienated.

Art. XLVI.—The landed or other property to be included in the Imperial Hereditary Estates shall be settled by Imperial writ with the advice of the Privy Council, and shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

Chapter IX. Expenditures of the Imperial House

Art. XLVII.—The expenditures of the Imperial House of all kinds shall be

defrayed out of the National Treasury at a certain fixed amount.

Art. XLVIII.—The estimates and audit of accounts of the expenditures of the Imperial House and all other rules of the kind, shall be regulated by the Finance Regulations of the Imperial House.

Chapter X. Litigations, Disciplinary Rules for the Members of the Imperial Family

Art. XLIX.—Litigation between members of the Imperial Family shall be decided by judicial functionaries specially designed by the Emperor to the Department of the Imperial Household, and execution issued after Imperial sanction thereto has been obtained.

Art. L.—Civil actions brought by private individuals against members of the Imperial Family, shall be decided in the Court of Appeal in Tokyo. Members of the Imperial Family shall, however, be represented by attorneys, and no personal attendance in the Court shall be required of them.

Art. LI.—No members of the Imperial Family can be arrested, or summoned before a Court of Law, unless the sanction of the Emperor has been first obtained thereto.

Art. LII.—When a member of the Imperial Family has committed an act derogatory to his (or her) dignity, or when he has exhibited disloyalty to the Imperial House, he shall, by way of disciplinary punishment and by order of the Emperor, be deprived of the whole or a part of the privileges belonging to him as a member of the Imperial Family, or shall be suspended therefrom.

Art. LIII.—When a member of the Imperial Family acts in a way tending to the squandering of his (or her) property, he shall be pronounced incapable by the Emperor, prohibited from administering his property, and a manager shall be appointed therefor.

Art. LIV.—The two foregoing Articles shall be enforced upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council.

Chapter XI. The Imperial Family Council

Art. LV.—The Imperial Family Coun-

cil shall be composed of, the male members of the Imperial Family, who have reached the age of majority. The Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, the President of the Privy Council, the Minister of the Imperial Household, the Minister of State for Justice, and the President of the Court of Cassation shall be ordered to take part in the deliberations of the Council.

Art. LVI.—The Emperor personally presides over the meetings of the Imperial Family Council, or directs one of the members of the Imperial Family to do so.

Chapter XII.—Supplementary Rules

Art. LVII.—Those of the present members of the Imperial Family of the fifth generation and downwards, who have already been invested with the title of Imperial Prince, shall retain the same as heretofore.

Art. LVIII.—The order of succession to the Imperial Throne shall in every case relate to the descendants of direct lineage. There shall be no admission to this line of succession to any one, as a consequence of his now being an adopted Imperial son, Koyushi or heir to a princely house.

Art. LIX.—The grades of rank among the Imperial Princes and Princesses shall be abolished.

Art. LX.—The family rank of Imperial Princes and all usages conflicting with the present law shall be abolished.

Art. LXI.—The property, annual expenses, and all other rules concerning the members of the Imperial Family, shall be specially determined.

Art. LXII.—When in the future it shall become necessary either to amend or make addition to the present law, the matter shall be decided by the Emperor, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

Additional Rules

(Promulgated Feb. 11, 1907)

Art. I.—The princes may be created peers, either by order of the Emperor or at their own wishes, with family names to be granted by the Emperor.

Art. II.—The Princes may, with the sanction of the Emperor, become heirs of peers or be adopted as their sons with a view to becoming their heirs.

Art. III.—The consorts, lineal descendants and their wives, of the Princes who have been excluded from membership of the Imperial Family for the reason stated in the two foregoing Articles are also excluded from membership of the Imperial Family as members of the families of the Princes who have become subjects. The rule does not, however, apply to those female members of the Imperial Family who have married other members of the Imperial Family or their lineal descendants.

Art. IV.—A member of the Imperial Family, who has been deprived of the privileges belonging to him as a member of the Imperial Family, may be excluded from membership of the Imperial Family and placed in the rank of subjects by order of the Emperor. The consort of a member of the Imperial Family who has been excluded from membership of the Imperial Family and placed in the rank of subjects in accordance with the foregoing Article is also excluded from membership of the Imperial Family and placed in the rank of subjects.

Art. V.—In the cases mentioned in Arts. I, II and IV (of the present additional rules), the matter shall be

THE IMPERIAL PROPERTY LAW

The Law as gazetted in December 1910 and put in force in January 1911 provides that the land and other property belonging to the Emperor is divided into hereditary and personal property, and that for all the judicial proceedings affecting the property the Minister of the Imperial Household is held responsible. The ordinary civil or commercial law is applicable to the property only when it does not conflict with the Imperial House Law and the present law. No hereditary landed estate can be newly used for any other

PROPERTY OWNED BY IMPERIAL COURT

The Court owned as in January, 1927, 1,397,656 cho (about 3,800,000 acres) of building land, forests and plains, and other landed property, altogether

decided with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and that of the Privy Council.

Art. VI.—Those members of the Imperial Family, who have been excluded from membership of the Imperial Family, can not be reinstated as members of the Imperial Family.

Art. VII.—Regulations pertaining to the legal status of the members of the Imperial Family and the limits of their competence, other than those provided for elsewhere in the present law, shall be defined separately. Regarding the affairs in which are involved the interests of a member of the Imperial Family and a subject or subjects and in which different regulations apply to the respective parties, such regulations shall apply.

Art. VIII.—Those provisions of laws and ordinances designated as applicable to the members of the Imperial Family shall apply to them only in cases where no particular regulations are specifically provided for in the present law or such regulations as are issued in accordance with the present law.

Additional Rule

(Promulgated Nov. 28, 1908)

A female member of the Imperial Family can marry a male member of Ozoku or Kozoku (former Royal Family of Korea).

purpose except those of public utility, or undertakings sanctioned by the Emperor. The property of the members of the Imperial House is subject to levy when it does not conflict with the Imperial House Law or the present law. However, this does not apply to the estates belonging to the Grand Empress Dowager, Empress Dowager, Empress, Heir Apparent, his consort, eldest son and that son's consort, and other unmarried members of the Imperial Family who have not yet attained their majority.

valued at over ¥637,234,000. There were besides buildings, household effects and furniture, cattle and other items, the two making a sum of about ¥720,000,000. Then the Court owns shares of the Bank of Japan, the Yokohama Specie Bank, the Industrial Bank of Japan, the Formosan Bank, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, and many other kinds including Imperial Hotel shares, all these coming up to hundreds of millions of yen. In consideration of the food question and so forth several years ago the Court decided to sell or otherwise transfer to private or public ownership part of the Imperial estates, and in Aug. 1921, such transfer was

made to the extent of 118,065 cho of land and forest, about 36.6% of the total area of the hereditary estates, which was returned as 216,043 cho at the end of 1929.

In August 1930 the Court decided to discontinue the detached palace at Nagoya and Imperial villas at Muko, Odawara, Atami, Shizuoka, Hakone and Kamakura to economise the expenditure required for their maintenance. The Nagoya palace was presented to Nagoya city.

The civil list that had long remained stationary at ¥3 millions was increased to 4½ millions in 1910.

DECORATIONS

Eight kinds exist, namely the Grand Cordon and the Grand Order of Chrysanthemum granted only to holders of the Grand Order of Merit, the Grand Cordon of Rising Sun and Paulownia granted to holders of 1st Order of Merit, Order of Rising Sun (1st-8th grade), Order of the Sacred Treasure (1st-8th grade), Order of the Crown (1st-8th grade and only for women), Order of Paulownia (1st-8th grade), and lastly the military Order of Golden Kite (1st-7th grade). The Collar of Chrysanthemum is specially granted to the holders of the Grand Order of Merit.

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

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

cause of public utility; the Green-ribbon medals conferred on those distinguished for filial piety, and the Red-ribbon medals conferred on those who rescue human lives at the peril of their own.

The Collar of Chrysanthemum, Grand Order of Merit and Grand Cordon of Chrysanthemum, the highest honor accessible to Japanese, have been granted to the following personages exclusive of Imperial Princes and mentioning only those who are alive:—

Prince Saionji; Fleet Admiral Count Togo (Grand Order of Merit & Collar of Chrysanthemum); Admiral Count Yamamoto (Grand Order of Merit & Grand Cordon of Chrysanthemum).

The holders of the 1st class golden kite order, who are alive, are:—

Fleet Admiral Count Togo; Admiral Count Yamamoto; General Baron N. OI.

Number of Decorations and Holders thereof

Order of Merit	Chry- sum	Paulow- nia	Rising Sun	Sacred Treasure	Crown	Golden Kite	No. of Holders
G.C.	—	—	—	—	—	—	3
C.	16	42	—	—	—	—	45
1st	—	—	118	198	20	4	312
2nd	—	—	358	863	17	35	938
3rd	—	—	835	5,869	3	247	5,860
Total with lower grade	19	42	704,913	515,132	2,047	63,880	1,201,562

G.C.—Grand Cordons with Collar. C.—Grand Cordon.

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

THE PEERAGE AND RANKS

Though the Peerage as a distinct social rank dates only from 1884, it practically existed from ancient times, courtiers or Kuge and feudal princes or Daimyo of olden days corresponding to the Peers of today. The Peerage is divided into five grades, viz. Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount and Baron. There is no intermediate rank corresponding to the British baronetcy. By origin the Japanese Peers may be classified into four distinct groups, i.e., those who are descendants of the former courtiers or Kuge; descendants of the former Daimyo; those created Peers in recent times, and finally Korean Peers who were created after the annexation. The number of Peers as at the end of 1929 was as follows:—

Prince 18, Marquis 40, Count 108, Viscount 379, Baron 412; Total 957.

Note—Korean Peers are excluded here (vid. Chapter on Chosen).

Korean Peers.—In Oct. 1910, 67 distinguished Koreans including five members of the former Imperial family, were created Peers, i.e. 6 Marquises, 3 Counts, 22 Viscounts, and 45 Barons. The new Peers were given monetary grants.

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

Court Ranks.—These are called "ikai"

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

Posthumous Honors.—The peculiar custom of conferring posthumous honors still lingers in Japan though it was abolished years ago in China, the country of its origin. The idea is based on the principle of ancestor-worship. Theoretically the honor is a parting gift to one on his death-bed, and is granted with this official announcement: "Promoted by one degree for special consideration." In most cases the honor is posthumous, as it usually comes after the death of the beneficiary and the Japanese of exalted rank have therefore two different dates of death, i.e. physiological dissolution and official death. What is still more interesting is that notable persons dead several centuries before are sometimes honored in this way. The granting of a peerage has also occasionally been posthumous, and a Barony that is conferred on a distinguished man on his death-bed or after his death, falls to his heir.

LIST OF EMPERORS IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER

Ankan	534	— 535	Fushimi	1288	—1298
Ankō	454	— 456	Gemmyo	708	— 715
Annei	548 B.C.	— 511 B.C.	Gensho	715	— 723
Antoku	1181	—1185	Go-Dalgo	1319	—1339
Bidatsu	572	— 585	Go-Enyū*	1372	—1382
Chokel	1368	—1383	Go-Fukakusa	1247	—1259
Chūai	192	— 200	Go-Fushimi	1299	—1301
Chūkyō	1222	—1222	Go-Hanazono	1429	—1464
Daigo	898	— 930	Go-Horikawa	1222	—1232
Enyū	970	— 984	Go-Ichijō	1017	—1036

Go-Kameyama	1383	—1392	Konoe	1142	—1155
Go-Kashiwabara	1501	—1562	Kōrei	290 B.C.	— 215 B.C.
Go-Kōgon*	1352	—1371	Kōshō	475 B.C.	— 393 B.C.
Go-Komatsu	1383	—1392	Kotoku	645	— 654
Go-Kōmyō	1644	—1412	Meiji	1868	—1912
Go-Mizuno-o	1612	—1629	Meisho	1630	—1643
Go-Momozono	1771	—1779	Mōmmu	697	— 707
Go-Murakami	1339	—1368	Momozono	1747	—1762
Go-Nara	1527	—1557	Montoku	851	— 858
Go-Nijō	1302	—1308	Murakami	947	— 967
Go-Reizei	1046	—1068	Muretsu	499	— 506
Go-Saga	1243	—1246	Nakanomikado	1710	—1735
Go-Salin	1655	—1663	Nijō	1159	—1165
Go-Sakuramachi	1763	—1770	Nimmyō	834	— 850
Go-Sanjō	1069	—1073	Ninken	488	— 498
Go-Shirakawa	1156	—1158	Ninkō	1817	—1846
Go-Shujaku	1037	—1045	Nintoku	313	— 399
Go-Toba	1186	—1198	Ogimachi	1558	—1586
Go-Tsuhimikado	1465	—1500	ōjin	270	— 310
Go-Uda	1275	—1287	Reigen	1663	—1686
Go-Yozei	1587	—1611	Reizei	968	— 969
Hanazono	1308	—1318	Richū	400	— 405
Hansel	406	— 411	Rokujō	1166	—1168
Heizei	806	— 809	Saga	810	— 823
Higashiyama	1687	—1709	Saimei	655	— 661
Horikawa	1087	—1107	Sakuramachi	1736	—1747
Ichijō	987	—1011	Sanjō	1012	—1015
Ingyō	412	— 453	Selmu	131	— 190
Itoku	510 B.C.	— 477 B.C.	Selwa	480	— 484
Jimmu	660 B.C.	— 585 B.C.	Senka	859	— 876
Jingu Kogo	201	— 269	Shenka	536	— 539
Jito	690	— 696	Shijō	1233	—1242
Jomei	629	— 641	Shirakawa	1073	—1086
Junna	824	— 833	Shōkō	1411	—1428
Junnin	758	— 764	Shōmu	724	— 748
Juntoku	1211	—1221	Shotoku	765	— 770
Kaika	157 B.C.	— 98 B.C.	Shukō*	1349	—1352
Kameyama	1260	—1274	Shujaku	931	— 946
Kammu	782	— 806	Suiko	593	— 628
Kazan	985	— 986	Suinin	29 B.C.	— 70 A.D.
Keikō	71	— 130	Suisel	581 B.C.	— 549 B.C.
Kensō	485	— 487	Sujin	97 B.C.	— 30 B.C.
Keitai	507	— 531	Sushun	588	— 592
Kimmei	540	— 571	Sutoku	1124	—1141
Kōan	392 B.C.	— 291 B.C.	Taisho	1912	—1926
Kōbun	672	— 672	Takakura	1169	—1180
Kōgen	214 B.C.	— 158 B.C.	Temmu	673	— 686
Kogyoku	642	— 645	Tenchi	668	— 671
Kōgon*	1332	—1335	Toba	1108	—1123
Kōkaku	1780	—1817	Tsuhimikado	1199	—1210
Koken	749	— 758	Tsunuzashi	484	— 484
Kōkō	885	— 887	Uda	888	— 897
Kōmei	1847	—1866	Yōmei	586	— 587
Kōmyō	1336	—1348	Yōzei	776	— 884
Kōnin	770	— 781	Yūryaku	457	— 459

The names printed in black are female Mikados, and those marked with an asterisk denote the sovereigns of the Northern dynasty (see P. 36). The reigns that fall before the Christian era are marked B.C.

LIST OF JAPANESE "YEAR-NAMES"

An-el	1772	Chō-shō	1132	En-kyō	1744	Hō-ki	770
安永	1781	長宗	1135	延享	1748	寶龜	781
An-gen	1175	Chō-toku	995	En-kyū	1069	Hō-reki	1751
安元	1177	長徳	999	延久	1074	寶龜	1764
An-sei	1854	Chō-wa	1012	En-ō	1239	Hō-toku	1449
安政	1860	長和	1017	延應	1240	寶徳	1452
An-tei	1227	Dai-dō	806	En-ryaku	782	Ji-an	1021
安貞	1229	大同	810	延暦	806	治安	1024
An-wa	968	Dai-ei	1521	En-toku	1489	Jingo-keiun	767
安和	970	大永	1528	延徳	1492	神護聖雲	770
Bun-meī	1469	Dai-ji	1126	Gem-bun	1736	Jin-ki	724
文明	1487	大治	1131	元文	1741	神龜	729
Bun-pō	1317	Ei-chō	1096	Gen-chū	1384	Ji-reki	1065
文保	1319	永長	1097	元中	1393	治暦	1069
Bun-an	1444	Ei-en	987	Gen-ei	1118	Ji-shō	1177
文安	1449	永延	980	元永	1120	治承	1181
Bun-chū	1372	Ei-hō	1081	Gen-ji	1864	Jō-ei	1232
文中	1375	永保	1084	元治	1865	貞永	1233
Bun-ei	1264	Ei-ji	1141	Gen-kei	877	Jō-gen	976
文永	1275	永治	1142	元	885	貞元	978
Bun-ji	1185	Ei-kan	983	Gen-ki	1370	Jō-ji	1362
文治	1190	永觀	985	元龜	1573	貞治	1368
Bun-ka	1804	Ei-kyō	1429	Gen-kyō	1321	Jō-kan	859
文化	1818	永享	1441	元享	1324	貞觀	877
Bun-ki	1501	Ei-kyū	1113	Gen-kō	1331	Jō-kyō	1684
文久	1504	永久	1118	元弘	1334	貞享	1688
Bun-kyū	1861	Ei-man	1165	Gen-kyū	1204	Jō-ō	1222
文久	1863	永萬	1166	元久	1206	貞應	1224
Bun-ō	1260	Ei-nin	1293	Gen-na	1615	Jō-wa	1345
文應	1261	永仁	1299	元和	1624	貞和	1350
Bun-reki	1234	Ei-reki	1160	Gen-nin	1224	Ju-ei	1182
文應	1235	永觀	1161	元仁	1225	壽永	1185
Bun-roku	1592	Ei-roku	1558	Gen-ō	1319	Ka-ei	1848
文應	1596	永祿	1570	元應	1321	嘉永	1854
Bun-sei	1818	Ei-shō	1045	Gen-roku	1688	Ka-gen	1303
文政	1830	永享	1053	元祿	1704	嘉元	1306
Bun-shō	1466	Ei-shō	1504	Gen-ryaku	1184	Ka-hō	1094
文正	1467	永正	1621	元曆	1185	嘉保	1096
Bun-wa	1352	Ei-so	989	Gen-toku	1329	Ka-kei	1387
文和	1356	永祚	990	元徳	1331	嘉慶	1389
Chō-gen	1028	Ei-toku	1381	Haku-chi	650	Ka-kitsu	1441
長	1037	永徳	1384	白雉	655	嘉吉	1444
Chō-hō	999	Ei-wa	1375	Haku-hō	673	Kam-bun	1661
長保	1004	永和	1379	白鳳	686	寬文	1673
Chō-ji	1104	Em-bun	1356	Hei-ji	1150	Kam-pei	889
長治	1106	延文	1361	平治	1160	寬平	898
Chō-kan	1163	Em-pō	1673	Ho-an	1120	Kam-pō	1741
長寛	1165	延寶	1681	保安	1124	寬保	1744
Chō-kyō	1487	En-chō	1096	Hō-ei	1704	Kan-ei	1624
長享	1489	延長	1097	寶永	1711	寬永	1644
Chō-kyū	1040	En-gen	1336	Hō-en	1135	Kan-en	1748
長久	1044	延元	1340	保延	1141	寬延	1751
Chō-reki	1037	En-gi	901	Ho-gen	1156	Kan-gen	1243
長曆	1040	延喜	923	保元	1159	寬元	1247
Chō-roku	1457	En-kei	1308	Hō-ji	1247	Kan-ji	1087
長祿	1460	延慶	1311	寶治	1249	寬治	1094

Kan-ki	1229	Kō-an	1361	Mei-toku	1390	Shō-ji	1199
寬喜	1232	康安	1362	明德	1394	正治	1201
Kan-kō	1004	Kō-chō	1261	Mei-wa	1764	Shō-ka	1257
寬弘	1012	弘長	1264	明和	1772	正嘉	1259
Kan-nin	1017	Kō-ei	1342	Nim-pei	1151	Shō-kei	1332
寬仁	1021	康永	1345	仁平	1154	正慶	1333
Kan-ō	1350	Kō-gen	1256	Nin-an	1166	Shō-kyū	1219
寬應	1352	康元	1257	仁安	1169	家久	1222
Kan-sei	1789	Kō-hei	1058	Nin-ji	1240	Shō-ō	1288
寬政	1801	康平	1065	仁治	1243	正應	1293
Kan-shō	1460	Kō-hō	964	Nin-ju	851	Shō-ō	1652
寬正	1466	康保	968	仁壽	854	家應	1655
Kan-toku	1044	Kō-ji	1142	Nin-na	885	Shō-reki	990
寬徳	1046	康治	1144	仁和	889	正觀	995
Kan-wa	985	Kō-ji	1555	O-an	1368	Shō-reki	1077
寬和	987	弘治	1558	應安	1375	家曆	1081
Ka-ō	1169	Kō-koku	1340	O-chō	1311	Shō-tai	898
嘉應	1171	興國	1346	應長	1312	昌泰	904
Ka-reki	1326	Kō-ka	1844	O-ei	1394	Shō-toku	1097
嘉曆	1329	弘化	1848	應永	1428	家徳	1099
Ka-roku	1225	Kō-nin	810	O-hō	1161	Shō-toku	1711
嘉禄	1227	弘仁	824	應保	1163	正徳	1716
Ka-shō	1106	Kō-ō	1389	O-nin	1467	Shō-wa	834
嘉承	1108	康應	1390	應仁	1469	正和	848
Ka-shō	848	Kō-reki	1379	O-toku	1084	Shō-wa	1312
嘉祥	851	康曆	1381	應徳	1087	家和	1317
Ka-tei	1235	Kō-roku	1528	O-wa	961	Shō-wa	1926
嘉禎	1238	享祿	1532	應和	964	昭和	—
Kei-an	1648	Kō-shō	1455	Rei-ki	715	Shu-chō	686
慶安	1652	康正	1457	聖龜	717	朱鳥	701
Kei-chō	1596	Kō-toku	1452	Reki-nin	1238	Shu-jaku	672
慶長	1615	享徳	1455	曆仁	1239	朱雀	672
Kei-ō	1865	Kō-wa	1099	Reki-ō	1338	Tai-hō	701
慶應	1868	康和	1104	曆應	1342	大寶	704
Kei-un	704	Kō-wa	1381	Sai-kō	854	Tai-ka	645
慶雲	708	弘和	1384	齊衡	857	大化	650
Kem-bu	1334	Kyō-ho	1716	Shi-toku	1384	Tai-ji	1126
建武	1338	享保	1736	至徳	1387	大治	1131
Kem-po	1213	Kyō-toku	1452	Shō-an	1171	Tai-shō	1912
建保	1219	享徳	1455	家安	1175	大正	1926
Ken-chō	1249	Kyō-wa	1801	Shō-an	1299	Tem-bun	1532
建長	1256	享和	1804	正安	1302	天文	1555
Ken-ei	1206	Kyū-an	1145	Shō-chō	1428	Ten-kei	938
建永	1207	久安	1151	正長	1429	天慶	947
Ken-gen	1302	Kyū-ju	1154	Shō-chū	1324	Ten-an	857
乾元	1303	久壽	1156	正中	1326	天安	859
Ken-ji	1275	Man-en	1860	Shō-gen	1259	Ten-chō	824
建治	1278	萬延	1861	正元	1260	天長	834
Ken-kyū	1190	Man-ji	1658	Shō-gen	1207	Ten-ei	1110
建久	1199	萬治	1661	家元	1211	天水	1113
Ken-nin	1201	Man-ju	1024	Shō-hei	931	Ten-en	973
建仁	1204	萬壽	1028	家平	938	天延	976
Ken-ryaku	1211	Mei-ji	1868	Shō-hei	1346	Ten-gen	978
建暦	1213	明治	1912	正平	1370	天元	983
Ken-toku	1370	Mei-ō	1492	Shō-hō	1074	Ten-ji	1124
建徳	1372	明應	1501	家保	1077	天治	1126
Kō-an	1278	Mei-reki	1655	Shō-hō	1644	Ten-ju	1375
弘安	1288	明曆	1658	正保	1648	天授	1381

Ten-ki	1053	Tempyo-Jingo	765	Ten-shō	1131	Wadō	708
天喜	1058	天平神護	767	天家	1132	和銅	715
Tem-mei	1781	Tempyo-Shōhō	749	Ten-shō	1573	Yō-rō	717
天明	1789	天平勝寶	757	天正	1592	養老	724
Tem-pō	1830	Ten-nin	1108	Ten-toku	957	Yō-wa	1181
天保	1844	天仁	1110	天徳	961	養和	1182
Tem-puku	1233	Ten-ō	781	Ten-wa	1681		
天曆	1234	天應	782	天和	1684		
Tem-pyō	729	Ten-roku	970	Ten-yō	1144		
天平	749	天祿	973	天養	1145		
Tempyo-hōji	757	Ten-ryaku	947	Toku-ji	1306		
天平寶字	765	天曆	957	徳治	1308		

CHAPTER VII

POLITICS & LOCAL GOVERNMENT

I. THE CONSTITUTION

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

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

movement that the Government was forced to establish quasi-legislative institutions such as the "Genro-in" (Senate), a High Court of Justice named "Taishin-in," and an Assembly of Prefectural Governors to ask their opinion about establishing a national assembly.

The national assembly idea spread like a wild fire, and was even advocated by a member of the Council of State, Mr. (afterwards Marquis) Okuma, who on his own sole discretion planned to establish a national assembly in 1893. His scheme met with strong opposition from all his colleagues. About this time the Government had decided to sell its industrial undertaking in Hokkaido to a private firm, and this evoked bitter and vehement public criticism when it was exposed by Okuma. On the 12th of October, 1881, the Government annulled the sale and at the same time issued an Imperial Decree commanding the establishment of a national assembly in 1890. In March 1882, Mr. (later Prince) Ito and his suite were dispatched to Europe to study the political institutions in the West with a view to prepare a Constitution for Japan. The mission returned home in 1884. While Ito was in Europe, he spent most of his time in Prussia. After his return he exerted all his influence and made every effort to introduce a bureaucracy after the Prussian type into Japan and, under his guidance, a Bureau for the investigation of Constitutional System was established in 1884 as an office subjoined to the Imperial Household Department, to carry out the work of drafting a Constitution. In this grave task Ito was assisted principally by Takeshi Inouye, (afterwards Viscount and Minister of Education), Miyoji Ito (now Count and Privy Councillor), Kentaro Kaneko (now Viscount and

solve, Members shall be caused by Imperial Order to be newly elected, and the new House shall be convoked within five months from the day of dissolution.

Art. XLVI.—No debate can be opened and no vote can be taken in either House of the Imperial Diet, unless not less than one-third of the whole number of the Members thereof is present.

Art. XLVII.—Votes shall be taken in both Houses by absolute majority. In the case of a tie vote, the President shall have the casting vote.

Art. XLVIII.—The deliberations of both Houses shall be held in public. The deliberations may, however, upon demand of the Government or by resolution of the House, be held in secret sitting.

Art. XLIX.—Both Houses of the Imperial Diet may respectively present addresses to the Emperor.

Art. L.—Both Houses may receive petitions presented by subjects.

Art. LI.—Both Houses may enact, besides what is provided for in the present Constitution and in the Law of the Houses, rules necessary for the management of their internal affairs.

Art. LII.—No Member of either Houses shall be held responsible outside the respective Houses, for any opinion uttered or any vote given in the House. When, however, a Member himself has given publicity to his opinion by public speech, by documents in print or in writing or by any other similar means, he shall, in the matter, be amenable to the general law.

Art. LIII.—The Members of both Houses may, during the session, be free from arrest, unless with the consent of the House, except in cases of flagrant delicts, or of offences connected with a state of internal commotion or with a foreign trouble.

Art. LIV.—Ministers of State and the Delegates of the Government may, at any time, take a seat, and speak in either House.

Chapter IV.—The Ministers of State and the Privy Council

Art. LV.—The respective Ministers of State shall give their advice to the

Emperor, and be responsible for it.

All Laws, Imperial Ordinances, and Imperial Rescripts of whatever kind, that relate to the affairs of the State, require the countersignature of a Minister of State.

Art. LVI.—The Privy Council shall, in accordance with the provisions for the organization of the Privy Council, deliberate upon important matters of State, when they have been consulted by the Emperor.

Chapter V.—The Judicature

Art. LVII.—The Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor.

The organization of the Courts of Law shall be determined by law.

Art. LVIII.—The judges shall be appointed from among those who possess proper qualifications according to law.

No judge shall be deprived of his position, unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment.

Rules for disciplinary punishment shall be determined by law.

Art. LIX.—Trials and judgments of a Court shall be conducted publicly. When, however, there exists any fear that such publicity may be prejudicial to peace and order, or to the maintenance of public morality, the public trial may be suspended by provision of law or by the decision of the Court of Law.

Art. LX.—All matters that fall within the competency of a special Court shall be especially provided for by law.

Art. LXI.—No suit at law, which relates to rights alleged to have been infringed by the illegal measures of the executive authorities, and which shall come within the competency of the Court of Administrative Litigation especially established by law, shall be taken cognizance of by a Court of Law.

Chapter VI.—Finance

Art. LXII.—The imposition of a new tax or the modification of the rates (of an existing one) shall be determined by law.

However, all such administrative fees or other revenue having the nature of compensation shall not fall within the category of the above clause.

The raising of national loans and the contracting of other liabilities to the charge of the National Treasury, except those that are provided in the Budget, shall require the consent of the Imperial Diet.

Art. LXIII.—The taxes levied at present shall, in so far as they are not remodelled by new law, be collected according to the old system.

Art. LXIV.—The expenditure and revenue of the State require the consent of the Imperial Diet by means of an annual Budget.

Any and all expenditures overpassing the appropriations set forth in the Titles and Paragraphs of the Budget, or that are not provided for in the Budget, shall subsequently require the approbation of the Imperial Diet.

Art. LXV.—The Budget shall be first laid before the House of Representatives.

Art. LXVI.—The expenditures of the Imperial House shall be defrayed every year out of the National Treasury, according to the present fixed amount for the same, and shall not require the consent thereto of the Imperial Diet, except in case an increase thereof is found necessary.

Art. LXVII.—Those already fixed expenditures based by the Constitution upon the powers appertaining to the Emperor, and such expenditures as may have arisen by the effect of Law, or that appertain to the legal obligations of the Government, shall be neither rejected nor reduced by the Imperial Diet, without the concurrence of the Government.

Art. LXVIII.—In order to meet special requirements, the Government may ask the consent of the Imperial Diet to a certain amount as a Continuing Expenditure Fund, for a previously fixed number of years.

Art. LXIX.—In order to supply deficiencies, which are unavoidable, in the Budget and to meet requirements unprovided for in the same, a Reserve Fund shall be provided in the Budget.

Art. LXX.—When the Imperial Diet

cannot be convoked, owing to the external or internal condition of the country, in case of urgent need for the maintenance of public safety, the Government may take the necessary financial measures, by means of an Imperial Ordinance.

In the case mentioned in the preceding clause, the matter shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet at its next session, and its approbation shall be obtained thereto.

Art. LXXI.—When the Imperial Diet has not voted on the Budget, or when the Budget has not been brought into actual existence, the Government shall carry out the Budget of the preceding year.

Art. LXXII.—The final account of the expenditures and revenue of the State shall be verified and confirmed by the Board of Audit, and it shall be submitted by the Government to the Imperial Diet, together with the report of verification of the said Board.

The organization and competency of the Board of Audit shall be determined by law separately.

Chapter VII.—Supplementary Rules

Art. LXXIII.—When it has become necessary in future to amend the provisions of the present Constitution, a project to that effect shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet by Imperial Order.

In the above case, neither House can open the debate, unless at least two-thirds of the whole number of Members are present, and no amendment can be passed, unless a majority of at least two-thirds of the Members present is obtained.

Art. LXXIV.—No modification of the Imperial House Law shall be required to be submitted to the deliberation of the Imperial Diet.

No provision of the present Constitution can be modified by the Imperial House Law.

Art. LXXV.—No modification can be introduced into the Constitution, or into the Imperial House Law, during the time of a Regency.

Art. LXXVI.—Existing legal enactments, such as laws, regulations, or by whatever title they may be called,

shall, so far as they do not conflict with the present Constitution, continue in force.

All existing contracts or orders, that

entail obligations upon the Government and that are connected with Expenditure, shall come within the scope of Art. LXVII.

II. POLITICS

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

The Emperor

The legal status of the Emperor under the Constitution, if properly interpreted, does not much differ from that of any constitutional monarch, but his influence over the masses of the people in Japan is extraordinary and without parallel. Prince Ito, the chief framer of the Constitution, expounds the Constitutional status of the Emperor with a certain coloring of popular sentiments: "The sovereign power of reigning over and governing the State is inherited by the Emperor from his ancestors, and by him bequeathed to his posterity. All the different legislative as well as executive powers of State, by means of which he reigns over the country and governs the people, are united in the Most Exalted Personage, who holds in his hands, as it were, all the ramifying threads of the political life of the country, just as the brain in the human body is the primitive source of all mental activity manifested through the four limbs and different parts of the body." Thus in theory the Emperor is absolute, and the masses of the people in Japan believe him to be sacred and inviolable according to the letter of the Constitution. But in reality, he acts only by the advice of the Prime-Minister and occasionally by that of the Elder Statesmen. And constitutionally he is inviolable in the sense that "he can do no wrong." In fact, the power he actually exercises in practical politics is by no means greater than that of the King of Eng-

land, though his influence owing to the peculiar psychology of the people, is no doubt far greater than that of the British Crown, and plays the predominant part in Japanese politics.

In England, even the masses possess knowledge enough to be aware that for whatever the King does or says the Premier is responsible, whereas, in Japan the words of the Minister-President, if put into the mouth of the Emperor, become the words of the Emperor himself, thus investing them with a greater weight and dignity. They become the supreme authority of the land. Therefore, it not seldom happens that the Minister-President of Japan, when affairs are at a deadlock, tries by means of the name of the Emperor to evade his responsibility, or to overcome a strong opposition of the people to the Government, with the object of maintaining his office. It must be stated at the same time that such autocratic practices are no longer tolerated by the public opinion which has become distinctly democratic since the manhood suffrage.

The Privy Council

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

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

to Articles of the Constitution, the issuing of proclamations of the law of siege and of Imperial ordinances and all the matters relating to international treaties and pledges.

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

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

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

The most important power of the Privy Council is that of interpreting the Constitution. In 1927 and '28 three important cases were submitted to the

approval of the Privy Council. The disapproval of the Wakatsuki Government's Bank of Taiwan rescue measure in April '27 on constitutional ground caused its fall, while a similar proposal made by the succeeding Cabinet and the Peace Preservation emergency ordinance proposed in July '28 by the same Cabinet were both passed. The latest instance was a hot dispute raised in June 1929 that the phrase in the Kellogg anti-war pact, "in the names of their respective peoples," is not compatible with the Constitution.

The Cabinet

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

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

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

the Cabinet Ministers necessarily responsible to the Diet.

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

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

The Imperial Diet

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

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

Although, as far as outward appearances go, the members of the House of Peers occupy a better fortified position, for the House of Peers is not subject to dissolution as the House of Representatives is, yet in practice it is not the former, but the latter that the Cabinet regards with greater dread, holding it more aggressive and powerful, and more difficult to control. The fact is the 125 Imperial Nominees in the House of Peers are mostly ex-officials of government, who hold

their position on a life tenure, while the rest are aristocrats either by birth or by wealth. Hence their natural sympathy is always with the Cabinet Ministers independent of and irresponsible to the House of Representatives.

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

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

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

The Cabinet Ministers in Japan do not therefore formulate the policies of State in accordance with the political programmes which the parties supporting the Government may have laid down at the time of their election. It may even be said that the political parties in Japan have no definite programmes; they make no definite promises before election. They know well that they cannot make their promises good, even if they made them. The

Cabinet Ministers have practically an entirely free hand to formulate all policies of State, and even the government party usually accepts almost blindly whatever the Cabinet decides. Too often the government party is merely a convenient tool to the Cabinet for carrying its measures through the House of Representatives.

The Electoral System

The Election Law in Japan has a

Original	Elector		Candidate		No. of Members	Voters (in 1000)	No. of Members per Electoral district
	Age	Tax	Age	Tax			
1890	25	¥15	30	¥10	300	500	1-2
Revised							
1900	"	¥10	"	none	381	1,500	4-12
1920	"	¥3	"	"	464	2,860	1-3
1925	"	none	"	"	466	13,000	3-5

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

REVISED ELECTION LAW

The features of the revised election law are outlined as follows:

As shown above the result of the removal of the tax qualification has increased the number of those eligible to franchise to upward of 13,000,000 as against approximately 3,000,000 under the former system. Excluding from that figure those who are disqualified for franchise because of their receiving public or private relief or help towards a living on account of poverty, the number of those entitled to vote will come down to about 9,600,000.

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

Students; Teachers of primary schools; Shinto or Buddhist priests and

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

Important features in the original and revised Election Laws are shown below in a tabulated form.

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

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

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

said date in case circumstances necessitate. In case the members' term expires during the session of the House or within 25 days after the closing of the session a general election is to be held within 30 days after the lapse of 26 days from the date of the closing of the session.

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

Cost of Election:—The expense to be defrayed by a candidate is fixed at the rate of 40 sen for each franchise-holder, and the total amount of the expenses is fixed at the total number of the franchise-holders of the electoral districts divided by the number of the parliamentary members for the districts, the remainder being multiplied by 40 sen. The standard figure of the total number of voters divided by the number of members is estimated as between 25,000 and 30,000, and the amount of the election expenses is roughly estimated as between ¥12,000 and ¥15,000. The defrayal of the election expenses is to be in charge of chief election commissioners or those specially designated by chief election commissioners. When the amount of expenses of a candidate exceeds the maximum limit his election shall be void.

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

Penal Provisions:—The revised election law provides much heavier penalties for the violation of the law. Candidates who have infringed the law are punished with a fine of ¥2,000 or less or imprisonment with hard labor as the highest penalty, as against the maximum amount of fine of ¥500 and imprisonment without hard labor of the old law.

UPPER HOUSE REFORM

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

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

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

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

The highest tax paying members in the House shall be elected from among those paying direct national tax to the amount of ¥300 and upward in connection with landed property, industry or commerce, the age-limit for such members being fixed as 40 years and upwards. The number of such members for each prefecture is limited to 1 or 2, according to the size of population, the total number not exceeding 66.

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

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

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

THE "GENRO"

The "Genro" or so-called elder statesmen as a body has no constitutional status, but as surviving builders of the grand work of the Imperial rehabilitation half a century ago the Council of Genro was, until the beginning of 1922, an important institution in the political system of Japan, though with functions not legally formulated. It then consisted of four elder states-

men, Marshal Prince Yamagata, Prince Saionji, Marquis Matsukata and Marquis Okuma. The last mentioned had not often been present at its conclaves. The venerable title is now retained by Prince Saionji, the other three being no longer, and though the Prince is still held in great respect by politicians of all parties as one to be consulted on important questions of State age no longer allows him to take any active part.

THE POLITICAL PARTIES

The representative system of Japan dates from 1890, but the history of political parties is much earlier. The Jiyu-to (Liberals) was the first political party and was organized by the late Count Itagaki and his followers in 1880, to be followed two years later by the Kaishin-to (Progressives) formed by the late Marquis, then Count Okuma. Both upheld the cause of liberty and progress, the only difference being that the former were more radical. As an organ of conservative and bureaucratic element the Teisei-to (Imperialists) was created soon after, but for all the fostering care bestowed upon its growth, it failed to enlist any great support of the public and disappeared in 1884.

Hard and bitter was the campaign which the Liberals waged against bureaucrats and militarists who entrenched in their formidable stronghold, treated them with merciless severity. It was a critical moment in the history of Japan. Fortunately Japan had at that time an enlightened sovereign in Meiji Tenno who on the advice of the late Prince Ito, his most trusted counsellor, made a solemn pledge in 1881 to establish constitutional government within ten years. The heated and dangerous political agitation was thus diverted to the constructive work of preparation and training for the eagerly anticipated day. The history of our political parties from the convoking of the first Diet in 1890 to the formation of the 4th Ito Cabinet in 1900 may be summed up in a few words. In the first few years the Bureaucratic Government and political parties were almost irreconcilable; in the second stage, either

exhausted or tired of incessant strife, the two became more placable, effected some sort of understanding, and a partial coalition Cabinet was formed first by Ito with Itagaki's followers and next by Matsukata with Okuma's Kaishin-to (Progressives). The two trials failed miserably owing to the lurking suspicion which the bureaucratic and party adherents had retained towards each other. The two bureaucratic administrations that followed had only served to bring into alliance the followers of the two leaders to fight the bureaucratic government. The Opposition tactics worked with complete success in the House of Representatives though at the cost of inviting dissolution on each occasion. Then occurred an interesting episode in the constitutional history of Japan. The bureaucrats at the instance of Ito decided to recommend Okuma and Itagaki to the Throne to form their joint cabinet, and thus for the first time partymen were placed in the responsible position of conducting national administration. Before forming the Cabinet the two parties dissolved themselves and were brought together under a new standard named "Constitutional Party." The chairs of the ministries of Army and Navy were filled, as is the case even today, with prominent personages in the respective services, but otherwise the change was distinctly democratic. However this Cabinet could not last more than six months; it crumbled through the jealousy of the Liberal and Progressive elements for share of official power, the non-party holders of the two Service chairs fanning the friction.

Thus put to test and proved wanting

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

When on the demise of the great Meiji Tenno, who had naturally preferred the veteran statesmen as Ito and Yamagata to party leaders, the 3rd Katsura Ministry was formed with no particular following in the House, the partymen could no longer tolerate a bureaucratic régime. The "Save the Constitution" agitation burst out and the Government was overthrown. Thus after long waiting Okuma formed his 2nd Cabinet with his own followers. It had a powerful backing in the House, but after two years and a half it fell over the Election scandal affair. It was succeeded by a reactionary administration headed by Marshal Terauchi who was supported by the Seiyu-kai under Hara, the second largest party in the House. When the soldier-statesman had to resign owing to his growing unpopularity on account of the "Disgrace loans" and especially the "Rice riot" in August 1913, he with approval of the Genro recommended Hara as his successor. The Hara Cabinet was the first government under a commoner premier, and it looked as though the course of constitutional politics had regained a normal groove. He proved a consummate party leader, dissolved the House when the Opposition introduced the Manhood suffrage bill. The general election of May 1920 secured his party 282 seats out of the total 464. The untimely death of the veteran leader in Nov. 1921 by a boy-assassin's hand caused serious shaking to the stability of this predominant party, for Baron (now Mr.) Takahashi failed to command undivided devotion of the rank and file, and his cabinet lasted only six months owing to internal dissension. It was followed by the three transcendent cabinets of Adm. Kato, Adm. Count Yamamoto and Vis. Kiyoura. The formation of the last cabinet

caused an explosion of the smouldering flame of discontent between the faithful followers of the new Seiyu-kai chief and their opponents. The issue was whether the party should effect understanding with the Kiyoura government or whether to fight it on constitutional ground, and eventually those who declared in favor of the Government seceded on the eve of the general extraordinary election and organized their own party called Seiyu-honto, called "Honto" for short, while those who strenuously opposed this temporizing policy arranged some compromise with their former rivals the Kensei-kai the better to conduct the election contest against the common enemy the Ministerial Honto. By irony of fate the Ministerialists were defeated in the election and the Kiyoura Cabinet withdrew and was succeeded by the Kensei-kai-Seiyukai Coalition Cabinet as the 1st Kato (Viscount) Ministry. It speaks volume for the greatness of Hara as party leader that the sudden disappearance of his controlling hand from the Parliamentary stage caused serious dislocation not only of the Seiyu-kai but of the rivals the Kensei-kai. The loss of this trained pilot drove the Seiyu-kai seceders to the mortifying state of stray party, for though in numerical strength in the House they were next to the Kensei-kai but superior to the Honto, they were obliged to maintain the attitude of neutrality to both, if not a bit more friendly to the former than to the latter. The presence of this large anomalous party Honto was largely responsible for the kaleidoscope change that has marked the party politics of Japan recently. The 1st Kato (Vis.) Cabinet having been created from the temporary combination of the Kensei-kai and the Seiyu-kai to fight the super-party Kiyoura Cabinet, it was a foregone conclusion that as soon as its *raison d'être*, the overthrow of the Kiyoura Cabinet, disappeared it should collapse. This occurred in 1925 on the ostensible ground of difference of views over the reform taxation measure but really from the deeper cause of inherent rivalry between the two parties. With the formation of the 2nd Kato Cabinet in August 1925 with his own followers the Kensei-kai at last return-

ed to power after having patiently waited for a turn of fortune ten years. The death of Premier Kato after a short illness and the creation of another Kensei-kai Cabinet by Mr. Wakatsuki, his immediate lieutenant, did not particularly affect the status quo of the three leading parties, Kensei-kai, Honto and Seiyu-kai. The second remained as political waifs, to side at one time with the Ministerialists and then to renew reconciliation parleys with the former comrades the Seiyu-kai which was now led by General Baron Tanaka as successor of Mr. Takahashi. This abnormal phenomenon was at last dispelled when the Wakatsuki Government resigned over the Bank of Taiwan's Relief Measure which the Privy Council disapproved on constitutional ground and when Baron Tanaka as leader of the Seiyu-kai was ordered to form a ministry. The occasion served for the Kensei-kai and the Honto to effect formal combination and to organize a new party called "Rikken Minseitō" (Constitutional Democratic Party). In anticipation of the coming development some 22 M.P.s and other notables identified with the Honto went over to their original camp, but the Minseitō still outnumbered the rival party. The party composition of the House was thus clearly divided between the two main bodies, for the only minor groups worth mentioning were Mr. Muto's (President of Kanegafuchi Cotton Mill) eight or nine followers in the House styled Business-men's party, the temporarily organized Shinsai Club counting 26, and some 20 independents. Mr. Inukai's coterie having practically disappeared with his going over to the Seiyu-kai.

Mr. Tokonami once more took the public by surprise when he declared his resolution in Aug. 1928 to leave the Minseitō in order to form a third party, and this was carried into effect by the creation of Shinto Club with some 24 followers. The Minseitō's numerical strength in the House was reduced by so much and the Shinto Club now occupied the position of casting vote, but with his rejoining the Seiyu-kai in June 1929 his meteoric course has come to a halt. In consequence the Seiyu-kai has apparently secured absolute

majority in the House.

Proletarian Parties.—Amidst these ceaseless changes in the composition of the existing parties the rapid march of democratic movement and the enactment of the Manhood Suffrage Law in 1926 were signalized by the birth of several Proletarian parties as Shakai Minshu-to (Social Democratic Party upholding Fabian ideas), Rodo Nomintō (Labor Farmers Party), Nihon Nomintō (Japan Farmers Party), and Nihon Rono-to (Japan Labor Farmers Party). Their numerical strength in the national chamber counts as yet only eight reduced to seven owing to assassination of one member early in 1929, but they are expected to rise to a great power in near future. Of the four Proletarians the first organized by such intellectuals as Mr. Abe, formerly Prof. at Waseda, and Mr. Suzuki, President of the Federation of Japanese Laborers, overshadows the other sections in influence and though their following, about 75,000, may be less than that of some others, they are far more compact and well organized. The other Proletarians are fluctuating and may be broadly divided between those advocating extreme views tinged red and others standing midway between them and the Fabians. It should be noted that the Rodo Nomintō was ordered dissolution by the Home Minister in 1928 on the charge of holding communistic ideas and hence subversive of the national polity. They were even suspected of being more or less supported by the Russian Third International. The idea to bring the Proletarians exclusive of the Left group into a working body of federation have been repeatedly discussed, but it still remains in theory.

Seiyu-kai.—The creation of the Seiyu-kai by the late Prince Ito in 1900 forms a distinct chapter in the history of Japan's party politics, though the first Ministry under Ito did not last more than two years, for what with the opposition of Peers and militarists and next desertion of members of questionable loyalty, its power was weakened. Then in 1903 Ito had to exchange his post as leader for the Presidency of the Privy Council held by Prince Saionji, and the latter led the party till 1914. The chair was next filled

by Mr. Hara, and during the seven years of his leadership the Seiyu-kai reigned supreme, all too overwhelmingly. Naturally the masterful leader made himself an object of implacable hatred and unbounded dread to his political foe, this eventually costing him his life by a boy-assassin's dagger. From the untimely death of Hara on 4 Nov., '21 till the terrible split of the party in January '24 the history of the Seiyu-kai was one of repeated troubles and internal disintegration. The resignation of the leadership by Mr. Takahashi in 1925 in favor of Gen. Baron Tanaka somewhat improved the situation as it induced a number of the seceders to come back. On the fall of the Kensei-kai Cabinet in 1927 the Seiyu-kai came into power though the Party's strength in the House still fell below the Kensei-kai, and was brought practically to a tie by the general election of 1928. On the Seiyu-kai Ministry's resignation in June 1929, and the creation of Minsei-to Cabinet, Mr. Tokonami's anomalous group Shinsel Club was persuaded to join the Seiyu-kai, so that the latter has become apparently the largest party in the House. But the Party appears to be far from stable and settled internally, owing to the growing discontent against the Baron's erratic doings.

Minsei-to.—This is a party created in 1927 on the union of the Kensei-kai and the Honto, the former being historically composed of the followers of Okuma, Katsura, and Inukai. Katsura's party was called the Doshi-kai, and when the Prince died prematurely, the leadership of the party fell naturally upon Viscount Kato, a deputy leader. The party supported Marquis Okuma when he organized a Cabinet in 1914, and Viscount Kato was given the post of Minister of Foreign Affairs. In the general election that was held in 1915 under the Okuma Cabinet, the influence of the party almost swept the whole country. The name of the party was then changed to Kensei-kai. At the time of the downfall of the Okuma Ministry, in 1916, the Kensei-kai still held a majority in the House of Representatives, but in the general elections of 1917 and 1920, the party's strength was much reduced, and it had only 109 seats in the House at the beginning of the 45th session, to be still further

weakened during that session. In the general election of May 1924 the party profited from the desperate contest fought between the Seiyu-kai and its deserters the Honto, and came out relatively the strongest force in the House. Mr. Hamaguchi succeeded Mr. Wakatsuki as leader of the party in May 1927 and the latter and Mr. Tokonami, Honto leader, were appointed Advisers. Once again the ex-Honto leader was a political walf in June 1929. When the Tanaka Cabinet was about to resign and at last he was persuaded, with diminished following to join in July the Seiyu-kai where he now occupies a delicate position.

Tanaka Ministry

The resignation of the Wakatsuki Cabinet on April 18, 1927, over the Bank of Taiwan's Emergency Imperial Ordinance which the Privy Council rejected on the preceding day was followed by the formation on the 20th of the Seiyu-kai Government under General Baron Gi-ichi Tanaka, leader of the Seiyu-kai, the second largest political party in the House. On the occasion of the formal installation of the Cabinet the chair of Finance was filled by Mr. K. Takahashi, Home Affairs by Dr. Kisaburo Suzuki, Education by Mr. Chuzo Mitsuchi, and Communications by Mr. Kelsuke Mochizuki.

About one month after the creation Mr. Takahashi resigned and the vacated chair was filled by Mr. Mitsuchi, Education Minister, the latter post being given to Dr. Mizuno, formerly Home Minister in the Terauchi Ministry. In May 1928 Dr. Suzuki "resigned" at his own request, but really to placate those Independents who threatened to support the Opposition's non-confidence motion introduced about the same time, the Independents themselves entertaining bitter grievance against the Home Minister for his alleged interference in the latest general election. Mr. Mochizuki, Minister of Communications, was transferred as Dr. Suzuki's successor while Mr. Kuhara, a copper millionaire and personal friend of the Premier, was given the chair vacated by Mr. Mochizuki. Dr. Mizuno who was opposed to Mr. Kuhara's entry was obliged to resign and he was succeeded by Mr. Kazue

Hamaguchi or Minsei-to Ministry

The Tanaka Ministry, though steadily alienating the confidence of general public, seemed determined to cling to the post at all cost, but circumstances obliged them suddenly to resign, especially owing to the Privy Council's strong attitude concerning the "anti-war pact phrase" and the mysterious Mukden tragedy. On July 2 ('29) formal resignation was tendered and on the same day the new (Minsei-to) Cabinet was formed as follows:—

Premier	Yuko Hamaguchi, M.P.
Minister of Foreign Affairs.....	Baron Kijuro Shidehara, Mem. House of Peers.
Minister of Home Affairs.....	Kenzo Adachi, M.P.
Minister of Finance.....	Junnosuke Inouye, ex-Gov. Bank of Japan.
Minister of War.....	General Kazushige Ugaki.
Minister of Navy.....	Admiral Katora Takarabe.
Minister of Justice.....	Viscount Chifuyu Watanabe, Mem. House of Peers.
Minister of Education.....	Ichita Kohashi, M.P.*
Minister of Agr. & Forestry.....	Chuji Machida, M.P.
Minister of Com. & Industry.....	Magochi Tawara, M.P.
Minister of Communications.....	Matajiro Koizumi, M.P.
Minister of Railways.....	Tasuku Egi, Mem. House of Peers.
Minister of Overseas Affairs.....	Genji Matsuda, M.P.

*Mr. Kohashi resigned on Nov. 29, 1929 and was succeeded by Mr. Ryuzo Tanaka, M.P.

CABINET CHANGES SINCE 1885

It will be seen from the following table of cabinet changes since 1885 the bureaucratic statesmen monopolized the administration till the formation of the 1st Okuma Cabinet in June 1898. It was the first Cabinet organized along the party lines, but unfortunately it collapsed after a short existence from internal dissension of the two rival parties that had temporarily sunk their difference to uphold the common cause of party politics. Then followed the succession of Cabinets either purely bureaucratic or with a thin veneer of party element. Of the 16 administrations that were in power from the fall

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

Cabinet Changes Since 1885

Ministerial chairs	1st Ito Dec. 1885	Kuroda Apr. 1890	1st Yamagata Dec. 1890	1st Matsukata May 1901	2nd Ito Aug. 1892
Premier	Ito	Kuroda	Yamagata	Matsukata	Ito, Kuroda
Foreign	Inouye, Ito Okuma	Okuma	Aoki	Enomoto	Mutsu, Saionji

Ministerial chairs	1st Ito Dec. 1885	Kuroda Apr. 1889	1st Yamagata Dec. 1889	1st Matsukata May 1891	2nd Ito Aug. 1892
Home	Yamagata	{ Yamagata Matsukata Yamagata	{ Yamagata Saigo	{ Saigo Shinagawa Soyejima Matsukata Kono	{ Inouye Nomura Yoshikawa Itagaki
Finance	Matsukata	Matsukata	Matsukata	Matsukata	{ Watanabe Matsukata Watanabe
War	Oyama	Oyama	Oyama	Takashima	{ Oyama, Saigo Yamagata Oyama
Navy	{ Saigo, Oyama Saigo	Saigo	{ Saigo Kabuyama	Kabayama	Nire, Saigo
Justice	Yamada	Yamada	Yamada	{ Yamada Tanaka, Kono	{ Yamagata, Ito Yoshikawa
Education	Mori	{ Mori, Oyama Enomoto	Yoshikawa	{ Yoshikawa Okii	{ Kono Yoshikawa Inouye, Saionji
Agriculture & Commerce	{ Tani, Saigo Tani, Hijikata Kuroda	{ Enomoto Inouye Yamagata	Mutsu	{ Mutsu, Kono Sano	Goto, Enomoto
Com'tions	Enomoto	{ Enomoto Goto	Goto	Goto	Kuroda

(Continued)	2nd Matsukata Sept. 1896	3rd Ito Jan. 1898	1st Okuma June 1898	2nd Yamagata Nov. 1898	4th Ito Oct. 1900	1st Katsura June 1901
Premier	Matsukata	Ito	Okuma	Yamagata	Ito	Katsura
Foreign	Okuma Nishi	Nishi	Okuma	Aoki	Saionji Kato	Komura
Home	Kabayama	Yoshikawa	Itagaki	Saigo	Suyematsu	{ Utsumi Kodama Yoshikawa Kiyoura
Finance	Matsukata	Inouye	Matsuda	Matsuda	{ Watanabe Saionji	Sone
War	Takashima	Katsura	Katsura	Katsura	{ Katsura Kodama	Terauchi
Navy	Saigo	Saigo	Saigo	Yamamoto	Yamamoto	Yamamoto
Justice	Kiyoura	Sone	Ohigashi	Kiyoura	Kaneko	{ Kiyoura Hatano
Education	{ Hachisuka Hamao	{ Saionji Ioyama	{ Ozaki Inukai	Kabayama	Matsuda	{ Kikuchi Kodama
Agr. & C.	{ Enomoto Okuma Yamada	{ M. Ito Kaneko	Oishi	Sone	Hayashi	{ Hirata Kiyoura
Com'tions	Nomura	Suyematsu	Hayashi	Yoshikawa	Hoshi Hara	{ Yoshikawa Sone

(Continued)	1st Saionji June 1905	2nd Katsura July 1905	2nd Saionji Aug. 1911	3rd Katsura Dec. 1912	Yamamoto Feb. 1913	2nd Okuma April 1914
Premier	Saionji	Katsura	Saionji	Katsura	Yamamoto	Okuma
Foreign	{ Kato Hayashi	{ Katsura Komura	Saionji	Katsura	Makino	{ Kato Okuma Ishii Okuma Oura Okuma Ichiki
Home	Hara	Hirata	Hara	Oura	Hara	{ Wakatsuki Takeomi
Finance	{ Sakatani Matsuda	Katsura	T. Yamamoto	Wakatsuki	Takahashi	{ Oka Oshima Yashiro T. Kato
War	Terauchi	Terauchi	Ishimoto	Kigoshi	Kusunose	{ Matsuda Okuda
Navy	Saito	Saito	Saito	Saito	Saito	{ Ooka Okuda
Justice	{ Matsuda Senge	Okabe	Matsuda	Matsumuro	{ Matsuda Okuda	{ Ichiki Takata
Education	{ Saionji Makino	Komatsu- bara	{ Haseba Makino	Shibata	{ Ooka Okuda	{ Ooka Kono
Agr. & Com.	Matsuoka	Oura	Makino	Nakashoji	T. Yamamoto	{ Taketomi Minoura
Com'tions	{ I. Yamagata Hotta	S. Goto	Hayashi	S. Goto	Motoda	

(Continued)	Terauchi Oct. 1916	Hara Oct. 1918	Takahashi Nov. 1921	Kato(Admiral) June 1922	Yamamoto Sept. 1923	Kiyoura Jan. 1924
Premier	Terauchi	Hara	Takahashi	Kato	Yamamoto	Kiyoura
Home	Goto	Tokonami	Tokonami	Mizuno	Goto	Mizuno
Foreign	{ Terauchi Motono	{ Uchida Hara	Uchida	Uchida	{ Yamamoto Ijuin	Matsui
War	Oshima	{ Tanaka Yamanashi	Yamanashi	Yamanashi	Tanaka	Ugaki
Navy	Kato	Kato	Kato	{ Kato Takarabe	Takarabe	Murakami
Finance	Shoda	Takahashi	Takahashi	Ichiki	Inouye	Shoda
Justice	Matsumuro	Okii	Okii	Okano	Hiranuma	Suzuki
Education	Okada	Nakahashi	Nakahashi	Kamada	Okano	S. Egi
Agr. & Com.	Nakashoji	Yamamoto	Yamamoto	Arai	Den, Okano	Mayeda
Com'tions	Den	Noda	Noda	Mayeda	Inukai	Fujimura
Railways	—	Motoda	Motoda	Okii	Yamanouchi	Komatsu

(Continued)	Kato June 1924	2nd Kato Aug. 1925	Wakatsuki Jan. 1926	Tanaka Apr. 1927	Hamaguchi July 1929
Premier	Kato	Kato	Wakatsuki	Tanaka	Hamaguchi
Foreign	Shidehara	Shidehara	Shidehara	Tanaka	Hamaguchi
Home	Wakatsuki	Wakatsuki	{ Wakatsuki Hamaguchi	{ Suzuki Mochizuki	Shidehara Adachi
Finance	Hamaguchi	Hamaguchi	{ Hamaguchi Hayami Kataoka	{ Takahashi Mitsuchi	Inouye
War	Ugaki	Ugaki	Ugaki	Shirakawa	Ugaki
Navy	Takarabe	Takarabe	Takarabe	Okada	Takarabe
Justice	{ Yokota Ogawa	Egi	Egi	Hara	Watanabe
Education	Okada	Okada	Okada	{ Mitsuchi Mizuno Shoda	{ Kohashi R. Tanaka
(Agr. & Com. & Forestry)	Takahashi Okazaki	Hayami	{ Hayami Machida	Yamamoto	Machida
Com. & Industry	Noda	Kataoka	{ Kataoka Fujisawa	Nakahashi	Tawara
Com'tions	{ Inukai Adachi	Adachi	Adachi	{ Mochizuki Kubara	Koizumi
Railways	Sengoku	Sengoku	{ Sengoku Inouye	Ogawa	Y. Egi
Overseas	—	—	—	Tanaka	Matsuda

III. IMPERIAL DIET

The House of Peers

The House of Peers is composed of (a) Princes of the Blood; (b) Peers of the order of Princes and Marquises who are to sit in the House by virtue of their birthright when they attain the age of thirty; (c) Representatives of the Peers of the order of Counts, Viscounts and Barons, who are elected from among their respective orders; (d) Men of erudition or of distinguished services nominated by the Emperor; (e) Four members of the Imperial Academy elected from among the members thereof and nominated by the Emperor; (f) Representatives of the highest tax payers elected by means of mutual election from among the highest tax payers in each prefecture,

the number thereof being fixed as one or two for each prefecture. The number of members representing each of three inferior orders of the Peerage is fixed as 18 for Counts, 66 for Viscounts and 66 for Barons. (Further details are given elsewhere in this chapter.—Ed. J. Y. B.)

The House was composed, on April 21, 1930, on the occasion of the convocation of the 58th session, as follows:

Princes of Blood	16
Princes	13
Marquises	30
Counts	17
Viscounts	65
Barons	66
Imperial Nominees	121
Imperial Academy Members	4

Highest Tax Paying Members 64
Total 396

The present President of the House is Prince I. Tokugawa (appointed in 1903), and Vice-President Marquis M. Hachisuka (appointed in 1924), Chief Secretary being T. Naruse.

House of Representatives

According to the new election law passed in the 50th session of the Imperial Diet in 1925, which was put in force at the general election held in 1928, the House is composed of members elected by male Japanese subjects

of not less than 25 years of age, who are qualified for eligibility to the franchise with some exceptions. The whole country is divided into 119 electoral districts, Formosa and other colonies being excluded of course, each district returning from 3 to 5 members to the House, with the total number of members fixed at 466. A general election is to take place every four years, and election is carried on by secret ballot, one vote for one man. The allotment of seats by the Law of 1900 was 305 for the rural districts and 75 for the urban districts, while it stands now at 352 and 112 respectively.

Sessions of House and Dissolutions

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

Session	Period of sitting	President	Vice-President	
1st	29 Nov., 1890— 8 Mar., '91	Nakajima.	Tsuda.	
* 2nd	29 Nov., '91—25 Dec., '91		Sone.	
3rd	5 May, '92—15 June, '92	T. Hoshi.	Kusumoto.	
4th	29 Nov., '92— 1 Mar., '93	Do.	I. Abel.	
* 5th	28 Nov., '93—30 Dec., '93	Kusumoto.	K. Kataoka.	
* 6th	16 May, '94— 2 June, '94		Do.	
7th	18 Oct., '94—22 Oct., '94		S. Shimada.	
8th	24 Dec., '94—27 Mar., '95		Do.	
9th	28 Dec., '95—29 Mar., '96	K. Hatoyama.	Do.	
10th	25 Dec., '96—24 Mar., '97		Do.	
* 11th	24 Dec., '97—25 Dec., '97	K. Kataoka.	Do.	
* 12th	19 May, '98—10 June, '98		Motoda.	
13th	3 Dec., '98—10 Mar., '99		Sugita.	Do.
14th	22 Nov., '99—24 Feb., '00			H. Kono.
15th	25 Dec., '00—25 Mar., '01	M. Matsuda.	K. Minoura.	
16th	10 Dec., '01—10 Mar., '02		Do.	
* 17th	9 Dec., '02—28 Dec., '02	T. Sugita.	Do.	
18th	12 May, '03— 5 June, '03		Do.	
* 19th	10 Dec., '03—11 Dec., '03	S. Haseba.	R. Koezuka.	
20th	20 Mar., '04—30 Mar., '04		Do.	
21st	30 Nov., '04—28 Feb., '05	I. Ooka.	N. Seki.	
22nd	28 Dec., '05—27 Mar., '06		Do.	
23rd	28 Dec., '06—28 Mar., '07	I. Ooka, S. Haseba, } H. Oku.	Do.	
24th	24 Dec., '07—28 Mar., '08		Do.	
25th	28 Dec., '08—25 Mar., '09	H. Oku.	Do.	
26th	24 Dec., '09—24 Mar., '10		Do.	
27th	24 Dec., '10—24 Mar., '11	H. Oku.	Do.	
28th	24 Dec., '11—24 Mar., '12		Do.	
29th	21 Aug., '12—23 Aug., '12	H. Oku.	Do.	
30th	24 Dec., '12—26 Mar., '13		Do.	
31st	26 Dec., '13—26 Mar., '14	H. Oku.	Do.	
32nd	5 May, '14— 8 May, '14		Do.	
33rd	20 June, '14—26 June, '14	H. Oku.	Do.	
34th	3 Sept., '14— 9 Sept., '14		Do.	
* 35th	7 Dec., '14—25 Dec., '14	H. Oku.	Do.	

36th	20 May, '15—10 June, '15	S. Shimada.	T. Hanai.
37th	1 Dec., '15—29 Feb., '16		Do.
38th	27 Dec., '16—25 June, '17	I. Ooka.	S. Hayami.
39th	22 June, '17—15 July, '17		K. Hamada.
40th	22 Dec., '17—26 Mar., '18	S. Oku.	Y. Kasuya.
41st	27 Dec., '18—27 Mar., '19		Y. Kasuya.
* 42nd	26 Dec., '19—16 Feb., '20	Do.	
43rd	29 June, '20—30 July, '20	S. Morita.	Do.
44th	25 Dec., '20—27 Mar., '21		Do.
45th	25 Dec., '21—25 Mar., '22	I. Kiyose.	M. Koizumi.
46th	27 Dec., '22—27 Mar., '23		Do.
47th	11 Dec., '23—23 Dec., '23	I. Kiyose.	Do.
* 48th	27 Dec., '23—31 Jan., '24		Do.
49th	28 June, '24—19 July, '24	G. Matsuura.	Do.
50th	24 Dec., '24—31 Mar., '25		Do.
51st	24 Dec., '25—31 Mar., '26	I. Kiyose.	Do.
52nd	24 Dec., '26—25 Mar., '27		Do.
53rd	3 May, '27— 8 May, '27	M. Koyama.	G. Matsuura.
* 54th	26 Dec., '27—21 Jan., '28		I. Kiyose.
55th	20 Apr., '28— 7 May, '28	I. Kiyose.	Do.
56th	24 Dec., '28—25 Mar., '29		Do.
* 57th	24 Dec., '29—21 Jan., '30	I. Kiyose.	Do.
58th	23 Apr., '30—14 May, '30		Do.

Sittings.—Ordinary sessions are generally convoked between November and December and last three months. After effecting the organization towards the end of December the House adjourns for about one month, so that its actual working time does not exceed two months.

General Election

The general election takes place every four years, this being the regular term for Commoners. The extraordinary

session must according to the Constitution be convened within five months from the date of dissolution. In general three or four months intervene from the date of dissolution to that of general election. Of the 15 general elections carried out from the 1st election in 1890 only two, i. e. those of 1908 and 1912, were regular and were held after the natural expiry of the 4 year term.

The result of the general election carried out in Feb. 1930 was as follows:

	1930 election	Before dissolution
Minsei-to	273	173
Selyu-kai	174	238
Kakushin Club	3	2
Kokumin Doshikai	6	3
Independents (Natural)	5	20
Proletarians	5	6
Vacancies	—	22
Total	466	464

Elections and the Relative Party Strength

Leaving out of account all those minor groups of temporary existence,

the relative strength of those permanent parties as at the close of the respective sessions recently is shown below:—

	Minsei-to (Kenseikai)	Selyukai	Kokumin Doshikai	Neutral	Proletarians	Others	Vacancies	Total
58th (May '30)	269	172	6	6	5	3	5	466
57th (Jan. '30)	173	239	6	22	7	5	19	466
56th (Mar. '29)	172	222	2	6	7	39	8	466
55th (Apr. '28)	214	221	3	9	8	9	2	466
54th (Dec. '27)	221	190	8	16	—	26	5	464

Number of Franchise-Holders.—The amended election law enacted in 1925 increased the number to 13,000,000.

Election	M.P.'s	Franchise-holders (1,000)	Franchise-holders per 1 member	Franchise-holders per 1,000 pop.	% of Voting	
					Voters	Absentees
1st (1890).....	300	467	1,550	11.42	85.72	14.28
10th (1908).....	379	1,582	4,176	32.80	86.70	13.30
14th (1920).....	464	3,069	6,166	46.33	91.18	8.82
15th (1924).....	464	3,341	7,199	57.01	80.90	19.10
16th (1928).....	466	12,530	26,889	209.75	81.47	16.29
17th (1930).....	466	12,943	27,773	205.79		

Profession of Members.—Comparing the professions of the members returned in the general election of 1902 with that of 1908, 1920 and 1924, the decrease of farmer members and increase of those of other origins are quite noticeable, the figures showing relative percentage:—

	Election					
	5th	10th	14th	15th	16th	17th
Civil and Military.....	0.7	0.3	6.5	3.2	10.2	7.9
Medicine	1.3	1.9	1.7	3.0	2.2	2.5
Journalists	2.7	4.5	5.4	6.5	7.3	3.6
Lawyers	8.3	16.9	14.7	13.8	15.6	16.9
Business-men	17.0	16.1	28.4	27.8	22.2	22.1
Farmers	48.7	27.4	20.0	17.9	9.5	13.9
Mnf. and Miners.....	1.7	3.2	5.8	5.0	9.7	2.1
Others	4.3	6.3	3.5	5.8	5.2	12.2
No Profession	15.3	23.5	14.0	17.0	18.1	16.5

Age of the Members.—The average is gradually increasing as follows, the figures in percentage:—

Election	Age			
	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 or over
1st (1890).....	51.3%	35.0	10.0	3.7
5th (1902).....	35.0	47.0	15.0	3.0
10th (1912).....	16.1	46.4	34.0	3.4
14th (1920).....	12.9	32.3	41.2	13.6
15th (1924).....	14.2	37.7	38.2	9.9
16th (1928).....	7.9	38.6	34.8	18.7
17th (1930).....	4.5	35.4	36.3	23.8

Violation of Election Rules.—The record from the 1st election is as follows:—

Election	Violation				Total
	Imprisoned	Penalty	Acquitted	Unseated	
1st (1890).....	26	211	47	—	286
2nd	65	183	69	4	323
3rd-4th	217	504	403	24	1,155
5th-6th	249	611	152	15	1,029
7th	173	1,348	335	5	1,861
8th	140	1,642	212	2	1,998
9th	25	230	28	1	284
10th (1908).....	128	1,419	274	—	1,921
11th	325	3,437	188	—	3,950
12th (1915).....	448	7,194	671	19	8,332
13th (1917).....	1,283	21,245	319	530	23,377
14th (1920).....	148	5,166	145	37	5,496
15th (1924).....	56	9,434	36	1,825	11,351
16th (1928).....	241	7,559	—	69	7,869
17th (1930).....	221	12,690	—	59	12,970

Review of the 57th & 58th Sessions

The 57th session (Dec. 24, '29—Jan. 21, '30) of the House of Representatives, the second parliamentary session under the general manhood suffrage system, was a very short-lived one, lasting only for a few days. The House, convoked late in December 1929, adjourned at the year-end after only a few days' sitting for preliminary business and resumed sitting on January 21, 1930, in circumstances and an atmosphere of intense strain. The Seiyukai (Opposition) that was in majority was in no mood to tolerate the Minsai-to administration, now in power, while the latter met the tactics of the Opposition with a grim determination of dissolution. The only business done was the addresses by Premier Hamaguchi, Foreign Minister Baron Shidehara and Finance Minister Mr. Inouye in both Houses, and a few questions raised by Mr. Inukai, the Opposition leader, to which the Premier made a brief reply. Before the non-confidence motion introduced by the Opposition could be discussed the Imperial Rescript ordering the dissolution of the House was read and the members dispersed amidst loud cheers of "Banzai."

The 58th session (Apr. 23—May 14, '30) was a special assembly convoked following the general election (2nd one under the manhood suffrage system) chiefly to deliberate on matters requiring urgent settlement, including the supplementary budget, the educational subsidy increase bill, the tariff revision bill, etc., within a short period of three weeks. The Government party, which secured 270 seats in the House in the last election, was master of the situation, and all important Government bills were passed. The Opposition was helpless, commanding only 170 against 270 of the Ministerial

party. A scene of excitement and disorder was witnessed at the final meeting of the session, when various resolutions and representations were staged, notably a resolution brought by Mr. Yukio Ozaki impeaching the Premier for his recommending Mr. Kohashi to the Throne as Minister of Education. While the debate on the resolution was going on, a tumultuous scene ensued and the house was thrown into utter disorder owing to the strifes started by several members. The house went into recess several times, but the disorderly scene still continuing it had to adjourn.

The Government bills submitted to the special session numbered 22, including 6 financial bills (supplementary budget, etc.) and 7 bills requiring post-facto approval, which all passed the two Houses, except one relating to the settled account for the 1928-29 fiscal year. Of those bills, more important were the proposals for the increase of state subsidy to compulsory education outlay, partial revision of the import tariff, the creation of export indemnification system, the new measures for prevention of burglary, etc. These, however, did not call forth much discussion in either house, but more heated debate took place on the occasion of the interpellations concerning the London naval treaty, especially about the definition of the Emperor's supreme power over the army and the navy, the affairs about the ex-Education Minister, Mr. Kohashi, who resigned last year in connexion with the railway scandal, and the unemployment relief bill introduced by the proletarian members. The resolution on national economy presented by the Seiyukai was not taken up as the time allotted for the session matured. Many important bills including the labour union bill are reserved in store for the next session.

IV. LOCAL GOVERNMENT

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

These 46 prefectures are subdivided into 636 smaller administrative districts, which are called "gun" or

counties, and these in turn are subdivided into villages or "mura" and towns or "machi." Originally sub-prefectural administrative division, the "gun" system was abolished in 1926 and a "gun" is now a mere relic of olden days. There are 10,494 villages,

1,508 towns and 103 autonomous cities or "shi."

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

The Prefecture

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

The City

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

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

Members of the city-council are elected by qualified voters, the qualifications of an elector being that he must be a Japanese subject of over 25 years old, residing over 2 years in his municipal electoral district.

Municipal System

The municipal system in force was revised in 1921, together with partial reform in the law for the control of the election of the members of the city-council, next in 1926 and again in 1929. By the revision the scope of franchise was considerably enlarged to prepare a way for the enforcement of general manhood suffrage for the election of parliamentary members. Under the revised law the electors are required to be Japanese subjects of over 20 years of age, residing in their municipal electoral districts for a period of over one year. The extension of franchise through the revision in 1921 has considerably increased the number of voters, by about 204 per cent., the numbers swelling to 80 voters for a population of 1,000 against 25 voters for a population of the same number under the old rules.

The result of the elections held under the system as revised in 1921 indicates a decided improvement in the quality of the members returned, particularly in respect of age, education, etc.

The Town and the Village

The town and the village have also their own self-government, somewhat similar to the municipal government, but on a smaller scale. They have their own headmen elected by indirect

First Election under the Universal Suffrage System

The first elections of prefectural assembly members under the universal suffrage system came off in 1927-'28 with the following results, according to the Home Office:—

No. of voters, 12,406,311; No. of votes, 9,960,230; ratio of absentees, 19.7%. The votes polled as classified by party distinction are, according to the Asahi:—	
Seiyukai (Ministerial)	4,359,633
Minseito (Opposition)	4,262,580
Proletarians	471,131
Others	866,886

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

Latest Revisions of the Local System

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

Composition of Prefectures

Prefecture	"Gun"	City	Town	Village	Prefecture	"Gun"	City	Town	Village
Aichi	18	4	76	167	Miye	15	3	27	308
Akita	9	1	46	191	Nagano	16	3	29	355
Aomori	8	2	21	147	Nagasaki	9	2	16	168
Chiba	12	1	82	265	Nara	10	1	26	125
Ehime	12	3	33	243	Niigata	16	3	47	355
Fukui	11	1	11	167	Oita	12	2	34	221
Fukuoka	19	8	52	268	Okayama	19	2	57	337
Fukushima	17	3	45	339	Oklnawa	5	2	4	50
Gifu	18	2	53	287	Osaka	7	3	23	224
Gumma	11	3	40	163	Saga	8	1	12	120
Hiroshima	16	4	53	370	Saitama	9	1	43	325
Hokkaido	85	6	43	220	Shiga	12	1	21	180
Hyogo	25	5	60	359	Shimane	16	1	21	259
Ibaraki	14	1	52	328	Shizuoka	13	4	45	283
Ishikawa	8	1	23	195	Tochigi	8	2	36	139
Iwate	13	1	27	210	Tokushima	10	1	33	103
Kagawa	7	2	20	154	Tokyo	8	2	63	119
Kagoshima	12	1	22	122	Tottori	6	2	16	169
Kanagawa	11	3	31	146	Toyama	8	2	32	233
Kochi	7	1	27	164	Wakayama	7	1	30	196
Kumamoto	12	1	41	307	Yamagata	11	3	27	199
Kyoto	18	1	30	237	Yamaguchi	11	2	32	188
Miyagi	16	1	39	163	Yamanashi	9	1	7	233
Miyazaki	8	2	17	79	Total	632	103	1,625	10,180

Note—For Area, Population, etc. see Chapter on Population.

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

Members of Local Assemblies

	Prefectural		Municipal		Town and Village	
	Mem.	Electors (1,000)	Mem.	Electors (1,000)	Mem.	Electors (1,000)
1926	—	—	3,553	1,346	152,539	6,200
1927	1,812	11,430	3,548	1,426	151,952	8,075
1928	1,787	10,989	3,708	2,548	152,606	9,084

CHAPTER VIII

CIVIL AND MILITARY SERVICE

CLASSIFICATION

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

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

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

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

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

The 2nd and 3rd grade officials are also collectively called "Koto-Kan" (High officials), the term being also applied to high officers of the Army and Navy (non-commissioned and warrant officers being classed as "Han-nin" rank).

Appointment

Under the Appointment Regulations in force the "Chokunin" officials are appointed, in principle, from among those "Sonin" officials of higher rank who have been in the service for over 2 years or others possessing similar qualifications, the Army and Navy officers of the rank above major-general or rear-admiral or corresponding rank having the privilege to be appointed the "Chokunin" officials (civil) of the Army or Navy Departments respectively. The "Sonin"

officials are appointed from among those who passed the examination for higher civil service or others possessing similar qualifications, those "Han-nin" officials who have been in the service for over 5 years and have shown ability in the execution of official business being accorded the treatment of "Sonin" grade. The "Han-nin" officials are appointed from among those who have passed the examination for ordinary civil service or graduates of middle schools or other schools of similar status and recognized as such by the Education Minister, or others having similar qualifications, or those junior clerks or employees who have been in the public service for over 4 years successively.

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

The total force of the Government service at the end of 1928 was as follows:—

Civil Service.—"Chokunin," 1,263; "Sonin," 13,670; "Han-nin," 215,953; Employees, 244,211; Total 691,396.

Army & Navy.—"Shin-nin" and "Chokunin," (A.) 213, (N.) 117; "Sonin," (A.) 12,560, (N.) 4,712; "Han-nin," (A.) 3,461, (N.) 2,844; Cadets, (N.) 177; Total (A.) 17,234, (N.) 81,145; Grand Total 98,379.

Besides, there were 2,698 officials and 1,992 employees in the service of the Imperial Household Dept., who are not

included in the above list.

Scale of Salaries

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

Office	"Shin-nin" Rank	Salary per annum
Prime Minister		¥12,000
Ministers of State.....		8,000
Gov.-General of Chosen.....		8,000
Pres. of Privy Council.....		7,500
Gov. of Kwantung.....		7,500
Gov.-Gen. of Taiwan.....		7,500
Ambassadors		7,500
Pres. Administrative Litigation Court.....		7,500
Pres. of Board of Audit.....		7,500
Pres. of Procurator-General of Supreme Court.....		7,500
Vice-Pres. Privy Council.....		7,000
Dir.-Gen. of Administrative Affairs (Chosen).....		7,000
Privy Counsellors		6,500

"Chokunin" Rank

Pres. Imp. Universities.....	7,000-6,500
Pres. of Iron Foundry.....	7,500-6,500
Gov. of Hokkaido.....	7,500-6,500
Chief Secy. of Cabinet.....	6,500
Chief of Legislation Board.....	6,500
Chief of Reconstruction Board.....	6,500
Vice-Ministers (Parl. & Perm.).....	6,500
Dir.-Gen. of Civil Affairs (Taiwan).....	6,500
Inspector-Gen. of Metropolitan Police.....	6,500
Pres. of Board of Decoration.....	6,500
Judges & Procurators.....	6,500-4,500
Gov. of South Sea Is. & of Karafuto.....	6,000-5,200
Chief Secy. of Privy Council.....	5,700
Bureau Directors	5,200
Chief Secy. of Houses of Diet.....	5,700-5,200
Prefectural Governors	6,000-5,200
Parl. Counsellors	5,200

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

The scale for "Sonin" and "Han-nin" rank stands as follows:—

Grade	"Sonin" (Annual)	"Han-nin" (Monthly)	Grade	"Sonin" (Annual)	"Han-nin" (Monthly)
1st class.....	¥4,500	¥160	7th class.....	¥2,400	65
2nd ".....	4,100	135	8th ".....	2,000	55
3rd ".....	3,800	115	9th ".....	1,800	50
4th ".....	3,400	100	10th ".....	1,600	45
5th ".....	3,100	85	11th ".....	1,400	40
6th ".....	2,700	75	12th ".....	1,200	—

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

Diplomatic & Consular Service

	Salary	Allowance
Ambassador	¥7,500	¥45,000 (U. S. A.) 40,000 (Great Britain & France) 35,000 (Germany) 30,000 (Russia, Italy, Brazil & Turkey) 28,000 (Belgium) 26,000 (China)
Min. Ple. & En. Ex.....	{ (a) 6,500 (b) 5,700 (c) 5,200 }	{ 25,000 (Austria, Argentina & Canada) 22,000 (European countries except Austria) 18,000 (Mexico, Chile & Peru) 15,000 (Siam)
Emb. Counsellor.....	{ (a) 6,500 (b) 5,200 }	{ 16,000—9,000
Consul-General	5,200	{ 15,000—6,000 (New York)—12,000 (London) 6,000 (in some Chinese cities)
Consul.....	{ (a) 4,500 (b) 3,800 }	{ 9,000—4,000 (Havana)—8,500 (Seattle, Chicago, etc.) 8,000 (Marseilles, Panama, etc.) 4,000 (in some Chinese cities)
Vice-Consul.....	{ (a) 3,400 (b) 3,100 }	{ 7,750—5,850 (U.S.A., Holland & Turkey)

Imperial Household Service

	Salary per annum
Minister	¥8,000
Lord Keeper of the Privy Seals.....	8,000
Director of Peerage Bureau.....	7,500-6,500
Grand Chamberlain	7,000-6,500
Grand Master of Ceremonies.....	7,000-6,500
Vice-Minister	6,500
Lord Steward to Empress.....	6,500-5,700
Lord Steward to Empress Dowager.....	6,500-5,700
Director of Imp. Estate Bureau.....	6,500-5,200

Officials of the higher civil service draw from ¥4,500 to 900 a year.

Judicial Service

	Salary per annum
Supreme Court:	
President	¥7,500
Procurator-General	7,500
Judges & Procurators....	6,500-4,500
Appeal Courts:	
President	6,500-5,200
Chief Procurators	6,500-5,200
Judges & Procurators....	5,200-4,500
District Courts:	
Presiding Judges & Chief Procurators	5,200-4,500

Military Service

	Salary per annum
General	¥7,500
Lieut.-General	6,500
Major-General	5,600
Colonel	4,600
Lieut.-Colonel	3,600
Major	2,600
Captain	2,100-1,600
Lieutenant	1,200-1,020
Sub-Lieutenant	850
Special Commission Lieutenant	2,290-2,110
Special Commission Sub-Lieutenant (Sr.)	1,910-1,775

	Salary per annum	Salary per annum
Special Commission		
Sub-Lieutenant (Jr.)	1,600-1,480	Vice-Admiral 6,500
Non-commissioned and petty officers	1,200- 840	Rear-Admiral 5,600
Bandmaster (1st)	2,400-1,920	Captain 4,600
" (2nd)	1,680-1,500	Commander 3,600
" (3rd)	1,320-1,140	Lieutenant-Commander 2,600
Naval Service		Lieutenant 2,290-1,600
Admiral	¥7,500	Sub-Lieutenant (1st) 1,910-1,020
		Sub-Lieutenant (2nd) 1,600- 850
		Midshipmen (cadets) 670
		Warrant officers 1,260- 930

THE PENSION SYSTEM

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

Ordinary Pension.—Civil officials who retire after a series of 15 years

Length of service	Generals & admirals	Colonels (captains) to lieutenant	Non-commissioned & warrant officers	Privates
11	¥2,500—1,867	¥1,534—467	¥400—225	¥180—150
15	2,700—1,017	1,656—505	432—253	224—174
20	2,950—2,204	1,808—552	472—288	254—204
25	3,200—2,392	1,961—600	512—328	284—234
30	3,450—2,579	2,113—647	552—358	314—264
35	3,700—2,767	2,266—695	592—393	344—294
40	3,950—2,954	2,418—742	632—428	374—334
45	4,200—3,142	2,571—790	673—463	404—354
50	4,450—3,329	2,703—837	712—498	434—384

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

or more (10 years in the case of police and prison officers) are entitled to ordinary pension, the amount being fixed according to the length of service and the sum of salary drawn at the time of retirement. The rate is 50/150 of the annual sum of salary for one whose service extended 15-16 years, 1/150 to be added for each extra year until the maximum of 40 years is reached. Military officers and men are granted ordinary pension on retiring after the service of 11 years or more, an addition being allowed for each extra year until the maximum of 50 years is reached, as shown in the undermentioned scale of rate fixed according to rank.

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

	Invalid from action	Invalid from discharge of ordinary duty
Non-commissioned and warrant officers....	¥165—1,650	¥132—1,320
Privates and bluejackets.....	150—1,500	120—1,200

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

Rank	Minimum	Maximum	
Generals & Admirals	a.	4,375	6,250
	b.	3,250	5,517
	c.	2,333	4,667
Colonels to Lieutenants	a.	1,533	3,833
	b.	988	3,292
	c.	542	2,718
	d.	196	1,960
	e.	142	1,417
	f.	117	1,167
Non-commissioned & warrant officers	a.	100	1,000
	b.	71	713
	c.	64	638
	d.	56	563

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

duty, and (3) 5/10 in the case of death from other cause.

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

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

PENSION AND ANNUITIES

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

Year ended Dec. 31	Civil Service		Civil Service	
	Pension		Annuity to family	
	No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
1926	52,716	¥29,731,432	20,289	¥5,439,093
1927	53,879	30,833,565	21,052	5,711,918
1928	54,377	31,550,131	22,238	6,129,907

Military Service

Year ended Dec. 31	Pension		Annuity to family	
	No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
1926	114,080	¥47,226,308	86,085	¥16,574,590
1927	113,951	47,359,321	84,157	16,265,322
1928	113,564	47,964,030	81,614	15,924,968

Naval Service

Year ended Dec. 31	Pension		Annuity to family	
	No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
1926	56,237	¥20,762,058	13,313	¥3,189,756
1927	59,476	21,827,293	13,685	3,261,461
1928	61,933	22,830,981	14,357	3,419,973

Annuity attached to the Orders of Golden Kite and Rising Sun

	Golden Kite		Rising Sun	
	No. of recipients	Total amount	No. of recipients	Total amount
1926	65,659	¥ 8,664,000	4,021	¥199,852
1927	65,056	11,727,600	3,975	253,005
1928	63,880	11,490,100	3,732	236,420

Note.—Also see "Decoration," Chapter on Imperial Court, etc.

DIRECTORY

(Sept. 1, 1930)

Cabinet. —Prime Minister	Y. Hamaguchi.	
Chief Secretary	F. Suzuki.	
Chief, Legislation Board	T. Kawasaki.	
" Decoration Board	Y. Shimojo.	
" National Resources Board	K. Usami.	
Bureau Directors:—Statistics, T. Hasegawa; Pensions, H. Washio; Printing, S. Sugi.		
Privy Council. —President	Dr. Baron Y. Kuratomi.	
Vice-President	Dr. Baron K. Hiranuma.	
Chief Secretary	Dr. H. Futagami.	
Councillors:		
Count M. Ito.	Marquis N. Kuroda.	Gen. M. Kawai.
Baron T. Kuki.	Dr. Baron K. Furuchi.	K. Ishiwara.
Viscount K. Kaneko.	Dr. I. Matsumuro.	E. Kamada.
Baron Y. Kubota.	S. Egi.	Adm. K. Suzuki.
Dr. Baron M. Tomii.	Dr. J. Sakurai.	Viscount K. Ishii.
Viscount T. Ishiguro.	Baron K. Den.	Dr. K. Mizumachi.
Dr. Baron K. Yamakawa.	K. Aral.	R. Okada.
Imperial Household. —Minister	Dr. K. Ichiki.	
Vice-Minister	T. Sekiya.	
Lord Keeper of Privy Seal	Count N. Makino.	
Grand Chamberlain	Adm. K. Suzuki.	
Deputy Grand Chamberlain	Y. Kawai.	
Grand Master of Ceremonies	Baron G. Hayashi.	
Deputy Grand Master of Ceremonies	Viscount N. Okabe.	
Grand Master of Rituals	Prince M. Kujo.	

Lord Steward to the Empress	Y. Kawai.
Lord Steward to the Empress Dowager	Viscount T. Iriye.
Bureau Directors:—Peerage, Visc. M. Sengoku; Imperial Tombs, E. Sugi; Medical Affairs, Dr. T. Sato; Culinary Affairs, Baron H. Higashikuze; Archives, E. Sugi; Treasury, M. Otani; Architecture, Baron H. Higashikuze; Imperial Mews, H. Salonji; Forest, M. Mitsuya; Poetry, Visc. T. Iriye.	
Chief Aide-de-Camp to the Emperor	Gen. Baron T. Nara.
Chief, Board of Audit	K. Iriye.
President, Peers' School	Dr. T. Araki.
President, Peeresses' School	T. Matsuura.
Director, Imperial Household Museum	Dr. Y. Oshima.
Foreign Affairs. —Minister	Baron K. Shidehara.
Parliamentary Vice-Minister	R. Nagai.
Permanent Vice-Minister	S. Yoshida.
Parliamentary Counsellor	Viscount N. Ota.
Bureau Directors:—Asiatic Affairs, H. Arita; European & American Affairs, M. Hotta; Commercial, T. Taketomi; Treaty, N. Matsunaga.	
Chief, Intelligence Bureau	T. Shiratori.
" Cultural Undertaking Department	T. Tsubokami.
Home Affairs. —Minister	K. Adachi.
Parliamentary Vice-Minister	T. Saito.
Permanent Vice-Minister	K. Ushio.
Parliamentary Counsellor	F. Ichinomiya.
Bureau Directors:—Shrine, K. Ikeda; Local Affairs, D. Tsugita; Police, K. Otsuka; Public Works, C. Sanbe; Sanitary, A. Akagi; Social Affairs, S. Yoshida; Reconstruction Affairs, K. Ushio.	
Finance. —Minister	J. Inouye.
Parliamentary Vice-Minister	Dr. G. Ogawa.
Permanent Vice-Minister	T. Kawada.
Parliamentary Counsellor	M. Katsu.
Bureau Directors:—Account, S. Fujii; Taxation, T. Aoki; Finance, Y. Tomita; Banking, T. Sekiba.	
Chief, Deposit Department	Y. Tomita.
Chief, Monopoly Bureau	R. Hirano.
Director, Mint	K. Yasukura.
Financial Commissioner Stationed Abroad:—Juichi Tsushima (London, Paris & New York).	
Directors, Customs Houses:—T. Nakajima (Yokohama); N. Shinozaki (Kobe); E. Kato (Osaka); T. Kubotera (Nagasaki); H. Kanemitsu (Mojji); N. Tanahashi (Hakodate).	
(Army and Navy list given later.—Ed. J.Y.B.)	
Justice. —Minister	Viscount C. Watanabe.
Parliamentary Vice-Minister	K. Kawasaki.
Permanent Vice-Minister	N. Ohara.
Parliamentary Counsellor	T. Imoto.
Bureau Directors:—Civil Affairs, T. Nagashima; Criminal Affairs, N. Motoji; Prison Affairs, K. Matsui.	
President, Supreme Court	Dr. K. Makino.
Procurator-Gen., Supreme Court	M. Koyama.
Presidents, Appeal Courts:—T. Wani (Tokyo); S. Tanita (Osaka); K. Tachibana (Nagoya); K. Imamura (Hiroshima); T. Ishii (Nagasaki); K. Nishikawa (Miyagi); K. Narita (Sapporo).	
Chief Procurators:—I. Miki (Tokyo); J. Mitsuyuki (Osaka); H. Minagawa	

(Nagoya); T. Minamiya (Hiroshima); S. Yoshimasu (Nagasaki); Y. Koga (Miyagi); H. Terajima (Sapporo).

Education.—Minister R. Tanaka.
Parliamentary Vice-Minister K. Nomura.
Permanent Vice-Minister K. Nakagawa.
Parliamentary Counsellor T. Taima.

Bureau Directors:—Special School Affairs, N. Akama; Common School Affairs, E. Shinowara; Technical School Affairs, M. Kimura; Social Education, R. Sekiya; Library, T. Shibata; Religion, M. Nishiyama; Students Dept., N. Ito.

President, Tokyo Imperial University.....Dr. K. Onozuka.
Director, Epidemic Disease Laboratory.....Dr. M. Nagayo.
Director, Aeronautics Investigation Institute.....Baron Dr. C. Shiba.
Director, Seismic Research Institute.....Dr. K. Suyefiro.
Director, Tokyo Astronomical Observatory..... K. Satome.

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

Agriculture & Forestry.—Minister..... C. Machida.
Parliamentary Vice-Minister U. Takata.
Permanent Vice-Minister S. Matsumura.
Parliamentary Counsellor M. Yamada.

Bureau Directors:—Agriculture, T. Ishiguro; Forestry, T. Hirakuma; Fishery, T. Nagase; Stock Breeding, Y. Toda; Sericulture, G. Kodaira.

Director, Silk Conditioning House (Yokohama)..... G. Haga.

Commerce & Industry.—Minister..... M. Tawara.
Parliamentary Vice-Minister K. Yokoyama.
Permanent Vice-Minister K. Tajima.
Parliamentary Counsellor B. Noda.

Bureau Directors:—Commercial, S. Kawakubo; Industrial, N. Yoshino; Mining, T. Fukuda; Oversea Trade, N. Tachibana.

Chief, Government Iron Foundry..... R. Nakai.
Chief, Patents Bureau..... S. Nakamatsu.

Communications.—Minister M. Kozumi.
Parliamentary Vice-Minister M. Nakano.
Permanent Vice-Minister K. Imaida.
Parliamentary Counsellor G. Fukuda.

Bureau Directors:—Postal Affairs, N. Yamamoto; Telegraph & Telephone Affairs, T. Hatakeyama; Construction, S. Inada; Electrical Affairs, K. Tomiyasu; Mercantile Marine, Marq. T. Hirohata; Aviation, R. Togawa; Financial, H. Ohashi; Postal Savings, K. Yoshino; Petty Insurance, E. Sonoda; Light House, G. Yasumitsu.

Dirs. Local Communications Bureaux:—Y. Hatano (Tokyo); N. Hirai (Nagoya); J. Makino (Osaka); H. Asano (Hiroshima); M. Seki (Kumamoto); T. Kasai (Sendai); K. Azuma (Sapporo).

Railways.—Minister T. Egi.
Parliamentary Vice-Minister Y. Kurogane.
Permanent Vice-Minister S. Aoki.
Parliamentary Counsellor K. Yamamoto.

Bureau Directors:—Traffic, K. Kubota; Construction, S. Kurogochi; Way & Works, M. Okochi; Adm. of Private Railways, T. Niwa; Engineering, O. Yamashita; Financial, T. Goto; Electric, Baron S. Iida; Tourist Industry, T. Arai.

Divisional Superintendents:—H. Yoshida (Tokyo); N. Tanaka (Nagoya); R. Nakayama (Osaka); T. Yoneyama (Mojji); K. Ito (Sendai); T. Takei (Sapporo).

Overseas Affairs.—Minister G. Matsuda.
Parliamentary Vice-Minister J. Kosaka.
Permanent Vice-Minister Marquis K. Komura.
Parliamentary Counsellor W. Taketomi.
Bureau Directors:—Superintendence, T. Ikoma; Industrial, S. Uyeda; Colonial Affairs, S. Koriyama.

Government General of Chosen.—Gov.-Gen.....Adm. Visc. M. Saito.
Director-General, Administrative Affairs.....Count H. Kodama.

Bureau Directors:—Internal Affairs, T. Imamura; Financial, S. Hayashi; Industrial, M. Matsumura; Judicial, S. Fukuzawa; Educational, K. Takebe; Police, J. Morloka; Forestry, T. Watanabe; Railway, T. Omura; Communications, S. Yamamoto; Monopoly, M. Matsumoto; Director, Higher Court, G. Yokota; Director, Appeal Court, R. Kusaba; Customs Directors, T. Domoto (Jinsen); H. Watanabe (Fusan); K. Inoue (Shingishu).

Government General of Taiwan.—Gov.-Gen..... E. Ishizuka.
Director General, Civil Affairs..... J. Hitomi.

Bureau Directors:—Home, H. Ishiguro; Education, R. Sugimoto; Finance, M. Tomita; Traffic, R. Shirase; Industrial, B. Kudara; Police, T. Ishii; Monopoly, Z. Ikeda; Director, Higher Court, W. Goto; Customs Director, Y. Nishizawa.

Government of Kwantung.—Governor..... M. Ota.

Adviser Dr. M. Sengoku.

Bureau Directors:—Home Affairs, J. Kanda; Police Affairs, M. Nakatani; Finance, S. Nishiyama; Communications, M. Sakurai; Maritime Affairs, K. Ikuno; Monopoly, S. Tanaka; Dir. Higher Court, N. Tsuchiya.

Chief, Civil Administration Office (Ryojun)..... S. Nishiyama.
" " " " (Dalren)..... S. Tanaka.

Government of Karafuto.—Governor..... S. Agata.

Bureau Directors:—Home, Z. Konishi; Police, S. Koyama; Agr. & For., K. Suehara.

South Sea Islands (Mandate) Office.—Governor..... G. Yokota.

Secretary & Chief of General Affairs Section..... M. Horiguchi.

Board of Audit.—President..... K. Yuasa.

Sectional Chiefs:—H. Kono, K. Oka, K. Imazumi.

Court of Administrative Litigation.—President..... S. Kubota.

Councillors:—Dr. S. Shimizu, T. Miyake, K. Sekiguchi, T. Shimamura, E. Shukuri, T. Kanamori, Dr. G. Endo, K. Murakami, K. Fukuyama, T. Sawada, B. Abe, F. Nozawa, S. Horie, T. Kimura, H. Taguchi, S. Sugita, C. Tamai.

Metropolitan Police Board.—Inspector-General..... T. Maruyama.

Imperial Diet (Vide Chap. Politics).

Army.—Minister Gen. I. Ugaki.

Acting Minister Lt.-Gen. N. Abe.

Parliamentary Vice-Minister Viscount J. Ito.

Permanent Vice-Minister Lt.-Gen. G. Sugiyama.

Parliamentary Counsellor K. Yoshikawa.

Bureau Directors:—Personnel, Maj.-Gen. M. Furuzo; Military Affairs, Maj.-Gen. K. Koiwa; Arms, Maj.-Gen. A. Uemura; Finance, Paym.-Gen. S. Nakamura; Medical Affairs, Surgeon-Gen. T. Aida; Law Affairs, N. Suzuki; Reorganization, Maj.-Gen. K. Hayashi.

Chief, Aviation Dept..... Lt.-Gen. K. Furuya.

Director, Military Arsenal Lt.-Gen. K. Ogata.

" Ordnance Dept. Maj.-Gen. Y. Suzuki.

" Technical Dept. Lt.-Gen. T. Yoshida.

" Scientific Research Institute..... Lt.-Gen. N. Kurosaki.

Chairman, Technical Council.....Lt.-Gen. N. Abo.
 Commander, Gendarmerie Headquarters.....Maj.-Gen. Y. Mine.
 " " " (of Chosen).....Maj.-Gen. M. Kusakabe.
 Chief, Fortification Dept.Lt.-Gen. S. Yamanouchi.
 " Mil. Horse Supplies Dept.....Maj.-Gen. T. Yoshioka.
 " Transport Dept.Lt.-Gen. J. Hirose.
 Director, Sanju Woolen Factory.....Paym.-Col. K. Nagahiro.
 " Provision DepotPaym.-Col. A. Yokota.
 " Clothing DepotPaym.-Col. C. Onodera.

General Staff Office—Chief.....Gen. H. Kanaya.
 Vice-ChiefLt.-Gen. R. Okamoto.
 Sectional Chiefs, Maj.-Gen. H. Ninomiya (General Affairs), Maj.-Gen. S. Hata
 (1st Sect.); Maj.-Gen. Y. Takekawa (2nd Sect.); N. Oki (3rd Sect.); Maj.-
 Gen. T. Hirose (4th Sect.); Chief, Land Surveying Dept., Maj.-Gen. H. Ishii.

Military Education Dept.—Superintendent.....Gen. N. Muto.
 ChiefLt.-Gen. S. Hayashi.

Inspectors:—Cavalry, Lt.-Gen. H. Mori; Artillery, Lt.-Gen. K. Ohashi; Engineer-
 ing, Maj.-Gen. Z. Wakayama; Commissariat, Maj.-Gen. T. Yokosuka.

School Directors:—Military Staff College, Lt.-Gen. J. Tamon; Art. & Eng.
 School, Lt.-Gen. R. Ishikawa; Infantry School, Maj.-Gen. K. Harada; Toyama
 School, Maj.-Gen. K. Kashii; Cavalry School, Maj.-Gen. H. Yanagawa;
 Field Artillery School, Lt.-Gen. G. Nishi; Heavy Artillery School, Maj. Gen.
 T. Inoue; Engineering School, Maj.-Gen. T. Iwakoshi; Cadets School, Maj.-
 Gen. M. Sakamoto; Paymaster School, Paym. Lt.-Gen. K. Sano; Surgeons
 School, Surg.-Gen. G. Ichiki; Veterinary Surgeon School, Surg.-Gen. M.
 Watanabe; Motor Car School, Maj.-Gen. T. Iida; Akeno Aviation School,
 Maj.-Gen. R. Asada; Tokorozawa Aviation School, Lt.-Gen. Y. Aramaki;
 Shimoshizu Aviation School, Maj.-Gen. T. Ozawa; Military Communications
 School, Maj.-Gen. Y. Umedo; Military Prep. School (Tokyo), Col. Y. Shiki;
 Military Training School (Sendai), Maj.-Gen. K. Kimura; Military Training
 School (Toyohashi), Maj.-Gen. H. Takeda; Military Training School (Kuma-
 moto), Maj.-Gen. T. Koga.

Standing Army

Division	Commander (Lt.-Gen.)	Division	Commander (Lt.-Gen.)
Guards.....	S. Hayashi.	9th.....	R. Nagai.
1st.....	J. Masaki.	10th.....	S. Honjo.
2nd.....	H. Akai.	11th.....	I. Matsui.
3rd.....	Y. Kawashima.	12th.....	K. Kihara.
4th.....	Y. Hayashi.	14th.....	N. Matsuki.
5th.....	J. Terauchi.	16th.....	T. Yamamoto.
6th.....	S. Araki.	19th.....	H. Mori.
7th.....	K. Arai.	20th.....	K. Muro.
8th.....	H. Miyoshi.		

Colonial Armies, etc.

Commander of Chosen Army.....Gen. J. Minami.
 " Taiwan ArmyLt.-Gen. J. Watanabe.
 " Kwantung ArmyLt.-Gen. T. Hishikari.
 " Garrison in China.....Lt.-Gen. K. Ueda.
 " Tokyo GarrisonLt.-Gen. Hasegawa.

The Navy—MinisterBaron Adm. K. Abo.
 Parliamentary Vice-MinisterBaron S. Yabuki.
 Permanent Vice-MinisterVice-Adm. S. Kobayashi.
 Parliamentary CounsellorH. Momiyama.

Bureau Directors:—Military Affairs, Rear-Adm. T. Hori; Personnel, Rear-Adm.
 G. Matsushita; Supplies, Vice-Adm. G. Yamashita; Construction, Dr. K.
 Majima; Education, Rear-Adm. K. Terajima; Medical Affairs, Surg. Vice-
 Adm. T. Ogawa; Account, Paym. Vice-Adm. R. Kato; Law Affairs, S.
 Yamada.

Chief, Fleet Administration Dept.....Vice-Adm. H. Fujita.
 " Aviation Dept.Vice-Adm. M. Ando.
 " Hydrographical Dept.Vice-Adm. S. Yonemura.
 " Technical Investigation Dept.....Vice-Adm. Y. Hiraga.
 " Gunpowder DepotRear-Adm. N. Kishimoto.

School Directors:—Naval Staff College, Vice-Adm. S. Takahashi; Cadets School,
 Vice-Adm. N. Ominato; Engineering School, Rear-Adm. T. Kuroda; Medical
 School, Surg.-Rear-Adm. N. Koda; Gunnery School, Rear-Adm. H. Ohno;
 Torpedo School, Rear-Adm. S. Matsuyama; Submarine School, Captain
 S. Noheda; Paymaster School, Paym. Vice-Adm. H. Gyobu; Artificers
 School, Rear-Adm. T. Murata.

Naval Staff Board—Chief.....Adm. N. Taniguchi.
 Vice-ChiefVice-Adm. S. Nagano.

Commanders-in-Chief of Naval Stations:—Vice-Adm. M. Osumi (Yokosuka);
 Vice-Adm. K. Nomura (Kure); Vice-Adm. T. Torisu (Sasebo).

Commanders of Secondary Naval Ports:—Vice-Adm. J. Kiyokawa (Maizuru);
 Rear-Adm. E. Hamano (Mako); Rear-Adm. S. Hakkaku (Ominato); Vice-
 Adm. K. Hara (Chinkai).

Arsenal Chiefs:—Rear-Adm. J. Araki (Yokosuka); Vice-Adm. M. Sugi (Kure);
 Vice-Adm. K. Ito (Hiro); Rear-Adm. Y. Yoshioka (Sasebo).

Commanders of Imperial Fleets:—Adm. E. Yamamoto (Combined Fleet & 1st
 Squadron); Vice-Adm. N. Iida (2nd Squadron); Vice-Adm. K. Nomura
 (Training Squadron); Rear-Adm. N. Yoneuchi (1st Oversea Squadron);
 Rear-Adm. S. Tsuda (2nd Oversea Squadron).

CHAPTER IX

DIPLOMACY

PRIOR TO THE RESTORATION OF 1868

Throughout her long history Japan's foreign intercourse has been marked by constant and constructive efforts to preserve her national security and at the same time to adopt and assimilate new alien civilizations, spiritual as well as material. This was amply illustrated not only in the beginning of Japanese relations with China and Korea but also at the time when this country came into contact with Occidental peoples. It is quite natural that Japan's relations with China and Korea antedated those with the nations of Europe and began in an age with which the present survey is not concerned. A few remarks, however, may with propriety be made on our earlier relations with China and Korea, so that the underlying causes of events in later days may be made clearer.

After the Empress Jingō's expedition to South Korea and the establishment of a resident Japanese Government in one of the then warring Korean kingdoms in 346 A.D., Japan began systematically to introduce Chinese culture and learning through the Korean Peninsula, and soon afterwards Chinese influence over Japan became so great that, toward the end of the sixth century, the Prince Regent Shotoku felt the diplomatic need of building an imposing Buddhist temple and pagoda at Tennoji to impress the Chinese envoys and traders who came to the port of Osaka. Seventy years later, the Emperor Tenji had to assist one of the Korean kingdoms against the encroachment of the powerful Tang dynasty of China. In the thirteenth century Japan's security was menaced for the first time in her history by the invasion of the Western shores of Kyushu by the Yuen, or Mongol Chinese, who were eventually

repulsed with the incidental aid of a tempest. At the same time political refugees from China welcomed in Japan had a restraining influence over the conquerors. Toward the close of the sixteenth century Hideyoshi, the then actual ruler of this country, despatched a punitive expedition to Korea for a diplomatic assertion of our national independence which was sometimes disregarded by the Korean kings. It ended in failure, ostensibly owing to the death of Hideyoshi but actually and mainly because China sent help to Korea which she claimed as a vassal state. When the Manchus conquered and established their rule over China, Chinese refugees came over to Japan and contributed to the progress of our civilization in the middle of the seventeenth century.

As previously stated, through the Korean Peninsula we early came into contact with the civilization of the Asiatic Continent as well as with that great religion of the Orient—Buddhism. So that, when in the middle of the sixteenth century Portuguese and Spanish traders appeared on the scene, the country, which had been under the continuous regime of the Shogunate since 1192, was in a highly advanced state both socially and from a political point of view. As is well known, these forerunners of European intercourse brought with them another great religion of the world, viz., Christianity, which was destined to have a far-reaching effect upon the subsequent course of our history. Thus introduced, the future augured well for the prospects of the new religion, and chronicle records the despatch in 1582 of an embassy to Rome by the Christian feudatories of Arima, in the Island of Kyushu. It was shortly after this that Dutch and English traders reached Japan and obtained complete freedom of trade with the country. But the activities of the

Jesuits, and later of the Franciscan and Dominican, missionaries, who by this time had succeeded in erecting churches in various centers of the country, now assumed a certain political character; and this, in addition to the apprehensions which were mainly due to the warning by the Dutch traders who subsequently came to Japan that Spain and Portugal—the countries from whence they had arrived—were plotting to conquer it, induced the Shogunate Government to reverse its hitherto lenient, even friendly, attitude towards them. Accordingly, in 1614, it ordered their total expulsion and proscribed the propaganda of Christian theology in Japan. That the ban was not intended to prejudice our commercial relations with Protestant Europe is conclusively shown by the encouragement given by the Shogunate authorities to the Dutch and English trade. Even so, however, the conviction that Christianity was an instrument of European aggression finally drove them to terminate their policy and to issue in May, 1636, the famous decree of isolation, or "closed country," whereby Japan was literally closed to the rest of the world and all Japanese subjects were forbidden to go abroad. Thenceforth only a few Chinese and Dutch traders were permitted to remain at Deshima in Nagasaki, and by 1790 the number of Dutch merchantmen calling at that port was restricted to one vessel annually.

It will be apparent from the preceding that the isolation of Japan was primarily due to her fear of foreign invasion, not to any disinclination on her part either to tolerate Christianity or to continue intercourse with the countries of the West. Likewise it must have been obvious that this policy of enforced seclusion, albeit it secured for her nearly two centuries of uninterrupted peace (certainly a remarkable fact in itself), could not permanently be maintained. The first nation to challenge it was Russia, which in 1775, and again in 1793, urged the opening of Japanese ports to Russian trade. The failure of the Russian emissaries to realize their mission accounts for the attack by two Russian vessels of the coast of Saghalien in 1806, where they plundered a Japanese town and carried away a number of its inhabitants. This and similar in-

cidents occurring in the northern extremes of the Empire undoubtedly gave warning of the danger from which it had been believed to be immune. Further, the British attempts during the Napoleonic wars to replace the Dutch at Deshima, and the appearance of an American vessel, the Morrison, in the Bay of Yedo (present Tokyo) in 1837, served to bring home to certain of our statesmen what proved to be the inevitable fact, that sooner or later the Powers of Europe and America would insist on their right of privilege to treat with the country. But the Tokugawa Shogunate, still committed to its policy of self-containment, was not as yet prepared to abandon it, when in February, 1844, King William II of the Netherlands conveyed to it his friendly counsel to the effect that Japan should enter into treaty relations with the said Powers. In 1853, however, a formidable American fleet under Commodore Perry visited our shores to urge Japan to open her doors to foreign intercourse. The result was the conclusion of Japan's first treaty of amity with the United States—indeed, the first treaty she has ever made with a foreign country. In this treaty, dated March 31, 1854, the former power consented to open the ports of Shimoda and Hakodate to American citizens; to reciprocate on an equal and uniform basis their friendly intercourse with the people of Japan; and mutually to extend aid and assistance to vessels in distress. The American example in this regard was presently followed by Russia, Great Britain, France, etc.

But the weakness and inability of the Shogunate Government displayed in dealing with foreign affairs and the fact that it acted of its own accord without the Imperial command incensed the anti-foreign and anti-Shogunate elements, who murdered several foreigners and attacked foreign ships. The result was the bombardment of Kagoshima by a British squadron in 1863, and of Shimonoseki in the ensuing year by the allied squadrons of Great Britain, the United States, France and Holland. (An instance may well be cited to illustrate the causes of discontentment of the people. In 1861, the Russians seized the island of Tsushima in the Japan Sea, presumably for the purpose of securing

a coaling station for her fleet in the Far East, and remained there until she was forced to withdraw through the efforts of the British Minister Sir Rutherford Alcock and Admiral Hope of the British China Squadron.) This state of affairs in the country culminated in 1868 in an epochal and, indeed, much-desired turn of events, namely, the restoration by the Shogunate of its civil and military powers to the Throne, which had in effect been delegated to it for nearly seven centuries. Besides, it should be added that the Imperial sanction had already been obtained for the international engagement concluded by the Shogunate Government, and that the safety and welfare of foreigners in Japan were at the same time assured—and it was in this manner that we at last envisaged a new era in the annals of our relations with the nations of the world.

EARLY MEIJI ERA (1868-94)

The problems confronting the "renascent" Japan were multifarious. But so far as concerned the nation externally, the two outstanding features of her foreign policy were: firstly, to reassert those rights which were inherent in her as an independent Power; secondly, to effect the revision of her one-sided treaties. Of the first, it may be noted that the difficult transition from feudalism, with the vision of those in authority confined to the narrow limits of the Empire, doubtless afforded opportunities for foreign encroachment and aggression. The seizure of Tsushima by Russia has been already referred to. Moreover, the same Power, by penetrating Saghalien and the Kurile Islands where the feudatory of Matsumaye had from early times exercised jurisdiction, demanded that the Prouse Strait should be fixed as the boundary line between the Japanese and Russian Empires. The Japanese authorities proposed on their part that the fiftieth parallel should be made the line of demarcation, but the proposal was not accepted by the Tsar's Government. The question thus remained in suspense for many years; and was only brought to an end in 1875 by Japan's acquiescence in the counter-proposal that the whole of Saghalien should be

surrendered in return for the Kurile group of islands, which in fact never belonged to Russia. Similarly, the sovereignty over the Bonin Islands had been a subject of discussion between the Governments of Japan and the United States. In this case, however, the cordial recognition in 1857 by the American Government of our priority resulted in a speedy termination of the controversy. Another occurrence requiring notice here was the expedition to Formosa, which was provoked by the massacre of certain stranded Loochooans by the Formosan aborigines. Seeing that justice could be obtained in no other way, Japan sent to the island a punitive force and occupied it without difficulty. To this China objected as being a "breach of her sovereignty," notwithstanding her earlier reply in an opposite sense—consequently the relations between the two Powers were severely strained. But, in the end, the matter was amicably disposed of by the mediation of the British Minister at Peking, Mr. Wade (afterwards Sir Thomas Wade), on payment of an indemnity by China. Beside these, the so-called Maria Luz Affair embroiled us with Peru. The facts were that a Peruvian ship of that name entered the harbour of Yokohama in 1892, with 200 Chinese slaves on board. It so happened that one of those ill-treated men escaped from confinement and applied to the port authorities for protection; whereupon the latter seized the ship and immediately released the Chinese aboard. The case was ultimately referred to a tribunal presided over by the Emperor Alexander II of Russia, and the decision rendered fully sustained the action of the authorities concerned. It is hardly necessary to say that this victory of the nation in a dispute involving a question of humanity tended to enhance its position internationally. As for the second phase of our foreign policy during the early Meiji era, it may be pointed out that the treaties concluded by the Shogunate Government deprived Japan of the rights both of judicial and tariff autonomy, though they contained a clause providing for their revision after the year 1872. It was therefore left to the Imperial Government to recover what had been lost by the former's inadvertence, with which object it set to work as soon as

the stipulated time drew near. Accordingly Prince Iwakura was despatched to America and Europe in 1871 with a view to effect treaty revision with the Western Powers; but the mission proved abortive, mainly because the country was not in its turn prepared to offer suitable guarantees. Apart from this, the solution of the problem was made well-nigh impossible by the fact that the eighteen treaty Powers, which were pledged among themselves to act conjointly in their negotiations with Japan, were unable to find a common basis of agreement. Some of them were in favour of low import duties; others were reluctant to place their subjects or citizens under the jurisdiction of Japanese courts. It is true, the United States showed its willingness to conclude a separate treaty with us and to surrender the two obnoxious points in the old instrument. Nevertheless, a proviso to the effect that the new treaty should not become operative until after the signing of similar treaties with other Powers practically left the matter in status quo. In spite of this, the statesmen of regenerated Japan steadfastly held their course for the liberation of the nation from its unilateral obligations. So, in 1882, Count (afterwards Marquis) Inouye, the then Foreign Minister, approached the British Government with a series of proposals, and the result was the conference of the treaty Powers at Tokyo four years later, at which concessions were to be made by both parties. Meanwhile, the terms of the projected treaties having leaked out, the press and people bitterly attacked the provision for a "Mixed Court" which permitted a certain number of foreign judges to sit on the Japanese Bench. This obliged the Government to postpone the settlement of the question until a more favourable moment. Next, it was attempted by Count (afterwards Marquis) Okuma to induce the Powers to abandon their extraterritorial rights on the basis of permitting the presence of foreign legal assessors in the *Tai-shin-in* (the Supreme Court) in cases which concerned foreigners. Many Powers, including Mexico, the United States, Germany, and France, agreed to the new formula; even Great Britain, whose preponderant commercial interests in Japan had made her the

arbiter of the situation, was in their train. But the chagrined populace once more rose against the appointment of foreign assessors and forced the valiant Foreign Minister to drop the negotiations. His successors, both Viscount Aoki, subsequently our Minister at the Court of St. James, and Viscount Enomoto, likewise endeavoured for the attainment of the same end; but without success. Then, in 1893, the Lower House of the Imperial Diet voted an address to the Throne recommending the early revision of the unjust treaties, which, above all, were "derogatory to our national dignity." The action convinced the Government that thenceforth it had not only to deal with the Powers, but also to face the Imperial Diet which was supported by a formidable array of public opinion. Furthermore, war with China because of the Korean question appeared imminent. In these circumstances it dissolved the legislative organ of the nation and resumed, at the invitation of the Rosebery Ministry, its negotiations with Great Britain, with Count Mutsu as Minister for Foreign Affairs. The outcome was the memorable Treaty of Commerce and Navigation of the 16th July, 1894, whereby Great Britain recognized our jurisdiction over British subjects in Japan and the right to levy import duties on goods imported from that country and its colonies. Other Powers followed Great Britain in quick succession; and thus it was that a problem which had agitated the nation for forty long years was finally solved.

THE SINO-JAPANESE WAR

Reference may now be made to the Korean question which involved us twice in foreign wars, once with China and then with Russia. That was chiefly due to the geographical importance of the Peninsular Kingdom, which, until its voluntary annexation to Japan in 1910, was a source of ever-present danger to the security of the nation. Historically speaking, each of the parties to the first-mentioned war had an interest in Korea because of its dual tributary position in respect of both; although the claims of Japan were the earlier in origin and were exercised for a longer space of time than those of China. This, however,

is immaterial. In 1875, a Korean fort on the island of Kang-Hwa fired upon a Japanese warship. This incident finally led to the conclusion of a treaty of amity between Japan and Korea, dated February 27, 1876. Article I of this treaty laid down: "Chosen (or Korea), being an independent State, enjoys the same sovereign rights as does Japan". This provision gave offence to China who would still treat Korea as a vassal state. On the other hand, factional strife in Korea not only made all orderly government impracticable, but greatly injured Japan's rights and interests there. As a case in point we may mention the disturbances of 1882, in which a band of discontented Korean soldiers revolted against the Ming family at the instigation of Tai-weng Kun, the King's father, who was contriving to undermine the power of the Queen and her coterie. The Queen narrowly escaped; but the mob killed a number of Japanese officers in the service of the Korean Government and, without the slightest provocation, attacked and burned the Japanese Legation in Seoul. As a result of our remonstrances, Korea agreed in the so-called Chemulpo Convention to pay us an indemnity and to build at her own cost barracks for the Legation guards. Subsequently Japan remitted the major portion of the indemnity on the understanding that it should be used for the purpose of internal reforms. Within two years, however, more serious complications arose out of the murder of Prince Ming, the leader of the Reactionary Party, and other conservative leaders, by men belonging to the Korean Progressive Party. The city of Seoul being then in a state of turmoil, the King and the progressives asked for the assistance of Japanese troops for the protection of the Palace, whilst the Ming Party appealed to the Chinese Resident, Yuan Shi-kai, for its recovery. The Chinese troops, who had a numerical strength of twenty to one over the Japanese, attacked the Palace and destroyed our Legation as well. The news of the Chinese outrage was received in Japan with general indignation; the people clamoured for war. But the self-restraint and caution of the Government finally led to the conclusion of the Treaty of Tientsin with China, which was signed on April

18, 1885, and removed the prospect of immediate war. By this treaty, China for the first time formally admitted Japan's absolute equality of rights in Korea and each of the Contracting Parties undertook to withdraw its troops from the peninsula and not to despatch any in future without previous notice to the other.

It has been commonly thought that the Treaty of Tientsin was a diplomatic triumph for Japan in so far as China admitted her absolute equality of rights in Korea. But it became in reality the basis of China's ascendancy in that country—regarding which the Chinese Government still persisted in its claims of suzerainty—and an indirect cause of the war of 1894-95. The reasons for this are not far to seek. Japan's preoccupation during the interval with various domestic problems, such as the promulgation of the Constitution, the struggle between the Government and the Diet, etc., on the one hand, and the control of the Korean Court by the Mings, who derived their power from China's overlordship, on the other enabled the ambitious Chinese Resident to gain the upper hand in the affairs of Korea and to undo the internal reforms initiated at the instance of the former. Following this, Kim Ok-yun, one of the leaders of the Reform Party and a refugee in Japan since the disturbances of 1884, was, with the apparent connivance of the Chinese authorities, assassinated by a Korean notable who had accompanied him to Shanghai. The remains of the victim were conveyed on board a Chinese man-of-war to Korea, where they were subjected to brutal mutilation and public exposure. The above incident was almost contemporaneous with the uprising of the Tong-haks, originally members of a certain religious organization, against the corrupt officials of the Korean Court. China, which it appears was misled by reports as to Japan's internal troubles, took advantage of the occasion and sent some 3,000 troops to the Peninsula. Thereupon, Japan also sent there, in virtue of the Chemulpo Convention and of the Treaty of Tientsin, a mixed brigade of about 8,000 in number. China demanded their immediate withdrawal. But Japan urged the necessity of co-operation with her for the restoration of peace

in Korea and the recommendation of such measures of reform as might be needed for the good government of the country. A second refusal by China forced Japan to act independently. In the meantime, the Chinese troops in Korea were considerably reinforced; and in the morning of July 25, 1894, an engagement between squadrons belonging to the opposing parties took place off the Fengtao. This definitely committed them to hostilities, and war was formally declared a week later.

The war so precipitated, from which Japan emerged victorious both on land and sea, was terminated by the Treaty of Shimonoseki of the 17th April, 1895. In this treaty China recognized the full and complete independence of Korea; agreed to cede to Japan (1) the Liaotung Peninsula and the adjacent waters, as well as (2) Formosa and the Pescadores; to pay to Japan an indemnity of 200,000,000 taels; and to open to trade and navigation four ports, i.e., Shashih, Chungking, Suchow, and Hungchow, in various provinces and certain parts of the rivers Yangtze and Woo-sung.

INTERVENTION OF THE THREE POWERS

A few days after the conclusion of the Treaty of Shimonoseki, Japan was taken aback by a new, and altogether sudden, international crisis. It was the intervention in the terms of peace with China of a group of European Powers—namely, Russia, France, and Germany. Russia's motive in this unexpected move—so it was to the nation at the time—was obvious. To put it briefly, she was opposed to Japan's territorial acquisitions on the Continent; in that event she would have to reckon with a new factor which was quite incongruous with her desire to reach the warmer waters of the Pacific. In other words, the Muscovite Empire wished to see China and Korea in status quo ante bellum, which would better serve her purposes. And notwithstanding its profession that it would seek nothing from Japan except the assurance of the independence of Korea, it was rumoured in the Chancelleries of Europe as soon as peace was in sight that the Russian Ambassadors had been instructed to obtain

an agreement against the cession to Japan of any part of the mainland of China, and the ominous rumour was never contradicted. Again, it might be expected that France, which was bound by her entente with Russia, should be found acting in concert with her northern ally. But the intervention of Germany along with these Powers evoked much speculation both in Japan and elsewhere. Whatever it might be, the wisdom of Germany's action was subsequently questioned by no less a personage than the ex-Chancellor von Bülow himself. At any rate, their forces in Chinese waters and the vicinity were greatly augmented by the middle of April, 1895, and were ready to interpose on their own account in the Sino-Japanese dispute. Consequently the situation in the Far East assumed a threatening aspect.

But it was an opportune moment for the Powers to intervene. Not to mention the disparity in strength, Japan had just concluded a foreign war; it was too great a strain for her to face anew a struggle for which she was totally unprepared. To aggravate matters, ratifications of the treaty of peace with China had not yet been exchanged, thus exposing it to the danger of cancellation. Accordingly, the three Powers notified Japan, on April 23rd, *idem*, that since the possession of the Liaotung Peninsula by Japan would not be conducive to the permanent peace of the Far East, "they would give a new proof of their sincere friendship for the Government of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan by advising them to renounce the definite possession of the Peninsula of Liaotung." It should be observed that China's appeals to Russia for intervention in the war largely contributed to this untoward development—which, in the long run, proved as detrimental to her interests as it well could be. A week later, that is to say, on April 30th, Japan apprized Russia of her intention to retrocede the Peninsula except the Kinchow district; but the Russians insisted that that district, including Port Arthur, should also be given up. Aside from this, the British Government, while assuring Japan of its friendly sentiments, advised her to make to "the susceptibilities of Europe all concessions compatible with Japan's dignity and permanent interests." In

these circumstances our Government decided to accept the "friendly recommendation" of the three aligned Powers: China, in turn, agreed to pay to Japan 30,000,000 taels for the retrocession. The decision was followed by the issue on May 10th, simultaneously with the publication of the Treaty of Shimonoseki, of an Imperial Rescript in which it was stated: "Considering, therefore, the best interests of peace, and animated by a desire not to bring upon our people added hardships or to impede the progress of the national destiny by creating new complications, and thereby making the situation difficult and retarding the restoration of peace, we do not hesitate to accept such recommendation," and that, the justice of Japan's cause having been proclaimed to the world, "we can find nothing to impair the honour and dignity of our Empire if we now yield to the dictates of magnanimity, and, taking into consideration the general situation, accept the advice of the friendly Powers." The Rescript, countersigned by all the Ministers of State, produced a profound effect upon the people of Japan, whose indignation was intensely aroused by this concerted aggression of the three European Powers, who had taken advantage of a most trying moment to this country. It had the effect of strengthening the determination of the nation to endure great difficulties and hardships and prepare for the recovery of its honour, and the event, therefore, may be said to have marked a turning point in the national career.

THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE

The next event of importance in Japan's foreign relations was the conclusion early in 1902 of a treaty of alliance with Great Britain. This alliance of the two Island Empires was consequent upon various developments which brought to light a sharp divergence between their policies regarding China and those of Russia and Germany in particular. We have already adverted above to the fact that China had appealed to Russia for intervention in her quarrel with Japan. This fact and the retrocession by Japan of the Liaotung Peninsula were, so to have it, capitalized by that Power to arrange in May, 1896, the notorious

treaty of defensive alliance with China vis-à-vis Japan. By this treaty Russia obtained from China the right to extend the Siberian Railway through Manchuria "in the direction of Vladivostok," together with certain other privileges both political and military. These concessions on the part of the Chinese Government were followed by Germany's demands upon it under the pretext of compensation for the murder of two German missionaries by Chinese bandits, with the result that she, too, secured, in March, 1898, the provisional cession for ninety-nine years of the territory of Kiaochow in Shantung. Within three weeks, Russia once again compelled China similarly to cede for twenty-five years (the term being subject to renewal) of Port Arthur and Tallien, including the adjacent waters; and this, in spite of the declaration that "the possession of the Peninsula of Liaotung, claimed by Japan, would be a constant menace to the capital of China.....and would henceforth be a perpetual obstacle to the permanent peace of the Far East." The Russian seizure of Port Arthur having materially altered the balance of power in the Gulf of Pechili, Great Britain also leased Wei-hai-wei and its approaches under the same conditions as Russia. Likewise France obtained a lease of Kwang-chow Bay, in point of time co-extensive with the occupation of Port Arthur and Wei-hai-wei. Great Britain and Russia then mutually engaged not to seek railway concessions in each other's spheres of influence, whilst the United States came out with the celebrated doctrine of equal opportunity for all nations in such spheres of influence. But nothing prevented the execution of Russia's policy as regards Manchuria, so that at the end of the Boxer uprising in China (in the course of which Japan played a prominent role in the rescue of the besieged foreigners) she was in fact its master by force of arms. Hence the well-known Anglo-German Convention of 1900 was intended to apply to Russian activities there as well as in other parts of the Chinese Empire, and stated in unmistakable terms that, should any Power utilize the complications in China for the purpose of seeking territorial advantages prejudicial to the interests of China and other Powers, the Signatory

Powers would come to a preliminary understanding as to the measures to be taken for the protection of their own interests. Subsequently, however, Germany—which appears to have reconsidered her position in relation to Russia—took exception to the *modus vivendi* and claimed that Manchuria, where she had no interest at all, was excluded from its scope. This emasculated the agreement, to which Japan was also a party.

It was under these circumstances that our First Treaty of Alliance with Great Britain, dated the 30th January, 1902, was concluded. The preamble to the treaty read: "The Governments of Japan and Great Britain actuated solely by a desire to maintain the status quo and general peace in the Extreme East, being moreover specially interested in maintaining the independence and territorial integrity of the Empire of China and the Empire of Korea, and in securing equal opportunities in those countries for the commerce and industry of all nations hereby agree as follows." It provided that it would be admissible for either of the High Contracting Parties to take, in case of emergency, necessary steps to safeguard its interests in China and Korea; and that, if, in safeguarding those interests, either of them became involved in war with another Power, the other High Contracting Party would endeavour to keep outside Powers neutral, but would enter the war in the event of any other Power or Powers joining in hostilities against that ally. It was also agreed that Japan, in addition to the interests which she possessed in China, was interested "in a peculiar degree, politically as well as commercially and industrially, in Korea." The treaty of 1902 was revised at the end of the Russo-Japanese War (August 12, 1905) in order to make it more effective. In the Second Treaty of Anglo-Japanese Alliance, the High Contracting Parties agreed to consider in common the measures which should be taken to safeguard the maintenance of their territorial rights in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India and the defense of their special interests in the said regions; and that, if by reason of unprovoked attack of aggressive action, either Contracting Party should be involved in war in defence of its

territorial rights or special interests referred to, the other Contracting Party would at once come to the assistance of its ally and would conduct the war in common. It also provided that Great Britain should recognize Japan's paramount political, military, and economic interests in Korea and her right to take such measures as she might deem proper and necessary to safeguard and advance those interests, and Japan Great Britain's special interest in all that concerned the security of the Indian frontier and her right to take such measures in the proximity of that frontier as she might find necessary for safeguarding her Indian possessions. This treaty was further revised on July 13, 1911, in order to adapt it to the changed conditions and a clause was then inserted in it to the effect that if either of the High Contracting Parties concluded a treaty of general arbitration with a third Power, nothing therein should entail upon such Party an obligation to go to war with the Power with whom such treaty of arbitration was in existence. The stipulation doubtless weakened the force of the alliance as such; it should be recognized, nevertheless, that it exerted a wholesome influence in preserving "the general peace in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India"; etc. Finally it was replaced by the so-called Four Power treaty concluded at Washington in December, 1921, between France, Great Britain, Japan, and the United States, whose object it is to maintain the Signatories' rights in respect of their insular possessions and dominions in the Pacific. The Alliance thus came to an end in letter, but the spirit of this time-honoured treaty remains and will remain in the most cordial friendship of the two Island Empires.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR

The war with Russia, in which Japan engaged only after repeated efforts on her part to avoid it, was brought about by an issue which not merely affected her own safety but also the common interests of the Powers concerned in the Far East. Indeed, Russia might easily have converted her position in Manchuria into a permanent one by legalizing her *de facto* posses-

slon of the territory, just as she had done in the case of her Maritime Province some forty years before. The first such attempt was made in 1900 by the conclusion of an agreement with the Tartar General Tseng of Mukden. Against this procedure on the part of the Russian Government Japan formally protested. At the same time China was urged by her, as well as by Great Britain and the United States, not to sanction the agreement. But Russia, not to be outdone, attempted a second and a third time to enter into a secret arrangement with China, and failed on each occasion owing to the vigilance and firm attitude of the Powers. The vigour with which she then pursued her end was no doubt attributable to two causes: One of these was the completion of the Siberian Railway and its branch line, the Chinese Eastern Railway, which greatly added to her strength in the Far East. The other was the extended application to the Far East, almost synchronously with the conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, of her entente with France. Thus supported by her ally, and, with the connivance of Germany, Russia soon constrained China to sign a convention by which she secured many important concessions in Manchuria. Under the strong pressure of the Powers' advice to China, Russia agreed in April, 1902, to withdraw a portion of the Russian troops there within six months, a second portion within a year, and the remainder within eighteen months. But, contrary to the expectation that Russia would keep to the agreement, her new demands on China were as much opposed to the principle of the open door in that country as her actual annexation of the occupied territory. Some of these demands were: That China should not open any free port in Manchuria; that she should not employ foreigners, except Russians, in her service in the north; that the Russo-Chinese Bank should collect the customs returns as theretofore; that Newchwang should be under Russian administration.

From the Japanese point of view, however, the Russian descent on Manchuria constituted only one half—the less important half—of the whole question. As might be surmised, the more important half was that of

Korea, where some of the keenest diplomatic battles were being fought. There the nation had to face, beside the Russians, the necessity of pressing upon the apathetic Koreans measures of reform, unless it was prepared to abandon the fruit of its victory in the recent war with China. The Mings now turned to Russia for support; and the situation thereby created was not altogether dissimilar to that which preceded that war. Korea discharged our officers in her army to appoint Russians in their place and even conceded to that Power the right to extend the Manchurian Railway into the heart of the Peninsula. These had become the basis of the Russian claims in Korea, and aroused keen apprehensions in Japan as to the intention of the Russian Government. Accordingly the so-called Komura-Waaber Agreement of May 14, 1896, and the Yamagata-Lobanoff Convention of June 9, idem, were concluded. By the first, both Japan and Russia might maintain in Korea, pending the restoration of order, a maximum force of eight hundred men for the protection of their Legations, Consulates, and commercial settlements. By the second, it was agreed that the Signatories should enjoy in Korea equal rights of residence and have advisory powers for the purpose of inaugurating a sound financial system in that country. These agreements, it was hoped by Japan, would at least serve to prevent Russia from seeking any further privileges prejudicial to her own interests. But no sooner were they signed than Russia began to violate their terms, till Japan found it necessary once more to act. The result was the Nishi-Rosen Convention of April 25, 1898, in which each Power recognized the independence of Korea and pledged itself not to lend any military or civil advisers to that country without the consent of the other. In addition Russia agreed, "in view of the great development of the commercial and industrial enterprises of Japan in Korea, as also of the considerable number of the Japanese subjects residing in that country," not to obstruct "the development of the commercial and industrial relations between Japan and Korea." However, this convention also failed in its purpose, and Russian activities in Korea became more rife than ever. Especially

did the activities of the Russian naval authorities in connection with the purchase of large tracts of land in places like Fushin and Masampo, the erection of hospital buildings, frequent visits to those ports by the Russian Pacific Squadron, and similar occurrences suggested some ulterior motive on the part of Russia—a possible acquisition on the Korean coast of a connecting link between Port Arthur and Vladivostok. What was more, she was repeating in Korea what she had done in regard to Saghalien and Manchuria; that is to say, she was sending there numerous settlers, almost all of them soldiers in mufti, in order to strengthen her position in a diplomatic and military sense.

Thus Japan was being step by step forced into war. And yet her Government clung to pacific measures, in spite of the general dissatisfaction of the people. The Japanese Minister at St. Petersburg was therefore instructed to open negotiations with the Russian Government, with a view to define their respective interests in Korea and Manchuria. His proposals were in substance: (1) Mutual engagement to respect the independence and territorial integrity of China and Korea. (2) Reciprocal recognition of Japan's preponderating interests in Korea, and Russia's special interests in Manchuria. These the Russian Government met with the following counter-proposals after much delay, during which the negotiations had been transferred to Tokyo at its instance: (1) Recognition by Japan of Manchuria and its littoral as in all respects outside her sphere of interest. (2) A neutral zone to be formed in Korea, to extend from the south of the Yalu River to the thirty-ninth parallel. Naturally these counter-proposals were regarded in Japan as indicative of Russia's lack of sincerity; but the Government, still desirous of settling the question without an appeal to arms, continued the negotiations and went so far as practically to agree to declare Manchuria and its littoral as being outside Japan's sphere of interest, provided that Russia made a similar declaration with regard to Korea. But Russia proposed in turn that Japan should not fortify the south-eastern coast of Korea. In doing so she made no reply to Japan's com-

promise, which was offered after "the most careful and serious consideration," and began to pour troops into Manchuria and to reinforce her fleet in the Far East with more battleships and cruisers from Kronstadt. It was now evident to the least astute what Russia had in view. In consequence, nothing remained for Japan but to break off the negotiations and sever diplomatic relations with Russia, which decision was followed by her declaration of war on the 10th February, 1904.

As a matter of fact, this was the first conflict, in a modern sense, between a European and an Asiatic nation, and naturally attracted very keen interest and speculation all over the world. The result was a marked victory of the Japanese forces on land and sea over the formidable army and navy of Russia. After the decisive battles of Mukden and of the Japan Sea where the Russian fleets were completely destroyed, the belligerent Powers were brought together for a peace parley at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, U.S.A., through the good offices of President Roosevelt of the United States, and thus the Russo-Japanese War was terminated by the Treaty of Portsmouth concluded on the 5th September, 1905. This treaty recognized Japan's "paramount political, military, and economic interests" in Korea; provided for the evacuation of Manchuria both by the Japanese and Russian armies; transferred to Japan the Russian lease of Port Arthur, Talien and the adjacent territory and territorial waters, as well as all rights, privileges and concessions connected therewith; transferred, also, the Russian railways in Manchuria, viz., the railway between Changchun and Port Arthur and all its branches; and secured for Japan the southern half of the Island of Saghalien up to the fiftieth parallel. Further, Russia engaged by Article XI of the treaty "to arrange with Japan for granting to Japanese subjects rights of fishery along the coasts of the Russian possessions in the Japan, Okhotsk and Behring Seas."

RELATIONS WITH FRANCE

In April, 1904, an important diplomatic event occurred in Europe. The

allusion is to the Entente Cordiale between France and Great Britain, the ally of Japan, which averted the much apprehended conflict of the two first mentioned Powers and formed a Triple Entente between Great Britain, France and Russia. It cannot be denied that the Anglo-French rapprochement had a most salutary, though incidental, effect upon the Far Eastern situation after the Russo-Japanese War—more particularly it anticipated our arrangement with France of the 10th June, 1907. This arrangement, entered into in order to eliminate from the relation of the two countries the causes of misunderstanding and thereby to consolidate them, provided in effect as follows: The Governments of Japan and France, being in agreement to respect the independence and integrity of China as well as the principle of equality of treatment in that country concerning the commerce, subjects or citizens of all nations, and having a special interest in seeing the order and peaceful state of things firmly established in regions of the Chinese Empire in the neighbourhood of territories where they have the rights of sovereignty, protection, or occupation, engage themselves for mutual support to insure peace and security in those regions, with a view to maintain the respective positions and territorial rights of the two Contracting Parties on the Continent of Asia. The arrangement was accompanied by a declaration relative to French Indo-China, where the functionaries and subjects of Japan were to be accorded, until the expiration of the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between France and Japan of August, 1896, most favoured nation treatment in so far as concerned their persons and property. Conversely, the same was to hold good in regard to the subjects and protégés of Indo-China. In August, 1911, a new Treaty of Commerce and Navigation was signed with France, and, pending its application to Indo-China, the declaration given above was to continue in force. As under the older treaty, this has had a peculiar result: for, in the absence of any treaty stipulations, our export merchandise was charged, and has remained charged, with the highest duties in that French colony. Accordingly the Japanese Ambassador at

Paris was instructed in April, 1924, after so many years' abeyance, to propose to the French Government the revision of the treaty of 1911 and the extension of its scope so as to remedy this abnormal situation. The proposal was followed by a friendly visit of the Governor-General of Indo-China, M. Merlin, to Japan in May of the same year, and by the despatch of our Special Mission headed by Prince Yamagata to return the courtesy to Indo-China in February, 1925. Subsequently it was suggested¹ by the French Government that the question should be dealt with independently from that of the revision of the existing treaty; in this suggestion the Japanese Government concurred. Negotiations, therefore, were opened at Paris, but so far no agreement on the points at issue appears to have been reached.

RELATIONS WITH THE UNITED STATES

For many years after the conclusion in 1854 of the first treaty of amity between Japan and the United States, which was the first of its kind ever signed by this country with a Western Power, the relations between the two countries were characterised by exceptional amity and friendliness. Indeed, the contributions that have been made by the United States to progress in Japan of politics, education, industry, diplomacy, etc. since Japan opened her doors to foreign intercourse are too many to enumerate here. Further, the traditional good will shown to this country by Mr. Townsend Harris and other succeeding American representatives here told most eloquently of the cordial friendship of the American people towards Japan. In recent years, however, these exemplary friendly relations have been marred by divers unpleasant complications and it is undeniable that the feelings of the two nations towards one another are not so cordial as in bygone days. A difference of opinion first arose in connection with an incident that took place in October, 1906. It related to the action of the School Board of San Francisco which, at the instigation of certain agitators opposed to the Japanese and Korean laborers, passed a resolution excluding the

children of those nationalities from the public schools under its supervision. After futile attempts to obtain justice from the local authorities, our Ambassador at Washington laid the matter before the Federal Government and was assured of its willingness to endeavor to effect an equitable adjustment of the difficulty. But the anti-Japanese elements in California prevailed upon President Roosevelt to promise that he would prohibit the influx of Japanese laborers from Hawaii and secure the restriction of Japanese immigration to the United States, provided that the segregation order of the San Francisco School Board were withdrawn. As a result, the question was settled on the lines indicated by the American Executive. Then, an understanding was reached between the Japanese and American Governments whereby Japan voluntarily engaged herself to restrain the emigration of laborers to the United States. This was the well-known "Gentlemen's Agreement" of 1907. In order, however, to avoid any future misapprehension on the subject, Japan succeeded in deleting from her Treaty of Commerce and Navigation with the United States of 1911 Article II of the treaty of 1894, which provided that "the laws, ordinances, and regulations with regard to trade, the immigration of laborers, police and public security, which are in force or may hereafter be enacted in either of the countries" were unaffected by its stipulations. By the exclusion of this article, it was understood, at least by Japan, that neither of the Contracting Parties to the treaty would resort to legislation for the regulation of immigration. At the same time a declaration was made on the part of the Japanese Government to the effect that it was prepared to maintain with equal effectiveness the limitation and control exercised by it for the past three years in regulating the emigration of laborers to the United States. It was thought that these agreements or understandings definitely put an end to the question that had caused so much uneasiness and irritation on both sides. But that was not the case. In May, 1913, the California legislature passed an Alien Land Act depriving Japanese of the right to own real property, as well as narrowly circumscribing their right to

lease land for agricultural purposes. Upon the passage of this discriminatory legislation, the Japanese Government lodged a formal protest with the Government of the United States and entered into negotiations with it in the hope that some arrangement safeguarding the rights of resident Japanese might be made. Unfortunately, no result attended these negotiations. On the other hand the "Japanese Exclusion League of California," which was not satisfied with the legislation just mentioned, sponsored and continued to campaign for a movement to appeal to the people directly for the enactment of a more stringent law in relation to land tenure. The "initiative" measure so submitted to the Californians over the head of the legislature was passed on November 2, 1920, and became operative on December 9. In addition to re-enacting the provisions of 1913, this law not only took away the right of Japanese to lease agricultural lands, but further disqualified them, in so far as the ownership of real property was in question, from being the guardians of their own children. In other words, it deprived the minors of Japanese descent, who were American citizens by virtue of their birth in America, of the benefit of their parents' guardianship concerning any landed property of which they might come into possession. A law of similar import was also passed by the State of Washington in March, 1921. Furthermore, it was decided by the Supreme Court of the United States in 1922 that a Japanese could not be naturalized under Section 2169 of the Revised Statutes of the United States. This anti-Japanese movement in the Pacific states of the United States frequently gave rise to rumors of the imminence of war between Japan and America, but the tension between both nations was greatly relieved by the conclusion of agreements respecting the limitation of naval armament and various other Pacific problems through frank and friendly pourparlers between the Japanese and American delegates at the Washington Conference. It will be perceived, however, that the reason which actuated Japan in concluding the "Gentlemen's Agreement" of 1907 and making the declaration of 1911 was none other than her desire to

relieve the United States from the embarrassing position of giving offence to the sensibilities and self-respect of a friendly Power. In fact, the American Government was fully aware of this and tacitly engaged on both occasions that it would not countenance any discrimination against the Japanese people. Notwithstanding this, it seems that the confidence of Japan that no such law would be made by the United States as a whole was unwarranted. On May 15, 1924, a bill containing a clause particularly directed against Japanese immigrants was passed by the two Houses of Congress and approved by President Coolidge eleven days later. Such legislation is tantamount to an open declaration that the Japanese, no matter what their individual merits might be, were, as such, inadmissible into the United States. Accordingly the Japanese Ambassador at Washington pointed out in his protest to the American Government, which had never questioned the efficacy of the "Gentlemen's Agreement," the injustice and un-savoury character of these measures. The memorandum of the Japanese Ambassador to the American Government dated May 31, 1924, made it clear that what she has objected to was the exclusive feature of the law. In her view, international discriminations in any form and on any subject, even if based on purely economic reasons, were opposed to the principles of justice and fairness upon which the friendly intercourse between nations must, in its final analysis, depend. Still more "unwelcome" were discriminations based on race. "Accordingly"—the same memorandum therefore concluded, and the conclusion doubtless stands today—"the Japanese Government consider it their duty to maintain and to place on record their solemn protest against the discriminatory clause in Section 13 (e) of the Immigration Act of 1924, and to request the American Government to take all possible and suitable measures for the removal of such discrimination."

It is true that resentment was felt throughout the country at the time when the bill was passed and even now is still felt in some quarters at this attitude of the United States towards Japan. However, the leaders of public opinion and thinkers in both countries

who attach supreme importance to the Japanese-American relations and are greatly concerned about the friction caused by the unfortunate incident are striving to restore the relations between the two countries to the traditional relations of harmony and concord. The promulgation of the Ordinance of November 2, 1926, concerning the execution of the Alien Land Law, by which the ownership of land in this country by foreigners is actually recognized, is, it is generally believed, intended to help to remove a cause of dispute between the two countries that has existed for many years.

JAPAN AND THE WORLD WAR

Article II of the Third Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Alliance provided that if, by reason of unprovoked attack or aggressive action, wherever arising, on the part of any Power or Powers, either High Contracting Party should be involved in war in defence of its territorial rights or special interests in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India—the other High Contracting Party would at once come to the assistance of its ally, and would conduct the war in common and make peace in mutual agreement with it. This being so, it was inevitable that Great Britain's declaration of war on Germany on August 5, 1914, should soon involve Japan in the great conflict. Apprehending such an eventuality, Japan had issued prior to this an announcement, stating that although she hoped for the restriction of the war to the areas already affected, it would be incumbent upon her to take all necessary steps in case the object of her alliance with Great Britain should be endangered. But the warning was not heeded by the Imperial German Government; and the activities of German warships in the Far East which menaced the allied overseas trade there, as well as the British request for assistance in order to cope with the situation, caused our Government to serve on Germany, on the 15th August, 1914, the following demands: (1) The German war-vessels should at once be withdrawn from the waters of the Japan and China Seas; those which could not be so withdrawn should be disarmed. (2) The German

Government, with a view to its return to China, should hand over the leased territory in Kiaochow to the Japanese Government on or before September 15, 1914, without condition and without compensation. These demands were not complied with by Germany; in consequence Japan declared war on her on the 23rd of August, the last day on which her reply was to have been received. A few days later, relations between Japan and Austria-Hungary, Germany's ally, were also severed.

At first, Japan's participation in the struggle was limited to the Far East. The immediate object of her hostile operations was the reduction of the German stronghold in Tsingtao, and this she effected in November, 1914, with the co-operation of British troops. She next occupied the German South Sea Islands north of the equator, and kept the highways of the Pacific and Indian Oceans free from German commerce raiders. Her fleet was then despatched as far as the Mediterranean, where it prosecuted the war in common with those of the allied Powers. Further, it largely devolved upon her to afford relief, in the summer of 1918, to the Czechoslovak troops in Siberia, and generally to withstand the great Russian persecution in Asia. These activities, in short, constituted her role in the World War.

Now we may turn to the Paris Peace Conference, which followed the conclusion in November, 1918, of an armistice between the allied and associated Powers on the one side and Germany and her allies on the other. The two claims made by Japan at the Conference were: (1) the adoption in the League of Nations Covenant of the principle of racial equality and (2) the transfer by Germany of her former rights in Shantung and the North Pacific. Regarding the first, our Delegation proposed an amendment to the draft Covenant to the effect that "the equality of nations being a basic principle of the League of Nations, the High Contracting Parties agree to accord, as soon as possible, to all alien nationals of States members of the League equal and just treatment in every respect, making no distinction, either in law or in fact, on account of their race or nationality." The amendment, whilst it secured a clear majority

in its favor at a meeting in which it was discussed, was strenuously opposed by the representatives of the United States and the British Overseas Dominions; it was therefore withdrawn by Japan with the reservation that she would press for its adoption in future as a principle of the League of Nations. Concerning the second point, it was somewhat curiously contended by the Chinese Delegation that the German rights in Shantung "automatically" reverted to China upon her declaration of war on Germany in August, 1917. But this contention was not sustainable especially in view of the Sino-Japanese treaty of May, 1915, wherein China, besides consenting to the extension of our lease of the Liaotung Peninsula, undertook "to give full assent to all matters upon which the Japanese Government may hereafter agree with the German Government relating to the disposition of all rights, interests and concessions which Germany, by way of treaties or otherwise possesses in relation to the Province of Shantung." The treaty of 1915—to which the Chinese Government latterly took exception as offering no quid pro quo—had become the basis of a new Sino-Japanese agreement, concluded at China's own instance in September, 1918, through which she obtained a loan from Japan for the purpose of developing her railways in Shantung. Moreover, Japan had the assurance that the claims in question would be supported by her allies in the war. They were accordingly upheld in the Versailles treaty, notwithstanding China's objections.

The treaty of Versailles, which was signed on the 28th June, 1919, and which finally re-established peace between the warring nations, provided for the cession by Germany to Japan of all rights and privileges as to Kiaochow and of the railways, mines and cables acquired by the German treaty with China of March 6, 1898, and by other agreements in regard to Shantung. All German rights to the railway from Tsingtao to Tsinanfu, and all facilities and mining rights as well as rights of exploitation, were likewise ceded to Japan; and the cables from Tsingtao to Shanghai and Chefoo (the cables free of all charges). Japan also acquired by the same treaty a mandate over the former German

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north equatorial possessions in the Pacific, including the Island of Yap. Afterwards the United States claimed that the disposition of this island had been reserved for future consideration, so that some agreement might be reached by the allied and associated Powers to place it under international control. The question, however, was settled by a mutual compromise. By the agreement arrived at in September, 1921, the United States recognized Japan's mandatory rights over these islands, while Japan, on her part, admitted the American right to erect a wireless station in Yap and the right, also, to land and use submarine cables there.

The effect of Japan's participation in the World War is far more significant in its moral influence than in its material advantages. As a result of her prudent and dignified attitude and activities at the peace conference as one of the five principal Allied and Associated Powers, her international position has been so greatly enhanced that she has now attained full recognition as a World Power in dealing with not only Oriental questions but also purely European or American affairs.

The World War, indeed, proved an epoch-making event in Japan's international relations. The most conspicuous of all its consequences was the active co-operation of the Japanese delegates to the League of Nations with the delegates of other Powers for the stabilization and promotion of peace in Europe. Not only as a leading Asiatic nation but also as one of the foremost World Powers, Japan has played, since the inception of the League, a most impartial and important role in the solution of the multifarious complicated problems of the European Continent. Further, as a result of the conclusion of the Versailles Peace Treaty, Japan's diplomatic relations with Germany and the pre-war friendly intercourse between the two nations have been resumed, attended by the gradual revival of their association, intellectual and otherwise.

A notable phase in the post-war developments of Japan's international relations is that, in a peaceful and liberty-loving spirit, she is doing her utmost to promote commercial and cultural relations with various coun-

tries, to cultivate new fields for her trade expansion which have hitherto been neglected. For instance, following the conclusion of the Lausanne Treaty, Japan entered into relations of amity with Turkey and opened an embassy in Constantinople in March, 1925. Addressing the 51st session of the Imperial Diet, the Foreign Minister Baron Shidehara said of the Turco-Japanese relations: "For the first time in history, Japan inaugurated in the course of last year (1925), an exchange of Ambassadors with Turkey. Determined as we are to remain an independent and disinterested third party in face of the tangled problem of Europe in the Near East, we indulge in the confident hope that the sentiments of good will fostered between the Turkish people and ours since the "Ertogrul" affair of 1891 will gain in strength and solidity and that a new field of enterprise for Japanese industry and commerce will be opened in Turkey and in the neighbouring regions." In 1926, Japan also established a consulate-general in Alexandria, Egypt, which was followed by the opening of a regular line to the east coast of Africa by the Osaka Shosen Kaisha (Osaka Mercantile S.S. Co.).

THE WASHINGTON CONFERENCE

Shortly after the termination of the World War, the aspirations and endeavors of American statesmen and thinkers were directed to secure a lasting peace of the world, particularly in the Pacific region.

In July, 1921, the American Government approached the Japanese Government with an inquiry as to whether it was agreeable to Japan to receive an invitation to take part in a conference to be held at Washington with a view to discussing, with the United States, Great Britain, France, and Italy, the question of the limitation of armaments. It was suggested at the same time that the discussion should embrace the Pacific and Far Eastern problems which, in the opinion of the American Government, were closely related to that question. The object of the proposed conference tallying with its own desire, the Japanese Government at once replied in the affirmative, although it thought it more expedient, in order to facilitate its

attainment, to define the nature and scope of the problems falling under the second category. The fact was duly brought to the knowledge of the American Government and an understanding regarding the matter was reached between the two. After these preliminaries, Japan participated in the conference which was formally convoked by the President of the United States on November 11, 1921, and whose session lasted till early in February, 1922.

The Conference of Washington adopted a series of important treaties, bearing on the Powers' relations with one another. These were: (1) The Treaty between the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan relating to the Limitation of Naval Armament. By this treaty Japan agreed, among other things, to limit her capital ships to 10 ships of 315,000 tons, and to maintain the status quo regarding the fortifications and naval bases in her insular territories and possessions in the Pacific, including the Kurile Islands, the Bonin Islands, Amami-Oshima, the Loochoo Islands, Formosa, and the Pescadores. (2) The Treaty between the same Powers respecting the Use of Submarines and Noxious Gases in Warfare. (3) The Treaty between the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan, except Italy, concerning their Insular Possessions and Insular Dominions in the Region of the Pacific Ocean. This treaty, which, as has already been noted above, replaced our treaty of alliance with Great Britain of the 13th July, 1911, and by which the Signatories undertake mutually to respect each other's rights in relation to their insular possessions and dominions in the Pacific, provides for a joint conference in case any Pacific question involving the said rights is not satisfactorily settled by diplomacy; and in case they are threatened by the aggressive action of any other Power, the High Contracting Parties are to communicate with each other as to measures to be taken, jointly or separately, to meet the exigencies of the situation. It is also explicitly stipulated in a supplementary treaty that the term "insular possessions and insular dominions" signifies, in its application to Japan, only the Japanese portion of Saghallen, Formosa, the

Pescadores, and the islands under mandate to Japan. (4) The Treaty between the United States, Belgium, the British Empire, China, France, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, and Portugal relating to Principles and Policies concerning China. Thereby, the Powers agreed to respect the sovereignty and independence and the territorial and administrative integrity of China, and to use their influence for the purpose of effectually establishing and maintaining the principle of equal opportunity for the commerce and industry of all nations throughout that country. They agreed, in addition, to refrain from taking advantage of conditions in China in order to seek special rights or privileges which would abridge the rights of subjects or citizens of friendly States, and from countenancing any action inimical to the security of such States. (5) The treaty between the same Powers respecting the Chinese Customs Tariff, whereby the Powers other than China consented to making such customs duties equivalent to an effective 5 per cent. ad valorem, in accordance with the existing treaties concluded by the latter with other nations. Beside these treaties, the following resolutions were adopted at Washington: A Resolution establishing a Commission of Jurists. A Resolution regarding the Sale of Ships before the Ratification of the Treaty limiting Naval Armament. A Resolution establishing a Board of Reference for the Far Eastern Question. A Resolution regarding Extraterritoriality in China. A Resolution regarding Foreign Armed Forces in China. A Resolution regarding Radio Stations in China. A Resolution regarding the Unification of Railways in China. A Resolution regarding the Reduction of Chinese Military Forces. A Resolution regarding the Chinese Eastern Railway, adopted by the Powers including China. A Resolution regarding the same, adopted by the Powers other than China.

Further, the Conference of Washington was instrumental in solving the so-called "Shantung" question. It has already been seen that the Treaty of Versailles confirmed the title of Japan to the former German leasehold in Kiaochow and such other rights and privileges which Germany had possessed in Shantung prior to the war of

1914-18. This the Japanese Government proposed, without delay, to restore to China by direct negotiations; but the proposal was for one reason or another not accepted by the Chinese Government. At length, however, the question was disposed of at Washington, largely through the good offices of the American and British representatives, by an agreement between the Governments concerned. The agreement, which was signed on February 4, 1922, provided for the restitution of the leased territory to China: the withdrawal of the Japanese troops stationed along the Tsingtao-Tsinanfu Railway and its branches; and the transfer to China of the railways, together with all the properties appurtenant thereto, including wharves, warehouses and other similar utilities. For this, China was to reimburse to Japan the sum of 53,406,141 gold Marks (this being the assessed value of the former German properties), plus the actual amount expended by Japan for permanent improvements or additions. Likewise the agreement provided for the transfer of the mines and other concessions which the treaty of peace with Germany had vested in Japan. Its provisions, by the way, were fully carried out by a Sino-Japanese Joint Commission before the end of 1922. The amount of compensation to be paid by China for the railways in Shantung was fixed at ¥40,000,000, and the rate of interest at 5 per cent. per annum. Thus, the outstanding controversy between the two neighboring countries known as the Shantung Question has been amicably settled and, as a result, the ill-feeling which had been created among the Chinese people by the dispute has considerably subsided.

RELATIONS WITH THE SOVIET RUSSIA

Before proceeding on Japan's relations with Russia during and after the World War, we may recur to the Treaty of Portsmouth which restored peace between the two Powers. The opening article of this historic document reads: "There shall henceforth be peace and amity between Their Majesties the Emperor of Japan and the Emperor of all the Russias and between Their respective States and Subjects." And the Russians became

more appreciative of Japan and the Japanese people after the War of 1904-5 than before it, inasmuch that within a month after the conclusion of the Franco-Japanese convention of 1907, a similar convention promoting good neighborliness between them was concluded. In this convention they engaged mutually to respect each other's territorial integrity and rights with special reference to China; and promised to recognize the independence and territorial integrity of China and maintain and defend by all pacific means at their disposal the status quo and the doctrine of equal opportunity there for the commerce and industry of all nations. The agreement was somewhat amplified in 1910 by a new convention, according to which they were to co-operate for the improvement of their railway service in Manchuria and to avoid all competition detrimental to the realization of that end and to respect the maintenance of the status quo in Manchuria and to consult each other as to measures to be taken therefor. Such being the friendly sentiments subsisting between the two Empires, it was only natural that Japan should go the length of extending, during the early stage of the World War, financial and other assistance to her co-belligerent and ally. In 1916, moreover, they concluded yet a third convention, providing in effect that neither of them would be a party to any arrangement or political combination directed against the other; and that, in case their duly recognized territorial rights and special interests in the Far East should be menaced, they would concert on measures required for the safeguarding and defence of those rights and interests. Nevertheless, the Russian revolution of the following year and the events transpiring in the sequel made it necessary for Japan to take cognizance of the situation so created by the de facto authorities of Russia. It was on account of this that Japan undertook in August, 1918, after complete accord had been reached with the allied and associated Powers, the task rescuing the Czecho-Slovaks stranded in Siberia. This task Japan and the allied Powers accomplished; and the latter withdrew their expeditionary forces in the course of the year 1920. Then occurred an incident

which stirred the people of Japan very deeply. It was the wholesale massacre at Nikolaievsk of more than seven hundred Japanese, including women and children, as well as the Japanese Consul, his family and official staff. Considering the unsettled state of affairs in Russia, there appeared to be no alternative for Japan but to occupy, as a measure of reprisal and till she could obtain redress from a responsible Government, certain points in the Russian portion of Saghalien. Not only this, but the incident urgently called for the protection of Japanese lives and property in various parts of Siberia. Again, the chaos obtaining there was taken advantage of by the outlaw Koreans in the districts around Vladivostok and Nikol'sk to threaten the security of the Korean frontier, and to commit acts of conspiracy against the constituted authorities of their native land. These considerations obliged Japan also to maintain, regardless of the large expenditure it entailed, an adequate force in Siberia in self-protection; and it was more than two years after the allied evacuation of the country that she was enabled to withdraw the last of her troops in the Maritime Province.

Consequently Japan endeavored as soon as an opportunity was offered to readjust her relations with the Soviet Russia. With a view to this, but in vain, negotiations were conducted at Dairen, Changchun, and Tokyo at various dates between 1921-23. It is not doubted that the Japanese efforts in this direction paved the way for the eventual conference of the Soviet-Japanese representatives at Peking, where at last they succeeded in signing on January 20, 1925, a convention embodying the basic rules of their future relations. The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics acknowledges in the present convention—which established diplomatic connections between the two countries—that "the treaty of Portsmouth of September 5, 1905, shall remain in full force." Besides, it was agreed by the Governments of the High Contracting Parties that the Fishery Convention of 1907, based on Article XI of the Treaty of Portsmouth, might be revised; that a treaty of commerce and navigation should be concluded in conformity with the fol-

lowing principles, which, pending the conclusion of such a treaty, should also regulate the general intercourse between the two countries, to wit: (1) The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall, in accordance with the law of the country, have full liberty (a) to enter, travel and reside in the territories of the other, and (b) to enjoy constant and complete protection for the safety of their lives and property. (2) Each of the High Contracting Parties shall in accordance with the law of the country accord in its territories to the subjects or citizens of the other, "to the widest possible extent and on condition of reciprocity, the right of private ownership and the liberty to engage in commerce, navigation, industries, and other peaceful pursuits." (3) Without prejudice to the rights of each Contracting Party to regulate by its own laws the system of international trade in its domains, it is understood that neither Contracting Party shall apply in discrimination against the other Party any measures of prohibition, restriction or impost which may tend to hamper the growth of the intercourse, economic or otherwise, between them, it being the intention of both Parties to place the commerce, navigation and industry of each, as far as possible, on the footing of the most favored nation. Article V of the convention stipulates: "The High Contracting Parties solemnly affirm their desire and intention to live in peace and amity with each other, scrupulously to respect the undoubted right of a State, to order its own life within its own jurisdiction in its own way, to refrain and restrain all persons in any governmental service for them, and all organizations in receipt of any financial assistance from them, from any act, overt or covert, liable in any way whatever to endanger the order and security in any part of the territories of Japan or the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. It is further agreed that neither Contracting Party shall permit the presence in the territories under its jurisdiction—(a) of organizations or groups pretending to be the Government for any part of the territories of the other Party, or (b) of alien subjects or citizens who may be found to be actually carrying on political activities for such organiza-

tions or groups." Two protocols have been appended to the convention: The Protocol (A) reserves for adjustment at subsequent negotiation between the High Contracting Parties "all questions of debts due to the Government or subjects of Japan on account of public loans and Treasury bills issued by the former Tsarist Government of Russia and the Provisional Government which succeeded it," provided that in adjusting such questions the former shall not, all other conditions being equal, be placed in any position less favorable than that which the Government of the Soviet Union may accord to any other Government or nationals on similar questions; and contains a declaration that there exists between them "no treaty or agreement of military alliance or any other secret agreement which either of them has entered into with any third Party and which constitutes an infringement upon, or menace to the sovereignty, territorial rights or national safety of the other Contracting Party." It also provides, and the provision has already been executed by Japan early in May, 1925, for the evacuation by her troops of North Saghalien. In turn, the Plenipotentiary of the Soviet Union tenders to the Government of Japan, in a note annexed to the Convention of January 20th, "an expression of sincere regrets for the Nikolalevsk incident of 1920." In the Protocol (B) the Government of the Soviet Union agrees to grant to Japanese concerns certain privileges "for the exploitation of minerals, forests and other resources" (details as to these have been left for subsequent arrangement), to waive the right to charge import and export duties on "any articles, minerals or products needed for or obtained from such enterprises," and not to collect from or impose on the latter "any such taxation or restriction as may in fact render their remunerative working impossible." Ratification of the convention above implies the ratification of these protocols. This Japan has effected on the 25th February, 1925.

RECENT RELATIONS WITH CHINA

1. **The Twenty-One Demands.**—Japan presented to China on January 8, 1915 four groups of demands (14

articles) and a group of wishes (7 articles) which are loosely called the Twenty One Demands. In the then prevailing state of things in world politics, there was nothing alarming about the step taken by Japan, for there was nothing new or unprecedented in the set of demands and wishes presented. The method of procedure adopted by Japan may not have been of the wisest, the advisability of presenting the group of wishes along with the demands being questioned even by critics who otherwise entirely approve of the diplomacy of 1915. The wisdom or the necessity of presenting an ultimatum is also questioned by many. That the demands themselves were reasonable and justifiable may be best shown by the fact that no question was raised to the Treaties of 1915 by any of the Powers interested not excepting the United States which had found sixteen of the original twenty-one articles quite unobjectionable, those to which she had intimated objection being four of the seven articles coming under the group of wishes and the article concerning non-alienation of ports and islands. Japan having acceded to the American suggestions in every case there was absolutely nothing in the treaties that resulted of which the American Government had expressed the slightest disapproval.

Out of the original twenty-one articles, seven falling under Group V which at the time of the negotiations of 1915 Japan had reserved for later discussions were abandoned at the Washington Conference; the four articles concerning Shantung were terminated by the Shantung Settlement of 1922; of the seven articles concerning Manchuria and Mongolia those providing for Japan's option in regard to railway loans and for the employment of Japanese advisers were given up at the Washington Conference and the article concerning the Kirin-Changchun Railway was disposed of by the revision of the loan agreement for the said railway; of the two articles concerning Hanyeping iron mines that which concerned other mines in the vicinity was abandoned at the time of the original negotiations of 1915; the article concerning non-alienation of ports and islands was disposed of

at the time by China making a declaration to that effect of her own accord.

Thus only five of the so-called twenty-one demands now remain in force, in modified form, as agreement between Japan and China. They are those extending the term of the lease of Port Arthur and Dalren and the term respecting the South Manchuria Railway and the Antung-Mukden Railway; those permitting Japanese subjects to lease land, to reside, travel and carry on business of various kinds and granting them the right of mining in South Manchuria; and one of the original two articles concerning the Hanyeping mines.

2. **Special interests.**—Japan has special interests in China which arise from her peculiarly close relationship with China geographically, politically and economically. While mention has been made in the past of these special interests in her treaties and agreements with other foreign Governments, it was in the nature of a mere statement of fact and not an admission on the part of those Governments of any special privileges belonging to Japan on account of her position vis-a-vis China. On the other hand, the fact that Japan is interested in the affairs of China as no other power is cannot be changed by a stroke of the pen. In the days before the Great War, when the integrity of China was so often and so obviously menaced from without, Japan had on every occasion to lay stress on this peculiar relationship subsisting between herself and China. Many of the courses of policy she has followed in the past become intelligible only in this light. Owing to the change of attitude on the part of other powers towards China subsequently to the War a new situation has arisen in this part of the world which warrants and even necessitates a reorientation on the part of Japan of her policy towards China. The many important concessions which she made at the Washington Conference with regard to China and the discarding of the Ishii-Lansing Agreement all form part of her new China policy. In the absence of any external menace to China's independence and integrity the need has disappeared for Japan

to proclaim her interest in these matters, or to continue to occupy a position assumed in preparation for the worst eventualities which might have materialized. She can now afford to stand by and let China work out her own problems in her own way, for in the nature of things, the thesis of special interests had in view, not China herself, but other extraneous powers which might have menaced the existence of China and eventually that of Japan.

3. **Protection of Interests and Manchuria.**—In face of the incessant strife and civil war which has been rife in China ever since the revolution of 1912, Japan has always observed an attitude of neutrality, strictly refraining from affording assistance to any of the contending factions. These internal troubles in China, however, have almost invariably involved injury to the person and property of foreigners; non-interference in China's domestic affairs is one thing and the protection of foreign lives and property quite another. In glaring cases such as those of Hankow, Nanking and Tsinan, foreign Governments were compelled to intervene in order to protect their people. If the Japanese Government has had to despatch war vessels and troops to China oftener than other Governments it is only because Japanese rights and interests have been oftener victimized through untoward occurrences or unwarranted attacks. In this regard Japan's attitude and policy do not in the least differ from those of any other self-respecting power interested in China. There is, for instance, nothing to distinguish the Tsinan incident, in character if not in magnitude, from that of Nanking. That is clearly shown by the entire course of the negotiations, by the demands and counter demands, the terms of final settlement, etc.

It is in respect of her rights and interests in Manchuria that Japan assumes a characteristic attitude of her own. While in China proper her interests are mainly commercial, Japan looks upon Manchuria with a concern which does not spring simply from the importance she attaches to her vested interests in the district. The entire Japanese people, irrespec-

tive of party, are at the back of a Government which is prepared to adopt measures regarding Manchuria which might scarcely be justifiable if applied to China proper. The declaration of the Tanaka Government, both in and out of parliament, that it was their determination to see that Manchuria offered "a safe abode for both natives and foreigners" elicited criticism from leaders of liberal thought, Baron Shidehara among the rest. But it was Baron Shidehara himself who as Minister of Foreign Affairs permitted the despatch of troops from Korea in 1925 to re-enforce the railway patrols, when the Fengtien general, Kuo Sung-ling, rose against Marshal Chang Tso-lin. As a matter of fact, no Government in Japan that should allow any extended disturbance to proceed unchecked in Manchuria would be able to survive the popular uproar that would promptly arise in this country. This attitude of Japan's towards Manchuria was enunciated in the 56th session (1928-29) of the Imperial Diet by Baron Tanaka in his capacity of Foreign Minister in a speech which contained the following passage:—

"I feel bound to say a few words about our position in Manchuria as distinguished from the rest of China. In view of the political and strategic importance which it bears to Japan on account of its geographic contiguity with our territory and considering the historic significance which it possesses in that the region was restored to China by Japan at the risk of her national existence from the aggressive grip of Tsarist Russia, it is quite natural that the sentiment of the Japanese people toward Manchuria should be peculiarly keen, and entirely different from that which exists towards any other part of China. Furthermore, more than a million Japanese subjects reside in the region today and Japan has many important rights and interests there. The interest and concern with which the Japanese people have come to regard the affairs of Manchuria should therefore not cause the least wonder. It goes without saying that the Japanese Government will respect the sovereignty of China over Manchuria, will do all in their power for the preservation of the

principles of the open door and equal opportunity, and desire that the region should offer a safe abode for both natives and foreigners. They are, at the same time, fully determined to take appropriate steps should a state of affairs arise in Manchuria which should disturb the tranquillity of the locality and thus put Japan's vital interests in jeopardy."

Thus it will be seen that what we have stated above concerning the theory of special interests in its general application is not in strict keeping with the facts, so far as Manchuria is concerned. For it would be idle to say that the very keen interest which Japan feels in Manchurian affairs is due only to the vast material interests she possesses there. In the mind of the Japanese people the safety of Manchuria both from external menace and from internal disruption is bound up with the national safety of Japan herself.

JAPAN AND THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Japan's position as a member of the League of Nations is seriously at a disadvantage owing to the fact that the United States and Soviet Russia, Japan's neighbors, are not its members. Anyhow, as a member from the first, Japan has been successively represented in the Council and the Assembly by Viscount Ishii, Baron Matsu and Ambassador Dr. Adachi, while at present Dr. Yotaro Sugimura, as successor to Dr. Inazō Nitobe, occupies the post of Vice-Chief in the Secretariat of the League at Geneva. At home a special section has been established in the Foreign Office to attend to the affairs relating to the League.

Then with the object of propagating the ideal of the League and supporting its work the League of Nations Association of Japan was organized in Tokyo in April 1920, and already its roll of membership numbers about 5,000, the annual expenditure of the association reaching ¥100,000. (Hon. Pres., Prince I. Tokugawa and Pres. Viscount E. Shibusawa).

With the extension of the sphere of activities of the League us to embrace such fundamental problems

as international economic conference, arbitration and safety question, etc., and with the coming forward of the United States, Soviet Russia and other powers outside the League to support its cause, the Secretariat of the League established in 1923 the Far Eastern Epidemiological Intelligence Bureau in Singapore for collecting and distributing reports concerning the prevention

of epidemics in the Far Eastern countries with Japan as centre. The creation in 1926 of a branch office in Tokyo of the Intelligence Bureau at Geneva may also be mentioned to demonstrate how Japan, though situated in Far Eastern corner, is doing her best to advance the cause of the League. The Chief of the Tokyo branch office is Setsuichi Aoki.

DIPLOMATIC & CONSULAR SERVICE

Foreign Embassies in Tokyo

- Belgium.** 33, Shimonban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 3556)
Ambassador—Baron Albert de Bassompierre.
1st Secretary—Viscount Joseph Berryer; Eleeve-Interpreter—Ferdinand Buckens.
- Brazil.** 2 Omote-cho 3-chome, Akasaka-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 5584)
Ambassador—Hippolyte Alves d'Araujo.
1st Secretary—C. E. Latorre Lisboa; 2nd Secretary—J. B. Berenguer Cesar; Naval Attache—Com. Augusto Alves d'Araujo.
- France.** 3 Hiroo-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Takanawa 5513)
Ambassador—Count Damien de Martel.
Counsellor—J. F. A. Dobler.
Secretary—Jean Baelen (absent); Attache—O. Gassouin; Premier Interpreter—G. Bonmarchand; Attache chiffreur—Jean Lortat-Jacob; Naval Attache—Capt. de Fregate J. Rosati; Military Attache—Com. d'Infanterie Brevete; Commercial Attache—R. Royer.
- Germany.** 14 Nagata-cho Itchome, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 3033, 4159, 4198)
Ambassador—Dr. E. A. Voretzsch.
Counsellors—Dr. O. von Erdmannsdorff, Dr. H. Kolb (Counsellor of Legation); Commercial Secretary—Dr. K. Knoll; Secretary—Dr. Graf R. Strachwitz; Chancellor—H. Schultze; Secretaries of Consulate—G. Schneider, J. Altendorf, F. Wussow.
- Great Britain.** 1 Goban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 2706, 2707)
- Naval & Military Attaches' Office:—1 Goban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 59).
Commercial Counsellor's Office:—Goban-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Kudan 2707).
Ambassador—(Absent)
Counsellor—T. M. Snow (Charge d'Affairs).
Counsellor—W. B. Cunningham.
Naval Attache—Capt. M. G. Bentick Legge; Military Attache—Lt.-Col. H. J. Simson; Commercial Counsellor—G. B. Sansom; 1st Secretary—W. R. C. Green; 2nd Secretary—W. J. Davies; Assist. Naval Attache—Com. C. B. Evington; Commercial Secretary—H. A. Macrae; 3rd Secretaries—P. Broad, R. H. S. Allen; Hon. Attaches—Maj. W. J. F. Craig, Capt. D. A. Hutchings, Capt. E. Ainger, Capt. F. C. W. Steed, Lt. S. R. Hunt, Lt. R. J. Walker, Lt. C. R. Boxer; Student Interpreters—D. F. MacDermot, W. W. MacVitie, L. H. Whittall, etc.
- Italy.** 4 Urakasumigaseki, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 4322)
Ambassador—Giovanni Cesare Majoni.
Counsellor—Leone Wellschott.
1st Secretary—Livio Garbaccio; Mil., Aero & Naval Attache—Col. Enrico Frattini; Secretary—G. Garbaccio.
- U.S.S.R.** 1 Mamiya-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 8086, 8087)
Ambassador—Alexandre Troianovsky.
Commercial Counsellor—Paul Anikeleff; Military Attache—Com. Vitali Primakoff; Naval Attache—Com. Nicolas Bologoff; 1st Secre-

tarles—Joel Choubine; 2nd Secretary—Vladimir Jelenznyakoff; Japanese Secretary—Eugene Spalwingk.

Turkey. 47 Kamiyama, Shibuya-machi, Tokyo. (Tel. Aoyama 4520)
Chancery:—61 Shoto, Shibuya-machi.
Ambassador—H. Djevad Bey.
Chancellor—Talaat Reouf Bey; 1st Secretary—Selahattin Refet Bey.

United States of America. Tokyo Bldg. 1 Uchiyamashita-cho Itchome, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 116)
Commercial Attaches' Office:—Teikoku Seimei-kan, Marunouchi. (Tel. Marunouchi 3690).
Military Attaches' Office:—13-c. Reinanzaka, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 3399)
Naval Attaches' Office:—13 Reinanzaka, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 5760).

Foreign Legations in Tokyo

Argentina. 11 Konno, Shibuya-machi. (Tel. Aoyama 4275)
Minister—Dr. Mario Luiz de los Llanos.
Secretary—Dr. Octavio Pinto.

Canada. Teikoku Seimei Bldg., Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Marunouchi 1907).
Minister—Herbert M. Marler.
1st Secretary—Dr. Hugh L. Keenleyside; 1st Secy. & Com. Secretary—James A. Langley; 2nd Secretary—Kenneth P. Kirkwood.

Chili. Imperial Hotel, Tokyo.
Minister—Enrique Gallardo Nieto.
Military Attache—Lt.-Col. Arturo Espanosa; Commercial Counsellor—A. Rose Innes.

China. 14, 6-chome, Iigura-machi, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 8098, 8099).
Minister—Yongpao Ouang.
Counsellor—Chiang Hung-Geh.
2nd Secretaries—S. E. Cheng, C. Sun; 3rd Secretary—H. L. Yang; Attache—Houang Ke Louen; Military Attache—Gen. Yo K'ai-Hsien (absent); Naval Attache—Capt. Lin Kwon-Ken (absent).

Czechoslovakia. 67 Tansu-machi, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 0183)

Ambassador—William Cameron Forbes.

Counsellor—Edwin L. Neville.

Naval Attache—Capt. G. V. Ogan; Mil. Attache—Lt.-Col. J. G. MacIlroy; Commercial Attache—H. A. Butts (absent); 1st Secretary—E. H. Dooman; 2nd Secretary—L. E. Salisbury; Assist. Mil. Attaches—1st-Lt. T. G. Cranford; Assist. Naval Attache—Lt. C. F. B. Melendy; 3rd Secretaries—W. T. Turner, K. F. Potter; Assist. Commercial Attache—J. H. Ehlers; Attaches—Capt. A. Swift, Capt. T. C. Rote, 1st-Lt. J. Weckerling, 1st-Lt. C. A. Horne, 1st-Lt. E. C. Engelhart, 1st-Lt. M. Pierson, Lt. K. D. Ringle, Lt. T. B. Birtley, Lt. E. Watts, 2nd-Lt. F. P. Pyzick, etc.

Minister's Residence:—22 Kasumi-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 7704).

Minister—Karel Halla.
1st Secretary—Milos Krupka; Chancellor—Antonin Volny.

Denmark. 8 Marunouchi Naka-dori. (Tel. Marunouchi 967)
Minister—Henrik de Kauffmann.
Counsellor—Poul Scheel (absent).
Attache—Thorbjorn Moller.

Finland. 62 Tansu-machi, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Akasaka 205).
Minister—
Charge d'Affaires—George Winckelmann.
Com. Attache—Helge de Knorring; Translator—Bunsai Hibi.

Mexico. 20-21 Nagata-cho 2-chome, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 4699)
Minister—Dr. Miguel Alonzo-Romero.
1st Secretary—Carlos A. Baumbach; Interpreter—Bunsai Hibi.

Netherlands. 1 Sakae-cho, Shiba-ku. (Tel. Shiba 130)
Minister—Gen. J. C. Pabst.
Secretary—Dr. P. D. E. Teixeira de Mattos; Secretary-Interpreters—J. B. Snellen, R. W. Besler; Chancellor—J. W. Bode.

Norway. 12 Marunouchi 3-chome,

Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Marunouchi 926)
Minister—Ludvig Caesar Martin Aubert (absent).

1st Secretary—E. Lodrup (Charge d'Affaires).

Persia. 55 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo.

Minister—H. K. Mossoed.
Secretary—M. A. Mohammad Khan Scheybany.

Peru. Taihei Bldg., Uchisaiwai-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 5780)

Minister—Manuel Elias Bonnemaison (absent).
2nd Secretary—Guillermo Martinez Rodriguez (Charge d'Affaires).

Poland. 55 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Minister, Aoyama 7402; Mil. Attache, Aoyama 6352; Chancery, Aoyama 6540).

Minister—Zdzislaw Okecki.
Counsellor—Dr. Jean Fryling (Charge d'Affaires).

Counsellor—Antonio Jazdzewski.
Military & Naval Attache—Maj. H. Rajchman-Floyar; Mil. Attache—Cap. A. Slosarczyk; Consular Attache & Chief of Consular Dept.—Dr. Eugene Banasinski.

Portugal. 1 Sannen-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 5710).
Minister—Jose da Costa Carneiro (absent).

Charge d'Affaires—A. Carreiro de Freitas.

Rumania. Imperial Hotel, 11-chome, Uchiyamashita-cho, Kojimachi-ku. (Tel. Ginza 6005)

Charge d'Affaires—Georges G. Stoicesco (Counsellor).
1st Secretary—M. Nicolau.

Siam. 762 Sendagaya. (Tel. Aoyama 4337)

Minister—Phya Subarn Sompat.
2nd Secretary—Luang Bovara Sneha (Charge d'Affaires); 3rd Secretary—Luang Vacha Sunthorn; Attache—Khun Sunthorn Vathakitch.

Spain. 2 Ichibei-cho Itchome, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 7475)

Minister—
Counsellor—Luis Dupuy de Lome y Vidiella (absent).
2nd Secretary—Comte de Serramagna (Charge d'Affaires).

Sweden. 63 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku. (Tel. Aoyama 5770)

Minister—Dr. J. E. Hultman.
1st Secretary—Wadar Bagge (absent); Interpreter—Vice-Consul John Widenfelt.

Switzerland. 35 Shingu-dori 2-chome, Shibuya-machi. (Tel. Aoyama 2202)
Minister—M. Emile Traversini.
Chancellor—Walter Spycher.

Foreign Consulates in Japan

Argentina:

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

Austria:

Tokyo.....Ernst Starri (H.G.C.)

Belgium:

Dairen.....Tomio Wada (H.V.C.)
Keijo.....H. W. Davidson (H.C.)
Kobe.....Henri Melchior (H.C.)
Nagasaki.....Jules Vachler (H.C.)
Osaka.....K. Inabata (H.C.)
Yokohama.....A. Ronvaux (absent)
H. N. Arcouet (H.C.)

Bolivia:

Kobe.....G. Takigawa (H.C.)
Osaka.....K. Inabata (H.C.)
Yokohama.....T. Ono (H.C.G.)

Brazil:

Kobe.....M. C. W. Vieira (C.)
P. V. Couto (H.V.C.); R. Tawara (A.C.)
Nagasaki.....Y. Ota (H.V.C.)
Yokohama—Leonardo Olavo da Silva Castro (C.G.) (absent); Abranches Pinto (H.V.C.)

Chili:

Kobe.....Carlos A. Lavandero (C.)
Yokohama.....S. Ossa (Charge of Consulate General)

China:

Fusan.....T. N. Tsiang (C.)
Gensen.....Ma Young Fa (C.)
Jinsen.....Huang Chen Shou (C.)
Keijo.....Ouag So Sain (C.G.)
Kobe.....Tcheo Tchue (C.G.)
Nagasaki.....Lin Cheng-Po (C.)
Shingishu.....Chow She Ki (V.C.)

- Yokohama...Ouang Yang Pao (C.G.)
- Czechoslovakia:**
Tokyo...Antonin Raymond (H.C.);
O. Mojzlek (Secretary)
Yokohama...S. Isaacs (H.C.)
Osaka...J. L. Waelchli (H.C.);
J. Fierlinger (Secy)
- Denmark:**
Kobe...R. W. Pearce (Charge of C.)
Nagasaki...H. B. Hitchcock (")
Osaka...G. Akselbo (C.)
Tokyo...A. H. Hansen (C.)
Yokohama... (attended to by Danish
Legation in Tokyo)
- Finland:**
Dairen...Paul Pansing (H.V.C.)
- France:**
Keijo...R. Germain (absent);
Francis Guezennec (act.)
Kobe...A. Hauchecorne (C.)
Nagasaki...V. Vachier (A.C.)
Yokohama...Merie de Bellefon (C.)
Pierre Depeyre (V.C.)
- Germany:**
Dairen...W. Dirks (C.)
Kobe...Dr. E. Ohrt (C.G.); Dr.
Bischoff (C.); Schmaltz (V.C.)
Osaka...Dr. H. W. Ronde (C.)
Yokohama...R. Buttman (C.)
- Great Britain:**
Dairen...M. E. Denning (C.)
Seoul...Oswald White (C.G.);
C. H. Archer (V.C.)
Kobe...R. McP. Austin (A.C.G.);
H. A. Graves (V.C.)
Nagasaki...F. C. Greatrex (C.)
Osaka...R. L. Cowley (A.C.)
Tamsui...A. R. Ovens (C.)
Tokyo...P. D. Butler (C.)
Yokohama...E. H. Holmes (C.G.);
H. H. Thomas (V.C.)
- Greece:**
Kobe...H. C. Macnaughton (H.C.);
D. M. Young (H.V.C.)
Yokohama...W. H. L. Warrenner (C.)
- Honduras:**
Kobe...W. Bastel (H.C.)
Tokyo...K. Ito (H.C.G.)
Yokohama...D. A. R. Innes (H.C.)
- Italy:**
Keijo (Seoul)... (in charge of British
Consulate)
Kobe...Commander A. Gasco (C.G.)
Nagasaki... (in charge of British
Consulate)
Yokohama...A. de Prospero (C.)
- Mexico:**
Kobe...D. Latuf (H.C.)
Tokyo...K. Ito (H.C.)
Yokohama...F. H. Ajuria (Charge of
C.G.)
- Netherlands:**
Dairen...W. H. Winning (H.V.C.)
Seoul...Marcel Chalm (V.C.)
Kobe...C. S. Lechner (C.G.); W. H.
de Roos (C.)
Nagasaki...F. C. Greatrex (V.C.)
Nagoya...S. Ishihara (V.C.)
Taihoku...G. C. Worrall (V.C.)
Tokyo...J. W. Bode (V.C.)
Yokohama...M. S. Wiersum (C.)
- Norway:**
Kobe...T. B. Gansmoe (H.C.)
Nagasaki...S. A. Ringer (H.C.)
Shimonoseki...R. McKenzie (H.V.C.)
Tokyo...C. N. B. Aall (H.C.)
Yokohama...R. C. Graff (H.C.)
(absent); J. S. McCann (Act. C.)
Tamsui (Taiwan) in charge of British
Consulate.
- Paraguay:**—O. Shibata (H.C.)
- Peru:**
Kobe...D. M. R. Iglesias (C.)
Yokohama...Eduardo Herrera (C.)
- Portugal:**
Kyoto...K. Inabata (H.V.C.)
Kobe...Francisco X. da Silva E. Sousa
(H.C.)
Mojl...H. Nutter (H.V.C.)
Nagasaki...S. A. Ringer (H.V.C.)
(absent)
Nagoya...M. Ito (H.V.C.)
Osaka...T. Fujisawa (H.V.C.)
Shimonoseki...H. Nutter (V.C.)
Yokohama...Theotonio Maria Graca
da Cruz (H.C.) (absent); J. A.
Pinto (H.V.C.)
- Rumania:**
Osaka...K. Inabata (H.C.G.)
- Siam:**
Osaka...Isaburo Azumi (H.C.);
Etsutaro Azumi (H.V.C.)
- Spain:**
Kobe...Manuel de la Escosura y
Fuertes (C.)
Tokyo & Yokohama...Don Juan Planas
Canameros (H.V.C.)
- Sweden:**
Dairen...W. H. Winning (C.)
Yokohama...Oscar Strome (C.)
Kobe & Osaka...H. W. A. Ouchterlony
(C.)
Shimonoseki & Mojil...R. Mackenzie
(V.C.)

- Nagasaki...F. E. Ringer (Act. V.C.)
- Turkey:**
Yokohama...Zen-ichiro Hara (H.C.)
Osaka...H. Mori (H.C.)
- Urguay:**...T. Ishizawa (H.C.)
- U.S.A.:**
Dairen...W. R. Langdon (C.)
Keijo...R. S. Miller (C.G.);
C. H. Stephan (V.C.)
Kobe...E. R. Eickover (C.); S. Talbot
(C.); G. J. Haering (V.C.); K. F.
Potter (V.C.); B. Lancaster (V.C.);
O. W. Rhoades (V.C.)
Nagasaki...H. B. Hitchcock (C.)
W. Young (V.C.)
Nagoya...A. R. Preston, Jr. (V.C.)
Taihoku...W. F. Nason (V.C.-in-
Charge)
Tokyo...G. H. Kemper (V.C.-in-
Charge); Leo D. Sturgeon (C.);
C. L. DeVault (C.); C. S. Read
(V.C.); H. M. Benninghoff (V.C.)
Yokohama...L. N. Green (C.-in-
Charge); W. T. Turner (V.C.); R.
B. Jordan (V.C.); G. E. Aurell
(V.C.)
- U.S.S.R.:**
Dairen...Jean Jurba (C.)
Hakodate...Dmitri Kiseleff (C.)
Keijo...Jean Tchitchaev (C.G.)
Kobe...Arkadi Askoff (C.G.)
Otaru...Nicolas Lubimoff (V.C.)
Tokyo...N. Tikhmeneff (Charge of
C.G.)
Tsuruga...Victor Domidoff (C.)
- Venezuela:**
Tokyo...Bunshiro Hattori (H.C.)
Kobe...I. Bickart (H.C.)
- N.B.—H.C.—Honorary Consul. C.G.—Consul-General. C.—Consul. V.C.—
Vice-Consul. H.V.C.—Honorary Vice-Consul. A.C.—Acting Consul.
C.A.—Consular Agent.

Japanese Embassies Abroad

- Belgium.** (Embassy at Brussels). 1
Boulevard General, Jacques,
Bruxelles.
Ambassador—Matsuzo Nagai.
Counsellor—H. Ashida.
2nd Secretary—H. Kawamura; 3rd
Secretaries—T. Okubo, S. Motono;
M. Inouye.
- Brazil.** (Embassy at Rio de Janeiro).
82 Rua dos Voluntarios da Patria.
Ambassador—A. Ariyoshi (Act.)
1st Secretaries—E. Nulta; R. Noda;
3rd Secretaries—T. Tsukamoto; B.
K. Fujii; 1st Interpreter—S.
Hayao; Naval Attache—Capt. K.
Yukishita.
- France.** (Embassy at Paris). 42 Rue
Greuze, Paris.
Ambassador—Kenkichi Yoshizawa.
Counsellor—H. Kawai; 1st Secre-
tary—S. Kuriyama; 2nd Secretaries
—K. Kano, T. Yanai; 3rd Secre-
taries—S. Shibuzawa, S. Matsu-
moto; Jun. Secretaries—T. Tamaki,
R. Moriyama, K. Hishigawa, G.
Sano; Mil. Attache—Maj.-Gen. Y.
Nakaoka; Naval Attache—Com. G.
Mitsukawa, Com. K. Inuzuka.
- Germany.** (Embassy at Berlin). Ber-
lin Charlottenburg Ahornstr. 1,
Deutschland.
Ambassador—Dr. S. Nagaoka.
Counsellor—S. Togo; 1st Secretary—
S. Tomii; 2nd Secretary—M.
Shichida; 3rd Secretaries—R.
Suzuki, I. Kamayama, M. Kanda,
K. Umase; Com. Secretary—A.
Nagai; Mil. Attache—Lt.-Col. M.
Kawabe; Naval Attache—Capt.
N. Nomura.
- Great Britain.** (Embassy at London).
37, Portman Square, London, W. I.
Ambassador—Tsuneo Matsudaira.
Counsellor—Y. Hori.
1st Secretaries—K. Fujii, S. Naka-
yama, Y. Sawada; 2nd Secretaries
—Y. Muto, K. Yamamoto; 3rd
Secretaries—T. Ishizawa, K.
Kilno; Com. Counsellor—S. Matsu-
yama; Com. Secretaries—A. Hara,
T. Wakamatsu; Mil. Attache—Lt.-
Col. G. Homma; Naval Attache
—Capt. Prince T. Shimazu, Lt.-
Com. M. Nishida (ass't.)
- Italy.** (Embassy at Rome). 49, Piazza
del Gesu, Roma.
Ambassador—Dr. D. Matsuda.
Counsellor—K. Kuwajima.
1st Secretary—S. Yoshizawa; 2nd
Secretary—N. Ogawa; 3rd Secre-
tary—S. Akiyama; 2nd Interpreter
—K. Inouye; Military Attache—

Lt.-Col. M. Okada; Naval Attache—Capt. N. Inouye, Com. M. Niwa.

Turkey. (Embassy at Constantinople). Ayaz Pacha 77, Pera, Stamboul. Ambassador—Isaburo Yoshida (Act.). Counsellor—H. Futagame. 2nd Secretary—I. Kumabe; Commercial Secretary—S. Moto; Jun. Secretary—T. Takazawa; 1st Interpreter—T. Naito; Mil. Attache—Lt.-Col. Y. Imura.

U.S.A. (Embassy at Washington). 1600 Rhode Island Ave., Washington, D.C. Ambassador—Katsuji Debuchi. Counsellor—K. Horiuchi. 1st Secretaries—S. Kato; K. Misawa; 2nd Secretaries—T. Hachiya, K.

Gunji, S. Kase; 3rd Secretaries—Y. Tanaka, K. Maki; Commercial Secretary—Y. Sudo; Jun. Secretary—Y. Sekoo; Mil. Attache—Col. K. Washizu; Naval Attache—Capt. T. Sakano, Lt.-Com. K. Ogawa (ass't), Lt. T. Sanagi (ass't).

U.S.S.R. (Embassy at Moscow). Bolshaya Nikitskaya 42 Moscow. Ambassador—K. Hirota. Counsellor—E. Amaha. 1st Secretaries—T. Amagi, K. Sasaki; 2nd Secretaries—M. Shimada, S. Shimada; 3rd Secretary—Y. Ando; Com. Secretary—K. Kawatani; Mil. Attache—Lt.-Col. Y. Kasahara; Naval Attache—Capt. H. Arima, Lt.-Com. I. Matsumoto (ass't).

Japanese Legations Abroad

Argentina, Paraguay & Uruguay (Legation at Buenos Aires). Calle Reconquista 134. Minister—J. Yamazaki. 1st Secretary (& Consul)—I. Uchiyama; 3rd Secretaries (& Consul)—T. Takeoka, H. Masuya; 1st Interpreter—Y. Kitagawa; 2nd Interpreter—J. Salda; Mil. Attache—Maj. K. Shimono; Naval Attache—Capt. K. Yukishita.

Austria & Hungary (Legation at Vienna). Kolbgasse 1, 111 Wien. Minister—M. Ohno. 1st Secretary—K. Nagai; 2nd Secretary—N. Watanabe; Mil. Attache—Col. K. Takahashi.

Canada (Legation at Ottawa). Victoria Build., 140 Wellington Str. Minister—I. Tokugawa. 1st Secretary—Y. Iwate; 3rd Secretary (Vice-Consul)—J. Fukui.

Chili & Bolivia (Legation at Santiago). Calle Diecisecho 552. Minister—Y. Mori. 1st Secretary—M. Kitada; 2nd Secretary—G. Omori; 1st Interpreter—S. Endo; Mil. Attache—Maj. S. Fujita; Naval Attache—Capt. K. Yukishita.

China (Legation at Peiping), Kuomin Street, Peiping. Minister—(Absent). Charge d'Affaires—M. Shigemitsu (Emb. Counsellor). 1st Secretaries—S. Yano, T. Obashi,

T. Horiuchi; 2nd Secretary—K. Hayashide; 3rd Secretaries—S. Uyemura (& Consul), T. Tsuchida, N. Kita; Com. Counsellor—H. Yokotake; Jun. Secretaries—M. Seino, K. Kako; 2nd Interpreter—R. Harada; Mil. Attache—Maj.-Gen. S. Sato; Naval Attache—Capt. H. Kitaoka, Lt.-Com. K. Fujiwata (ass't).

Czechoslovakia (Legation at Prague). Malteske Nam. No. 6, Proha-III. Minister—(absent). 2nd Secretary—K. Kobayashi (Charge d'Affairs).

Greece (Legation at Athens). No. 23, Avenue Kifissias. Minister—S. Kawashima. 1st Secretary—C. Miyakoshi; 2nd Secretary—S. Matsushima.

Mexico (Legation at Mexico City). Calle de Merida 18. Minister—A. Aoki. 2nd Secretary—T. Yanagisawa; 1st Interpreter—Y. Otani; Mil. Attache—Maj. S. Isoda; Naval Attache—Com. K. Ochi.

Netherlands (Legation at Hague). Bezuidenhoutscheweg 87, La Haye. Pays Bas. Minister— 1st Secretary—M. Otaka (Charge d'Affairs); 2nd Secretary—T. Fukuma; 2nd Interpreter—N. Mizuta.

Persia (Legation at Teheran), Av. Pahlarvi. Minister—A. Kasama. 1st Secretary—S. Uyeda; 2nd Secretaries—A. Omi, N. Mikuriya.

Peru (Legation at Lima). Lima, Peru. Minister—S. Kurusu. 3rd Secretary—R. Motono; 1st Interpreter (Vice-Con.)—M. Yodogawa.

Poland (Legation at Warsaw). No. 10 Foksal, Varsocie (Warsaw). Minister—H. Matsushima. 1st Secretary—R. Watanabe; 1st Interpreter—M. Hirata; Mil. Attache—Maj. H. Hata.

Rumania & Yugoslavia (Serb-Cloate-Sloven) (Legation at Bukharest). 16 Strade General Anghelescu, Bucarest. Minister—E. Fujita. 1st Secretary—T. Harima.

Siam (Legation at Bangkok). Surawongse Road, Bangkok.

Minister—Y. Yatabe. 3rd Secretary (& Consul)—T. Takatsu.

Spain & Portugal (Legation at Madrid). Calle de Nunez de Balboa, Madrid. Minister—T. Ota. 1st Secretary—K. Arai; 2nd Secretary—S. Chiba; 2nd Interpreter—T. Komine.

Sweden, Norway, Denmark & Finland (Legation at Stockholm). No. 25 Strandvagen. Minister—Visc. K. Mushakoji. 2nd Secretary (& Consul)—S. Kato; 1st Interpreter—T. Gunji; Mil. Attache—Capt. K. Mike; Naval Attache—Com. S. Inouye.

Switzerland (Legation at Berne). 95, Thunstrasse, Berne. Minister—S. Yata. 2nd Secretary—K. Ichige; 3rd Secretary—S. Miyazaki; Mil. Attache—Maj. T. Nagata.

REPRESENTATIVES TO THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Japanese Office of the League of Nations (Paris & Geneva)

Chief—Min. Plen. N. Sato; Deputy Chief—Emb. Counsellor J. Ito. Secretaries—2nd Emb. Sec. S. Hidaka, 2nd Emb. Sec. T. Sakamoto; Jun. Sec.—S. Kadowaki, S. Urabe.

Japanese Office of the International Labour Organization

Dir. of Int. Labour Board—S. Yoshisaka. Secretary—

Japanese Representatives to the League of Nations Consultative Committee for Army, Navy & Air Problems

Army—Maj.-Gen. S. Kaba; Staff—Lt.-Col. K. Ota; Capt.—M. Shimizu. Navy—Capt. I. Sato; Staff—St.-Com. Baron S. Tomioka; Lieut.—T. Mishiro. Air—Maj.-Gen. S. Kaba; Staff—Lt.-Col. K. Ota; Lieut. T. Mishiro.

Japanese Consulates Abroad

America, N. & S.
New York.....(G) S. Sawada.
San Francisco.....(G) K. Wakasugi.
Seattle.....S. Okamoto.
Portland.....H. Hashino.
Chicago.....J. Kimura.
Los Angeles.....T. Satoh.

Ottawa (Canada).....(V) J. Fukui.
Vancouver (B.C.).....E. Edo.
New Orleans.....T. Watanabe.
Panama.....T. Wakabayashi.
Bauru (Brazil).....K. Ito.
San Paulo.....(G) S. Nakajima.
Lima.....(V) M. Yodogawa.

- Mexico City.....Chancellor Tomiya
(act. Con.)
HavanaK. Uchiyama
Rio de Janeiro.....Chancellor Sato
(act. Con.)
Ribeirao Prato (branch, Brazil)
(V) R. Naruse.
Buenos Aires.....I. Uchiyama.
Mazatlan (Mexico).....K. Kasuga.
- U.S.S.R.**
Vladivostok.....S. Ogata (act. C.G.)
Habarovsk.....(G) T. Yamaguchi.
Chancellor T. Kawazumi.
Petropabrousk(V) Y. Koyanagi (act.)
ManjullH. Hiratsuka.
Alexandrovsk.....(G) S. Sasaki.
Bragovestchensk
Novo Sibirsk...Chancellor K. Nakamura (act. Con.).
- Australia.**
Sydney.....(G) K. Inouye.
- British Colonies.**
Cape Town.....(V) S. Yamazaki
(act. Con.)
Port Said.....(V) T. Harada.
Singapore.....(G) K. Tamaki.
Durban (S.A.).....(V) A. Salto.
- China.**
AmoyH. Terajima.
AntungK. Yonezawa.
Canton.....Y. Suma (act. C.G.).
Chang-Chia-KouS. Yamazaki.
ChangchunS. Tashiro.
ChangshaR. Kasuya.
ChefooG. Uchida.
ChengchiatunSato (act.).
ChengtuM. Abe (act.).
ChiefengN. Nakane (act.).
ChientaoK. Okada.
ChungchingC. Seino.
Fuchou.....(G) S. Tamura.
Hangchow..(V) T. Yonaiyama (act.).
Harbin.....(G) G. Yagi.
HongkongT. Yoshida.
Hunchun (Branch).....H. Higashi.
Ichang.....(V) M. Urakawa (act.).
Kirin.....(G) I. Ishii.
Kluikiang.....Y. Owaku.
- LiaoyangSato (act.).
MukdenS. Uyemura.
NewchwangM. Arakawa.
Shanghai.....(G) M. Shigemitsu.
Shashin(V) Osaki.
SuchouE. Iwasaki.
SwatoueK. Beppu.
TiehlingS. Kondo.
Tientsin.....(G) T. Okamoto.
Tsinan.....(G) K. Nishida.
Tsingtao.....(G) S. Kawagoye.
TitiharY. Shimizu.
WuhuS. Shibasaki.
Yunnan.....D. Hashimaru (act.).
- Dutch Indies.**
Medan (Smatra)T. Suwa.
- Egypt.**
Alexandria.....(G) M. Yokoyama.
- Europe.**
Anvers (Belgium).....F. Minoda.
London.....(G) S. Matsuyama.
LiverpoolI. Okamoto.
LionsU. Munemura.
Marseilles.....(V) J. Tomoda (act.).
Hamburg.....(G) Y. Murakami.
MilanS. Inouye.
StockholmS. Kato.
OdessaB. Tanaka.
- French Colonies.**
Hanoi.....(G) J. Kurosawa.
Saigon.....(V) T. Kuroki.
- Java.**
Batavia.....(G) T. Kuroki.
SourabayaJ. Aneha.
- Hawaii.**
Honolulu.....(G) S. Akamatsu.
- India.**
BombayS. Kurihara.
Calcutta.....(G) H. Sakaha.
Colombo.....(V) C. Mogaki.
Rangoon.....(V) S. Kuga (act.).
- Philippines.**
Manila.....(G) S. Koshida.
Davao (Branch).....(V) A. Saito.
- Siam.**
BangkokT. Takatsu.

N.B.—(G)—Consul-General. (V) Vice-Consul. (act.)—Acting Consul or Acting Vice-Consul.

Japanese Honorary Consulates Abroad

- Argentina.**
San Juan.....Miguel Such.
- Austria.**
Vienna.....Hans Carl Zimmermann.
- Belgium.**
Liege.....Armand Boal Magis.
- Bolivia.**
Lapas.....Victor Munoz Reyes.

- Brazil.**
Manaos.....Aluysio de Araujo.
- Chili.**
Iquique.....Don Horacio Mujica.
- Columbia.**
Bogota.....Don Luis Carlos Corral.
- Czechoslovakia.**
BrahaHans Reiser.
- Denmark.**
Copenhagen.....Henrik Gether (G).
- Ecuador.**
Guayaquil.....Pedro V. Miller.
- France.**
Algeria.. Pierre Marie Auguste Ferrat.
Beyrout (Syria)...Edouard Soubret.
Bordeaux.....Edouard G. Faure.
Le Havre.....Charles F. Langstaff.
Tunis.....Jules Charles Prat.
- Germany.**
Aachen.....Wilhelm Anton Lieven.
Bremen.....F. H. Noltenius.
KolnHeinrich Maus (G.)
LeipzigAlfred Selzer.
Muenchen.....Eduard Schussel (G.)
Stettin.....Arthur Kunstmann.
- Great Britain.**
Adelaide (Australia)
Frank L. Parsons.
Auckland (N.Z.)...A. B. Robertson.
Brisbane (Australia) Fred. E. Loxton.
Broome (Australia)....Arthur Male.
CardiffE. H. Trimby.
Dublin.....A. M. Weatherill.
Durban (S.A.).....W. R. Wright.
Gibraltar.....W. H. Smith.
Glasgow.....A. Scott Younger.
Manchester....William Peer Groves.
Melbourne (Australia)
Sir W. McBeath; P. J. Black (V.)
Middlesborough...Waynman Dixon.
- Valetta (Malta).....Robert Howard.
Wellington (N.Z.)....Arthur Young.
- Greece.**
Salonica.....Edwin N. Saltiel.
- Holland.**
Amsterdam..J. H. L. J. Baron Sweerts
de Landas Wyborgh.
Rotterdam.....H. P. Van Vliet.
- Hungary.**
Budapest..... —
- Italy.**
GenoaLionel Canali.
Livouorne..Comte Giorgio de Chayes.
Naples.....Marques de Compolattro.
Charles Emile Capomazza.
Palermo (Sicily)...Alfredo Follina.
Venice.....Giuseppe Fusinato.
Luxemburg.....Jean Pierre Arendt.
- Norway.**
Oslo..Arthur Fervich Mathiessen (G.)
- Peru.**
Trujillo.....Carlos Larco Herrera.
- Portugal.**
LisbonCarlos Gomes.
- Spain.**
Barcelona..Georges Delgado Lauger.
- Sweden.**
Gottenburg...Carl Ossian Kjellberg.
- Switzerland.**
GenevaAlfred Kern.
ZurichErnest Voegell.
- U. S. A.**
BostonCourtenay Croker.
Galveston.....J. H. Langben.
Juneau (Alaska) —
Mobile.....Henry H. Clarke.
Philadelphia...J. Franklin McFadden.
San Juan (Port Rico)..Miguel Such.
St. Louis.....J. E. Smith.

N.B.—G.—Consul-General. V.—Vice-Consul.

CHAPTER X

NATIONAL DEFENCE

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Relative Position of Army and Navy

Till the time of the Russo-Japanese war (1904-05) the Army was dominant and the Navy secondary in the scheme of national defence. In the organization of the Imperial Headquarters on the occasion of the Japan-China war, for instance, the Chief of the General Staff, a General in the Army, controlled for strategical reasons the two wings of national defence, though they had been distinctly separated in 1893. In the Imperial Headquarters organized at the time of the Russo-Japanese war, the Chiefs of the two services were for the first time placed on equal status as to power, and were placed under the direct control of the Emperor. Since then, so far as expansion is concerned, the Navy has surpassed the Army in the amount voted by the Imperial Diet.

National Defence Program

Subsequent to the Russo-Japanese war Prince Yamagata memorialized the Throne, suggesting that the Army should be increased to twenty-five Divisions in the future, namely in the first term to nineteen Divisions and in the second term to twenty-five Divisions, while the Navy should be expanded to two Squadrons, each consisting of at least eight superior battleships, and of some cruiser squadrons. The project was sanctioned by the Emperor Meiji, and the then Salonji Cabinet promised that the scheme would be carried out as far as the State finances allowed. The national defence program, however, has naturally been modified by the result of the Washington Conference, for which see later.

The Board of Marshals and Fleet Admirals

The Board of Marshals and Fleet Admirals was created in 1898 as the highest advisory body on military and naval matters to the Emperor. The present members are:

Fleet Admiral Count Togo; H.I.H. Marshal Prince Kan-in; Marshal Visé Uyehara.

The Supreme War Council

This is a special war office created in 1887 and may be regarded as the Emperor's advisers and staff officers on all important matters pertaining to war. The members consist of Marshals, Fleet Admirals, Ministers of War and the Navy, Chiefs of the General Staff Office and of the Naval Staff Board, all as ex-officio members, and also those specially nominated by the Emperor. At present the specially nominated members of the Council are:—

H.I.H. Gen. Prince Nashimoto; Gen. Y. Shirakawa; Gen. N. Muto; Gen. I. Inouye; Gen. T. Suzuki; H.I.H. Adm. Prince Fushimi; Adm. K. Takarabe; Adm. K. Okada; Adm. K. Kato.

The Court-Martial Law

The Court-Martial Law revised in 1921 and in force since April, 1922, provides that (1) all offences committed by officers and men to be tried in public, (2) and the accused to be allowed benefit of counsel in their defence. A way is open for appeal.

There are in the Army eight court-martials, i.e. the High, the Divisional and six other temporary ones, while the Navy has the High, the Tokyo, the Admiralty and four other temporary

ones. In both services the court-martial is composed of judges (military or naval officers), law officers (civil)

and clerks, the number of these varying according to the nature of the court.

SECTION I. THE ARMY

1. PREFATORY REMARKS

For about seven centuries till the abolition of feudalism in 1868, military service was an exclusive privilege of samurai, and it was with the advent of the resuscitated Imperial regime that it was converted into a system of conscription service to which sons and brothers of all classes of people are liable on reaching majority. Japan thus adopted the Western system, that of a nation in arms. Of the Generals who rendered most distinguished service in thus organizing the military system of Japan, the names of the late Marshals Yamagata and Oyama and the late General Prince Katsura stand out prominent. Marshal Yamagata carried out in 1884 minute investigations into the military systems of the leading Powers of Europe. As a result of his memorable tour of inspection the military organization of the country was remodelled on the Prussian system. The Marshal's suite contained the best talents of the time so far as military affairs were concerned and included the late General Kawakami, Chief of the General Staff, and the late Prince Katsura. It was by General Kawakami who by the way died soon after the close of the Japan-China war in which he played the most distinguished part, that the staff service of the country was laid on the present basis of perfection and efficiency. On the other hand General Katsura did much to improve the administrative side of the service. In acclimatizing the German method Japan owed much to the late General Meckel of the Prussian army who came to this country in 1885 as adviser to the Japanese army and took under his tutelage most of our distinguished Generals.

2. CONSCRIPTION

The conscription system, first elaborated in 1873 and lastly revised in 1927, requires all able-bodied Japanese males of from full 17 to 40 years old

to respond to the nation's call. In practice, that fundamental principle has never been put in force, and even on such an extraordinary occasion as that of the 1904-5 War the call was limited to a portion of those on the second reserve.

The service is divided as follows:—
Jobi hei-eki (standing army) consisting of **gen-eki** (active service) and **yobi-eki** (1st reserve service); **kobi hei-eki** (2nd reserve service); **hoju hei-eki** (territorial army service); **kokumin hei-eki** (national army service). The youths at full 20 years of age are subject to examination for conscription. Those who pass it as class I are enrolled by lottery in the active service which extends 2 years (3 years in the navy) or 1st or 2nd territorial army service. Lads who finish the active service are placed on the 1st reserve list for 5 years and 4 months (4 years in the navy) at the end of which they are transferred to the 2nd reserve for 10 years (5 years in the navy), and finally, after 17 years and 4 months (12 years in the navy) of service, on the national army. Those who have gone through the period of territorial army service also pass into the national army. Youths who are classed as II are not recruited, but placed on the national army service.

Exemption and Postponement.—Those who are classed as III are exempted from service, while class IV lads are to be examined again the following year and, if they remain in the same class after repeated examinations, are exempted. Criminals and the only supporters of the family have their enlistment put off. Postponement of the enlistment is allowed in favor of lads studying at schools, Government or private, which are recognized to be of a status at least equal to that of Middle Schools till they reach 27 years of age according to the length of the terms of schools they attend. Such boys are subject to conscription examination when they cease to attend schools. This postponement is also

applicable to those staying abroad except in near Asiatic countries, to the age of 37. On the other hand, a student living within the eligible limit is enrolled at once in the service without the favor of chance of exemption from active service incidental to the drawing of lots, as soon as he leaves a school placed under the postponement clause, or when he reaches the above ages.

Short Term Active Service.—Under the new conscription law in force since Dec. 1927, the term of active service of those conscripts who finished the course of the Seinen Kunrensho or Young Men's Training Institutes (also see under Chapter on Education) has been reduced to 18 months, while that of the graduates of normal schools has been shortened to 5 months. The system of this short term active service has also been adopted in the Navy with the object of spreading and popularizing

	Total No.	A Grade	B 1 Grade	B 2 Grade	C Grade	D Grade	E Grade
1927	581,307	197,887	70,006	127,310	162,911	22,549	644
1928	568,796	171,744	64,970	119,783	171,758	39,861	680

Statistics on stature and weight ascertained through physical examination for three years ending 1928 make the following showing:

	Stature					Average Stature
	Above 1.7 m.	1.6 m.	1.5 m.	Under 1.5 m.	Disqualified	
1926	19,638	202,319	255,620	36,596	3,061	1.593
1927	25,313	236,316	275,937	40,310	3,543	1.596
1928	19,275	249,953	270,599	25,219	3,261	1.596

	Weight					Average weight kg.
	Above 1.7 m. kg.	1.6 m. kg.	1.5 m. kg.	Under 1.5 m. kg.		
1926	59,947	55,755	50,422	45,517		52,537
1927	59,745	55,578	50,313	45,352		52,477
1928	61,261	55,677	50,032	43,199		52,639

The ratio of illiteracy which was 4.28 per cent. in 1910, 3.44 in '11 and 2.17 in '15, was reduced to 0.88 in '25, 0.70 in '27 and 0.61 in '28.

Conscripts and Their Leave of Absence

In order to meet the convenience of the families of conscripts the military authorities have decided to adopt a new departure. According to this conscripts may return home to assist the business of their families at a con-

venient period, staying for the number of days representing their leave, but in no case for more than a fortnight. The proposal was carried into effect in 1919.

While, under the old system the students matriculating in schools were exempted from occasional calls merely, the conscription examination of those students is to be postponed under the new measure till they reach the age of full 27 years.

Examination for Conscription.—Lads of conscript age are classified into six grades as regards their physical examination, as, A, B1, B2, C, D, E, the respective figures in the 1927 and 1928 examinations being as follows:—

venient period, staying for the number of days representing their leave, but in no case for more than a fortnight. The proposal was carried into effect in 1919.

3. PERSONNEL OF ACTIVE SERVICE

Officers.—Infantry, cavalry, artillery, engineer, commissariat and aviation officers are appointed from among cadets trained at the Military Cadets'

School, or non-commissioned officers. Technical officers, surgeons and veterinary surgeons are promoted from among probational officers who must be graduates of universities and technical or medical schools, while for paymasters officers of other arms are trained at the Paymasters' School. Officers can also volunteer for the gendarmerie when they are put to training at the Gendarmerie Training Institute.

Warrant officers.—These are special sergeant-majors.

Non-Commissioned officers.—These comprise sergeant-majors, sergeants and corporals, all to be promoted from the ranks of the privates.

Privates.—These are classified into senior, 1st and 2nd classes.

Promotion and Age-Limit of Officers

Rules for promotion of military officers in service in time of peace are as follows, this limit being reduced to ½ in time of war:

1 year from Sub-Lieutenant to Lieutenant, 2 years from Lieutenant to Captain, 4 years to Major, 2 years to Lieutenant-Colonel, 2 years each to Colonel and next to Major-General, 3

years to Lieutenant-General. The promotion to full General and next to Marshal is left to the will of the Emperor.

Age-limit in the active service is,—for Sub-Lieutenant and Lieutenant 44, Captain 48, Major 50, Lieutenant-Colonel 53, Colonel 55, Major-General 58, Lieutenant-General 62, General 65, and no limit for Marshal.

Opening the Door of the Service

To induce non-commissioned officers to remain in the service, the military authorities devised in 1920 a special system by which the warrant officer of capability may be promoted to a special lieutenant after a short education, to be elevated according to merit to a higher post, even to the supreme Marshalship. On the other hand, to reinforce the Army with erudite officers, the graduates of universities in science or engineering can now be appointed by the Appointment Regulations of Technical Officers gazetted in August 1919, to Engineering or Artillery Lieutenants after 6 months' cadetship, while those graduated from the medical and agricultural colleges are likewise qualified to become Surgeon and Veterinary Lieutenants respectively.

No. of Officers on Active List

	Dec. 1928
Gen. to Maj.-Gen. and ranking officers	213
Col. to Maj. and ranking officers	3,630
Capt. to Sub-Lieut. and ranking officers	9,930
Non-commissioned officers	3,461
Total	17,234
Do. for 1927	17,463
Do. for 1926	17,264

4. ARMY EDUCATION

Military education is under the control of the Military Education Superintendence Board. The principal institutions for military education are:—(1) The Military Preparatory School located at Tokyo educates candidates aspiring to become officers; (2) The Military Cadets' School situated at Tokyo receives the graduates of the Preparatory School and other candidates; (3) The Staff College gives the finishing polish to lieutenants and captains of promising ability and gives

necessary training so as to qualify them to become staff officers. The third is under direct control of the General Staff Office. For benefit of those aspiring to become non-commissioned officers, military training schools were established at Sendai, Toyohashi and Kumamoto in 1927.

Besides the above there are various schools to give special education connected with Army. These are:—the Artillery and Engineering School for 2nd lieutenants of the respective corps to receive necessary training; (2) the

applicable to those staying abroad except in near Asiatic countries, to the age of 37. On the other hand, a student living within the eligible limit is enrolled at once in the service without the favor of chance of exemption from active service incidental to the drawing of lots, as soon as he leaves a school placed under the postponement clause, or when he reaches the above ages.

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the maritime knowledge. The term of active service for the students of middle schools and higher grade schools who underwent the course of military training at schools has been reduced to 12 months for the graduates of middle grade schools and 10 months for those of higher grade schools. The former system of one year volunteers was discontinued after Nov. 30, '27.

While, under the old system the students matriculating in schools were exempted from occasional calls merely, the conscription examination of those students is to be postponed under the new measure till they reach the age of full 27 years.

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years to Lieutenant-General. The promotion to full General and next to Marshal is left to the will of the Emperor.

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Besides the above there are various schools to give special education connected with Army. These are:—the Artillery and Engineering School for 2nd lieutenants of the respective corps to receive necessary training; (2) the

Infantry School to instruct captains and lieutenants in tactics, etc.; (3) the Toyama Military School to give officers and non-commissioned officers from two to seven months' training in gymnastics, and fencing, and also to train the Military Band; (4) the Cavalry School to give eleven months' training to officers and non-commissioned officers of cavalry; (5) the Heavy Artillery School; (6) Field

Artillery School; (7) Gunnery Mechanical School; (8) Paymaster School; (9) Surgery School; (10) Veterinary Surgery School; (11) the Engineering School for training officers and non-commissioned officers in military engineering; (12) the Military Communication School; (13) the Military Motor Car School; (14) Military Aviation Schools (3); (15) the Gendarmerie Training Institute.

Latest Statistics (at the end of Sept. 1930)

	Staff	Students	*Graduates
Staff College	56	160	560
Cadets' School	198	1,410	358
Art. & Eng. School.....	53	147	128
Infantry School	37	175	174
Toyama School	87	210	240
Cavalry School	37	70	108
Field Art. School	77	80	80
Heavy Art. School.....	38	182	104
Army Eng. School.....	50	30	8
Mil. Aviation Schools (3).....	202	55	33
Mil. Motor Car School (est. '25).....	45	68	31
Mil. Communication School (est. '25).....	10	35	35
Mil. Prep. School	32	150	48
Mil. Mechanical School.....	98	250	128
Paymaster School	24	100	42
Surgery School	40	125	125
Vet. Surg. School.....	23	118	—
Mil. Training School (3).....	302	1,680	1,413
Gendarmerie Training School.....	38	80	74

* At the end of Mar. 1930.

5. DEVELOPMENT & REORGANIZATION OF SPECIAL CORPS

As a result of actual experience learned in the 1904-5 war and the World War, special corps has been expanded or reorganized. The development is especially conspicuous in (1) Heavy Artillery, (2) Field and Mountain Artillery, (3) Machine Gun Companies, (4) Communication Corps, (5) Flying Corps, etc.

Heavy Artillery.—This is the new term adopted for the Fortress Artillery in the old system, stationed at the forts existing at various strategic points, as the Bay of Tokyo, Shimonoseki, and others. The system of the former Fortress Artillery having been exclusively defensive and therefore unsuited for aggressive operations, thorough reform was introduced to the system to bring it up to date, the

strength of the artillery corps stationed at various places being unified at the same time. Further to strengthen the efficiency and mobile power of the Heavy Artillery Corps, lighter guns were attached, to be made use of when quick work is required. The Heavy Artillery Corps distributed as follows:—

Regiments:—Yokosuka; Miyama; Shimonoseki.

Battalions:—Hakodate; Maizuru; Keichi; Sasebo; Masan; Ryojun; Keelung; Mako.

Field Artillery and Mountain Artillery.—(A) A field artillery regiment, composed of three battalions, is attached to each Division with the exception of the 9th and 11th Divisions, for each of which a mountain artillery regiment is provided.

(B) Besides there are four brigades of field heavy artillery, each of two

regiments strength, distributed as follows:—

Brigade headquarters	Regiments
1st (Mishima)	2nd
	3rd
2nd (Kokura)	5th
	6th
3rd (Konodal)	1st
	7th
4th (Tokyo)	4th
	8th

(C) Two independent mountain artillery regiments, each two battalions strong, are stationed at Takata (1st reg.) and Kurume (3rd reg.).

Mounted Artillery.—A mounted artillery battalion is stationed at Konodal, Chiba Prefecture.

Mounted Machine Guns.—A Battery of mounted machine guns is attached to each infantry regiment.

Telegraph Regiments.—There are two telegraph regiments, the 1st being stationed in Tokyo, and the 2nd in Hiroshima.

Railway Regiments.—Two railway regiments (both belonging to the Guard Division) are stationed at Narashino and Chiba, both in Chiba prefecture.

Tank Corps.—A tank corps (created in '25) is stationed at Kurume and attached to the 12th Division.

Anti-Air Craft Artillery.—An anti-air craft artillery regiment (created in '25) is stationed at Hamamatsu and attached to the 3rd Division.

Balloon Corps.—A balloon corps is stationed at Tsugamura, Chiba prefecture.

Army Air Force.—At present there are eight flying regiments each consisting of 3 or 4 companies. The force was made an independent service in June 1925, the former term "flying battalions" having been changed into "flying regiments" at the same time. (For further details vide Aviation Section of this Chapter.—Ed. J.Y.B.)

Motor-car Corps and Subsidy.—Motor-car corps, which was created several years ago as a special unit of the Service Corps, was abolished in '25, in connection with the army reorganization and instead an Army Motor-car School was established at Setagaya, Tokyo. In May 1918, a law for granting bounty to motors strong enough for purposes of transportation in time of need was enacted. Rate of bounty allowed to such motor-cars is as follows:—

Capacity of motor car	For construction Yen	Extra allowance Yen	For purchase Yen	For maintenance (yearly) Yen
A. $\frac{3}{4}$ metric tons and over.....	1,500	500	1,000	400
B. 1.0 met. tons and over.....	2,000	500	1,000	500
C. 1.5 met. tons and over.....	3,000	500	1,000	600
D. $\frac{3}{4}$ met. tons and over.....	1,500	375	750	300
E. 1.0 met. tons and over.....	2,000	375	750	400
F. 1.5 met. tons and over.....	3,000	375	750	500

N.B.—A, B and C are goods wagons while D, E and F are those whose bodies can easily be reconstructed into wagons.

Fortresses.—There are 17 fortresses at points of strategic importance, in different parts of the country and dependencies. A heavy artillery regiment or battalion is stationed at each of these fortresses as stated before. They are as follows:—

Yokosuka, Chichijima (Bonin Is.), Yura, Shimonoseki, Maizuru, Sasebo, Tsushima, Nagasaki, Iki, Hakodate, Saganoseki (Oita), Amami-Oshima, Keelung, Mako, Chinkai and Gensan.

6. THE MILITARY LIMITATION

The general situation of the defence

scheme the world over, after the Washington Conference, has induced our authorities to act up to what the signs of the times demand in the problem of armament limitation. The public opinion that had been chafing long under what it considered the exacting demands of the militarists in their appropriations now began to insist that the Army should follow the example set by the Navy and be subjected to thorough process of curtailment. The cry became universal and finally took concrete shape as a representation of the House of Representatives. It

passed undivided in the 1921-22 session of the Diet, and was to the effect that the army budget should be cut down by at least ¥40 millions a year and that the term of service of conscripts be reduced from two years to 1 year 4 months. The representation was received with good grace by the Army, and as the result of readjustment effected between 1922 and 1924 1,800 officers (spread over two years for administrative convenience), 56,000 rank and file and 13,000 horses were eliminated, this corresponding to a reduction of about five Divisions on peace strength. Other important items on the readjustment program were the curtailment by 40 days of the term of service in barracks and by 47 days in calls of reservists of foot-soldiers, 87 days in all; reduction of the barrack service from 3 months to 2 month for commissariats; the abolition of the independent garrisons, the elimination of the higher officers' complement in Chosen, etc. Thus at the end of 1924 the total number of the rank and file had been reduced to about 236,000. The retrenchment amounted to ¥313 millions on ordinary account and ¥41 millions on extraordinary account, total ¥354 millions approximately.

2nd Curtailment.—The second reduction carried out in May 1925 consisted in the abolition of 4 Divisions (13th, 15th, 17th and 18th), this affecting 16 infantry regiments, 4 cavalry regiments, 4 field artillery regiments, 4 engineer battalions and 4 commissariat battalions, and 1 motor-car battalion. Approximately 37,000 officers, non-commissioned officers and privates were eliminated. Besides, about 300 officers were relieved of their duties during the previous year as preparatory step to the Division reduction, and by the end of March 1926 more were discharged.

7. THE REORGANIZED ARMY SYSTEM

The new army system as enforced in the summer of 1925 was based on the principle of quality than quantity, the authorities adopting a new equipment program to compensate for what was lost in the man-power. This new equipment includes the establishment

of 10 air companies, 6 anti-aircraft corps with 24 anti-craft guns, and 2 regiments of tank corps with 40 tanks. Poison gas and other chemical methods are receiving similar attention.

Of the two new tank corps, each with 20 tanks, one (1st tank corp), organized in 1927, is stationed at Kurume and the other (2nd) is to be attached to the infantry school, Chiba pref. A regiment of the anti-air craft corps, organized in '27, is stationed at Hamamatsu, another regiment at the field artillery school in Yotsukaido, Chiba pref., and a detachment of similar corps at Ryusan in Chosen. Two additional air regiments, also organized in '27, are stationed at Hamamatsu and Koshun (Taiwan). An army communications school and an army motor-car school were created in Tokyo. The Manchurian independent garrison and the high (maximum) complement of the Chosen army, which were to be discontinued in 1925 according to the previously determined program, are to be maintained for the present in view of the situation obtaining in Manchuria and Chosen.

The proposal to reduce the period of active service of infantry men from 24 months to 18 months has caused the authorities to enforce a compulsory system of military training of the rising generation and especially boys of middle and higher schools. The education authorities introduced the particular item into the curriculum of those schools, commencing April 1925, training being given by army officers in active service specially detailed by the Minister of War. Over 1,000 army officers have been selected from among all army Divisions for this purpose and appointed instructors of military training in universities, colleges, other higher schools, middle schools, etc.

At the same time, the term of the active service for graduates of normal and other schools have been reduced. As the result thereof the former system of one-year volunteer service was discontinued after 1927.

8. THE ARMS DEPOT AND MILITARY ARSENALS

The Arms Depot has its headquarters in Tokyo, and branches at Tokyo,

Chiba, Nagoya, Osaka, Hiroshima and Kokura. They conduct the purchase, storing, maintenance, repairs, distribution, replacement, etc. of arms and ordnance, mounting of guns and similar work. The Military Arsenals exist at Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya and Oji (near Tokyo), each having a number of branch factories and powder magazines, with the headquarters at Koishikawa (Tokyo). They undertake the designing, planning and manufacture of arms, ordnance, munitions of war and powder required in the army, their repairs and inspection, and also undertake the manufacture of powder and arms for the Navy and the public at their request. Besides there are ordnance manufactories at Jujo (near Oji), Tadaumi, Atsuta, Kokura and Heijo (Chosen).

9. ARMY ON PEACE STANDING

Organization

A Division is generally composed of 2 brigades of infantry, 1 regiment each

of cavalry and artillery, 1 battalion each of engineers and army service corps. A regiment of infantry consists of 3 battalions, each 600 men, while a regiment of cavalry is composed of 3 or 4 squadrons, each 100 sabres. A regiment of field artillery consists of 6 batteries, each of 4 guns, while a battalion of engineers consists of 3 companies, each of 150 men, and that of army service corps of 300 men. There are also independent corps, as shown in the table of army distribution given later.

Strength of the Standing Force

As the result of the army adjustment and reorganization effected twice, in 1922 and 1925, the strength of standing force has considerably decreased, it now consisting of 17 Divisions with approximately 220,840 officers and men (15,540 officers and 205,300 warrant officers and men). Classified according to different corps the figure is tabulated as follows:—

Kind	No. of Regiments (or battalions)	No. of Companies (squadrons or batteries)
Infantry	70 regts.; 4 bats.	722 companies
Cavalry	25 regiments	70 squadrons
Field artillery	15 regiments	90 batteries
Mountain artillery	4 regts.; 1 bat.	22 batteries
Mounted artillery	1 battalion	2 batteries
Field heavy artillery	8 regiments	44 batteries
Heavy artillery	3 regts.; 8 independent battalions.	34 batteries
Sappers	17 battalions	48 companies
Railway corps	2 regiments	16 companies
Telegraph corps	2 regiments	16 companies
Air force	8 regiments	26 companies
Balloon corps	1 corps	2 companies
Commissariats	15 battalions	30 companies
Tank corps	1 corps	1 company
Anti-air craft artillery	1 regiment	4 companies

The above force is divided and organized into 17 Divisions and 34 brigades, these being distributed as follows:—

Distribution (As Revised in April 1925)

Divisional headquarters	Brigade, Regiment, Battalion, etc. of various corps and headquarters	Garrison or corps
Imperial Guard Division (Tokyo)	Infantry { Guard Brig. 1: Tokyo ... Guard Regs. 1 & 2 } Tokyo	
	Infantry { Guard Brig. 2: Tokyo ... Guard Regs. 3 & 4 } Tokyo	
	Cavalry Brig. 1: Narashino ... { Guard F. A. Reg. } Narashino	
	Field Heavy Art. Brig. 4 Tokyo ... { Regs. 13 & 14 } Tokyo	
	Engineer Guard Bat.; Commissariat Guard Bat.; Telegraph Reg. 1 ... { Reg. 8 } Tokyo	
	Railway Reg. { 1 ... } Chiba	
	Railway Reg. { 2 ... } Narashino	
	Flying Reg. 5 ... Tachikawa	
	Balloon Corps ... Tokorozawa	
		{ Reg. 4 } Shimoshizu
1st Division (Tokyo)	Infantry { Brig. 1: Tokyo ... { Reg. 49 } Kofu	
	Infantry { Brig. 2: Tokyo ... { Reg. 1 } Tokyo	
	Infantry { Brig. 2: Tokyo ... { Reg. 3 } Tokyo	
	Infantry { Brig. 2: Tokyo ... { Reg. 57 } Sakura	
	Cavalry Brig. 2: Narashino ... { Regs. 15 & 16 } Narashino	
	Cavalry Brig. 2: Narashino ... { Reg. 1 } Tokyo	
Field Heavy Art. Brig. 3 Konodai { Field Art. Reg. 1 } Konodai		
Field Heavy Art. Brig. 3 Konodai { Mounted Art. Bat. } Konodai		
Field Heavy Art. Brig. 3 Konodai { Field Heavy Art. Regs. 1 & 7 } Konodai		
Yokosuka Heavy Artillery Reg. ... Yokosuka		
Eng. Bat. 1; Commissariat Bat. 1 ... Tokyo		
2nd Division (Sendai)	Infantry { Brig. 3: Sendai ... { Reg. 4 } Sendai	
	Infantry { Brig. 3: Sendai ... { Reg. 26 } Wakamatsu	
	Infantry { Brig. 15: Takata ... { Reg. 16, Bats. 1 & 2 } Shibata	
	Infantry { Brig. 15: Takata ... { Reg. 16, Bat. 3 } Muramatsu	
Cavalry Reg. 2; Field Art. Reg. 2; Eng. Bat. 2; Comt. Bat. 2 ... Sendai		
Independent Mountain Art. Reg. 1 ... Takata		
3rd Division (Nagoya)	Infantry { Brig. 5: Nagoya ... { Reg. 6 } Nagoya	
	Infantry { Brig. 5: Nagoya ... { Reg. 68 } Gifu	
	Infantry { Brig. 29: Shizuoka ... { Reg. 18, Bats. 1 & 2 } Toyohashi	
	Infantry { Brig. 29: Shizuoka ... { Reg. 18, Bat. 3 } Hamamatsu	
	Infantry { Brig. 29: Shizuoka ... { Reg. 34 } Shizuoka	
	Cavalry Brig. 4: Toyohashi ... { Reg. 3 } Nagoya	
	Cavalry Brig. 4: Toyohashi ... { Regs. 25 & 26 } Toyohashi	
	Field Heavy Art. Brig. 1: Mishima { Field Art. Reg. 3 } Nagoya	
	Field Heavy Art. Brig. 1: Mishima { Field Heavy Art. Regs. 2 & 3 } Mishima	
	Comt. Bat. 3 ... Nagoya	
Anti-air Craft Art. Reg. 1 ... Toyohashi		
Eng. Bat. 3 ... Gifu		
Flying Regs. 1 & 2 ... Hamamatsu		
Flying Reg. 7 ... Hamamatsu		

Note.—The standing force stationed in Taiwan and Manchuria is excluded. Figures show numbers of brigades, regiments, etc.; locations of headquarters are given either after colon or dot.

Divisional headquarters	Brigade, Regiment, Battalion, etc. of various corps and headquarters	Garrison or corps
4th Division (Osaka)	Infantry { Brig. 7: Osaka ... { Reg. 8 } Osaka	
	Infantry { Brig. 7: Osaka ... { Reg. 70 } Sasayama	
	Infantry { Brig. 32: Wakayama ... { Reg. 61 } Wakayama	
	Infantry { Brig. 32: Wakayama ... { Reg. 37 } Osaka	
	Cavalry Reg. 4: Comt. Bat. 4 ... Osaka	
Field Artillery Reg. 4 ... Shidayama		
Miyama Heavy Artillery ... Miyama		
Engineer Bat. 4 ... Takatsuki		
5th Division (Hiroshima)	Infantry { Brig. 9: Hiroshima ... { Reg. 11 } Hiroshima	
	Infantry { Brig. 9: Hiroshima ... { Reg. 41 } Fukuyama	
	Infantry { Brig. 21: Yamaguchi ... { Reg. 21 } Hamada	
	Infantry { Brig. 21: Yamaguchi ... { Reg. 42 } Yamaguchi	
Cavalry Reg. 5; Field Art. Reg. 5; Eng. Bat. 5; Comt. Bat. 5; Telegraph Reg. 2 ... Hiroshima		
6th Division (Kumamoto)	Infantry { Brig. 11: Kumamoto ... { Reg. 13 } Kumamoto	
	Infantry { Brig. 11: Kumamoto ... { Reg. 47 } Oita	
	Infantry { Brig. 36: Kagoshima ... { Reg. 23 } Miyakonojo	
	Infantry { Brig. 36: Kagoshima ... { Reg. 45 } Kagoshima	
Cavalry Reg. 6; Field Art. Reg. 6; Eng. Bat. 6; Comt. Bat. 6 ... Kumamoto		
7th Division (Asahikawa)	Infantry { Brig. 13: Asahikawa ... { Reg. 25 } Sapporo	
	Infantry { Brig. 13: Asahikawa ... { Reg. 26 } Asahikawa	
	Infantry { Brig. 14: Asahikawa ... { Regs. 27 & 28 } Asahikawa	
	Infantry { Brig. 14: Asahikawa ... { Regs. 27 & 28 } Asahikawa	
Cavalry Reg. 7; Field Art. Reg. 7; Eng. Bat. 7; Comt. Bat. 7 ... Hakodate		
Hakodate Heavy Art. Bat. ... Hakodate		
8th Division (Hirosaki)	Infantry { Brig. 4: Hirosaki ... { Reg. 5 } Aomori	
	Infantry { Brig. 4: Hirosaki ... { Reg. 31 } Hirosaki	
	Infantry { Brig. 16: Akita ... { Reg. 17 } Akita	
	Infantry { Brig. 16: Akita ... { Reg. 32 } Yamagata	
Field Art. Reg. 8; Comt. Bat. 8 ... Hirosaki		
Cavalry Brig. 3: Morioka ... { Reg. 8 } Morioka		
Eng. Bat. 8 ... { Regs. 23 & 24 } Morioka		
9th Division (Kanazawa)	Infantry { Brig. 6: Kanazawa ... { Reg. 7 } Kanazawa	
	Infantry { Brig. 6: Kanazawa ... { Reg. 35 } Toyama	
	Infantry { Brig. 18: Tsuruga ... { Reg. 19 } Tsuruga	
	Infantry { Brig. 18: Tsuruga ... { Reg. 36 } Sabae	
Cavalry Reg. 9; Mount. Art. Reg. 9; Eng. Bat. 9; Comt. Bat. 9 ... Kanazawa		
10th Division (Himeji)	Infantry { Brig. 8: Himeji ... { Reg. 39 } Himeji	
	Infantry { Brig. 8: Himeji ... { Reg. 40 } Tottori	
	Infantry { Brig. 33: Okayama ... { Reg. 10 } Okayama	
	Infantry { Brig. 33: Okayama ... { Reg. 63 } Matsuye	
	Infantry { Brig. 33: Okayama ... { Reg. 63 } Himeji	
Cavalry Reg. 10; Field Art. Reg. 10 ... Himeji		
Eng. Bat. 10 ... Okayama		
Comt. Bat. 10 ... Himeji		
11th Division (Zentsuji)	Infantry { Brig. 10: Zentsuji ... { Reg. 12 } Zentsuji	
	Infantry { Brig. 10: Zentsuji ... { Reg. 22 } Matsuyama	
	Infantry { Brig. 22: Tokushima ... { Reg. 43 } Tokushima	
	Infantry { Brig. 22: Tokushima ... { Reg. 44 } Kochi	
Cavalry Reg. 11; Mount. Art. Reg. 11; Eng. Bat. 11; Comt. Bat. 11 ... Zentsuji		

Divisional headquarters	Brigade, Regiment, Battalion, etc. of various corps and headquarters	Garrison or corps
12th Division (Kurume)	Infantry {	Brig. 12: Fukuoka ... { Reg. 14 Kokura
		Reg. 24 Fukuoka
	Brig. 24: Kurume ... {	Reg. 46 Omura
		Reg. 48, Bats. 1 & 2 ... Kurume
	Field Heavy Art. Brig. 2: Kokura	Reg. 48, Bat. 3 ... Saga
	Field Art. Reg. 24; Independent Mountain Art. Reg. 3	Regs. 5 & 6... .. Kokura
	Shimonoseki Heavy Art. Reg. Kurume
Sasebo Heavy Art. Battalion Shimonoseki	
Keichi Heavy Art. Battalion Sasebo	
Flying Reg. 4... Keichi	
Cavalry Reg. 12; Eng. Bat. 18; Comt. Bat. 18; Tank Corps. 1 Tachiarai	
14th Division (Utsunomiya)	Infantry {	Brig. 27: Utsunomiya ... { Reg. 2 Mito
		Reg. 59 Utsunomiya
	Brig. 28: Takasaki ... {	Reg. 15 Takasaki
		Reg. 50 Matsumoto
Cavalry Reg. 18; Field Art. Reg. 20; Comt. Bat. 14 Utsunomiya	
Eng. Bat. 14 Mito	
16th Division (Kyoto)	Infantry {	Brig. 19: Kyoto... .. { Reg. 9 Kyoto
		Reg. 20 Fukuchiyama
	Brig. 30: Tsu {	Reg. 33 Tsu
		Reg. 38 Nara
	Cavalry Reg. 20; Field Art. Reg. 22; Eng. Bat. 16; Comt. Bat. 16 Kyoto
Flying Reg. 3 Yokaichi	
Maizuru Heavy Art. Battalion Maizuru	
19th Division (Ranan, Chosen)	Infantry {	Brig. 37: Kanko { Reg. 73 Ranan
		Reg. 74 Kanko
	Brig. 38: Ranan {	Reg. 75 Kainei
		Reg. 76 Ranan
Cavalry Reg. 27; Field Art. Reg. 25 Kainei	
Eng. Bat. 19	
20th Division (Ryusan, Chosen)	Infantry {	Brig. 39: Heijo { Reg. 77 Heijo
		Reg. 78 Ryusan
	Brig. 40: Ryusan {	Reg. 79
		Reg. 80, Bats. 1 & 2 ... Taikyu
	Cavalry Reg. 28; Field Art. Reg. 26; Eng. Bat. 20 Ryusan
Flying Reg. 6 Heijo	
Masan Heavy Art. Battalion Masan	

Note.—13th Division at Takata, 15th Division at Toyohashi, 17th Division at Okayama and 18th Division at Kurume were abolished in April 1925.

SECTION II. THE NAVY

(For the History, etc., see the 1929 edition, J.Y.B.)

1. THE NAVAL PROGRAM

At the time of the Washington Conference the Japanese Navy had on hand a program for the construction of the first 8-8 unit fleet as approved by the 41st (1920) session of the Diet. The program, scheduled to be completed in 1927, consisted of a main force

of 8 battleships armed with 16-inch guns (Nagato and later ships), and 8 battle-cruisers (the Akagi and later ships), and auxiliaries of 26 cruisers, 94 destroyers, and 93 submarines. This scheme, however, had to be abandoned, in conformity with the Naval Treaty agreed upon at the Conference, only

the Mutsu and the Nagato on the list (being retained. The construction of 6 other battleships and 8 battle-cruisers was either suspended or given up, with the exception of the battle-cruisers Akagi and Amagi, which were retained for conversion as aeroplane tenders. As the Conference did not come to any definite agreement in regard to crui-

sers and other auxiliary ships, excepting aeroplane carriers, the Japanese Navy decided to follow the prescribed program in this respect, though with some reduction. The program, to be completed by 1927 as originally scheduled, was completed in March '29 as follows:—

Kind of ships	No. of ships	Tonnage
Cruisers (Tenryu built in 1919, and later ships).....	25	150,000
Destroyers (Built in 1918 and later).....	81	89,600
Submarines	67	68,536

On the completion of the aforementioned program the strength of the Japanese Navy stands as follows:—

Kind of ships	No. of ships	Tonnage
Capital ships	10	304,320
Battleships (Mutsu, Nagato, Hyuga, Ise, Yamashiro, Fuso)	6	191,320
Battle-cruisers (Kongo, Hiyel, Kirishima, Haruna)	4	113,000
Auxiliary ships	173	315,236
Cruisers	25	157,700
Destroyers	81	89,000
Submarines	71	68,536

Besides the above there were at the time of the Washington Conference about 40 cruisers, coast defence ships, gunboats, etc. of older type representing a tonnage of 150,000, and about 100 destroyers and torpedo boats, also of older type amounting to 27,000 tons.

The lesson taught by the World war has persuaded Japan to slightly modify, strictly within the limit of the Washington Conference, the original 8-8 program, and to supersede the plan of building light cruisers of 5,500 ton class with one of 7,000 tons, and moreover to construct four 10,000 ton high-speed cruisers equipped with 8-inch guns. This preference of larger vessels is also seen as regards destroyers and submarines, as Japan is to follow as far as possible the example set by other Naval powers.

Apart from the ten capital ships (304,320 tons), the existing strength of the Imperial fleets consists of 268 warships with the aggregate tonnage of 579,424 tons, comprising 29 cruisers (175,775 tons), 106 destroyers (113,975 tons) and 78 submarines (71,836 tons). The above is the minimum strength of the auxiliary warships that Japan considers as absolutely necessary for ensuring her national defence.

2. NAVAL DISTRICTS AND BASES

The coast of Japan is divided into three naval districts, each having its Naval stations, i.e. Yokosuka, Sasebo, and Kure. At each of these stations there is an Admiralty, with an arsenal, a marine corps, air force, and other provisions necessary for a naval base. Besides there are Strategic Ports or secondary naval stations at Maizuru, Ominato, Ryojun (Port Arthur), Mako (Taiwan) and Chinkai (Chosen). The coast and adjacent sea of Kwantung province are termed the Kwantung naval district and those of the South Sea mandatory Isles the South Sea naval district, and are respectively under control of the Sasebo and Yokosuka naval stations.

Naval Arsenals and Shipbuilding

Each Admiralty has an arsenal with a shipbuilding yard and possesses a dry dock for accommodating large warships. The Yokosuka and Kure Arsenals have each two cradles, capable of taking in superdreadnoughts of over 40,000 tons, but the Sasebo and Maizuru Arsenals have each only one cradle for building cruisers and lesser ships. Besides the above there are private establishments approved by the Navy. They are the Mitsubishi